

GAZI UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

A STUDY ON ERROR CORRECTION TO REDUCE LEARNING
ANXIETY IN ORAL COMMUNICATION IN EFL CLASSES

M.A THESIS

By
Somayyeh GOLABI SALMASI

Ankara
August, 2013

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Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Ash ÖZLEM TARAKÇIOĞLU

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APPROVAL

Somayyeh GOLABI SALMASI' ye ait "A Study On Error Correction to Reduce Learning Anxiety in Oral Communication in EFL Classes" başlıklı tezi 13.08.2013 tarihinde, jürimiz tarafından İngiliz Dili Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalında Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak Kabul edilmiştir.

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE YABANCI DİL SINIFLARDAKİ SÖZLÜ İLETİŞİMDE YABANCI DİL KAYGISINI AZALTMADA HATA DÜZELTME TEKNİKLERİNİN ETKİLERİ ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Bu çalışma öğrencilerin hata düzeltme strateji tercihlerinin, sözlü iletişimde ne ölçüde öğrencilerin kaygı düzeylerini etkilediğini araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Bu çalışma, Türkiye'de bulunan üç devlet üniversitenin İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümünden, 266 öğrencinin katılımı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Üç grup veri, üç araç ile toplanmıştır. Verilerin ilk grubu Yabancı Dil Öğrenme Kaygısı Ölçeği (FLCAS) anket yoluyla toplanmıştır. Çalışmada katılımcılardan ilk olarak genel dil kaygı düzeyleri değerlendirmek için FLCAS anketinin tamamlanması istenmiştir. Sonra onlar üç farklı kaygı düzeyleri: düşük, orta ve yüksek olarak kategorize edilmiştir. Katılımcıların üç farklı kaygı düzeyleri olarak kategorize edilmenin amacı, öğrencilerin hata düzeltme yöntem tercihlerinin, onların kaygı seviyelerine göre değişip ya da değişmeyeceğini belirlemektir. Verilerin ikinci grubu, Chaudron'nun hata düzeltme stratejileri ile ilgili 27 hata düzeltme yöntemleri listesinden ve verilerin üçüncü grubu, öğrencilerin hangi hata türlerinin düzeltilmesi ve düzeltmeyi kimin yapabileceği ile ilgili tercihlerini, iki açık uçlu soru ile toplanmıştır. Nicel veri analizinin sonuçları, öğrencilerin yaklaşık yarısının (43,8%) telaffuz hataların düzeltilmesinin onlar için önemli olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ayrıca, sonuçlar öğrencilerin çoğunluğunun (62,1%) sözlü iletişim sırasında hatalarının öğretmenleri tarafından düzeltilmesini tercih ettiklerini göstermiştir. Buna ek olarak, sonuçlar öğrencinin hata düzeltme yöntem tercihleri ve kaygı düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Kaygı düzeyi düşük olan tüm öğrenciler, açıkça düzeltilmeyi tercih etmiş, öğrencilerin öğretmenlerinin

doğru cevabı sağladığı hata düzeltme tekniklerini tercih ettikleri ortaya çıkmıştır. Oysa kaygı düzeyi orta ve yüksek bazı öğrenciler hataları dolaylı olarak düzeltildiğinde daha iyi hissetmiş, bu öğrenciler öğretmenlerinin sadece hatalarının yerini gösterdiği ve düzeltme konusunda ipucu verdiği hata düzeltme tekniklerini tercih etmiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Yabancı dil kaygısı, İngilizce dili öğretimi, hata düzeltme

ABSTRACT

A STUDY ON ERROR CORRECTION TO REDUCE LEARNING ANXIETY IN ORAL COMMUNICATION IN EFL CLASSES

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The purpose of this study is to investigate EFL students' preferences of error correction strategies in oral communication and the extent to which their preferences are affected by the anxiety levels of the students. This study is conducted at three state universities with the participation of 266 students from the department of ELT in Turkey. Three sets of data were collected through three instruments. The first set of data was collected through the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) questionnaire. The subjects in the study were first asked to complete FLCAS to assess their general language anxiety level. Then they were categorized into three different anxiety levels: low, medium and high. The aim of categorizing the subjects into three different anxiety levels is to determine whether the students' preferences of error correction methods change according to their anxiety levels. The second set of data was collected through Chaudron's (1988) taxonomy concerning error correction strategies which was a list of 27 error correction methods and the third set of data was collected by two open ended questions with regard to the types of errors that learners preferred to be corrected and person who provides correction. The analyses of the quantitative data reveal that nearly half of the students (43.8%) believe the corrections of pronunciation errors are important for them. Moreover, the results also indicate that the majority (62.1%) of the students prefer their teachers to correct their errors during oral communication. In addition, the results indicate that there is significant relationship between student's preferences of error correction methods and their anxiety levels. All students with low levels of anxiety prefer to be corrected explicitly, they prefer some correction technique in which the teacher supplies the correct answer. Whereas some students with medium

and high levels of anxiety feel better when they are corrected implicitly, these students prefer the error correction technique in which their teacher shows the place of error and gives a clue about how to correct it.

Keywords: Foreign language anxiety, English language teaching, error correction.

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1

INTRODUCTION**1.1. Introduction**

Language learning is a complex process, involving a seemingly infinite number of variables. According to Brown (1994) cognitive and affective factors both influence language learning. The elements of the affective domain are as important as the elements of the cognitive domain in language learning. The affective domain is “the emotional side of human behavior in the language learning process” (Brown, 1994: 134). Also Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) define affective variables as “emotionally relevant characteristics of the individual that influence how she or he will respond to any situation” (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993: 1), so it can be stated that the affective domain, which is associated with the emotions or feelings of human beings, involves certain personality traits or qualities such as self esteem, empathy and introversion (Brown, 1994). Many studies have focused on affective variables because of the important relationship between affective variables and students’ performance in language learning.

Anxiety is one of the most important facets of the affective domain in the language learning process which can be observed at every stage of the learning process. Brown defines anxiety as “a feeling of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension or worry” (Brown, 1994: 141). Anxiety becomes particularly obvious, in language classroom interactions when learners may want to avoid making mistakes, they think that it could do harm to their self-image; so they may feel anxious and keep silent (Aydın, 2001). So, it can be said that learning anxiety is a real problem in language learning process and also it is widely recognized in the EFL literature that anxiety while learning has a negative relationship to L2 achievement. Also, it can be mentioned that errors have negative connotations for language students, so correcting learners’ error without considering their feelings is counterproductive. Therefore, unless the

psychological factors are taken into consideration, the fear of making errors will be a barrier to communication.

The aim of this study is to investigate students' preferences of errors and correction strategies in oral communication. Knowing students' preferences regarding to their errors and error correction methods may be one way to decrease their anxiety in language classrooms during oral communication. It is hypothesized in this study that the students' level of anxiety, affects their preferences of errors and error correction methods.

This study is conducted with the participation of 266 students in the English Language Teaching Department at three state universities in Turkey. Subjects are asked to fill the questionnaire. Three sets of data are collected through this questionnaire. The first set of data is collected through the FLCAS questionnaire, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale that measures the general level of language anxiety of students of a foreign language. The second set of data is collected through Chaudron's (1988) taxonomy concerning error correction strategies and the third set of data is collected by two open ended questions with regard to the types of errors that learners preferred to be corrected and person who provides correction. In this study, data quantitatively is analyzed using the Statistic Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to obtain descriptive statistics to determine the potential relationship between dependant and independent variables.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Many English language learners are competent in reading, writing, and listening but not highly competent in speaking, because they are worried about making oral mistakes which cannot be ignored once uttered. Students really want to be competent in speaking as well as in the other three skills, but they face one obstacle which is learning anxiety. Learning anxiety in speaking is a real problem. It is widely recognized in the literature that anxiety while learning has a negative effect on L2 achievement. So the

first key to improve the students' oral communication is reducing their classroom anxiety. There should be more ways to make students less anxious. Knowing students' attitude and preference of their errors and error correction methods may be one way to decrease student anxiety in language classrooms.

The study was conducted to investigate the following research questions:

1. Does anxiety influence learners' preferences with regard to error types?
2. Does anxiety influence learners' preferences with regard to error correction sources (E.g. teachers, peers and self-correction)?
3. Is there any relationship between anxiety levels of students and their preference of error correction methods?

1.3. Aim of the Study

As Aydın (2001) asserts, students experience higher levels of anxiety when they have to speak in the foreign language, but having to speak in front of others has been found as the real anxiety-evoking situation. Also, speaking in front of students' peer is found as a very anxiety provoking activity by Price (1991). In his study, speaking in front of students' peers is found as a very anxiety provoking activity for the foreign language learners since the subjects concern about making errors in pronunciation.

In this study, the researcher is supposed to investigate basically the techniques of correction given in response to learners' oral errors, and to inspect the perceived role and impact of different error treatment techniques on (reducing) learners' anxiety and improving participation in the language learning process. In other words, the study is designed to monitor which error correction techniques that preferred by the learners contribute to the reducing of learning anxiety in order to provide an active involvement in the English language learning classes.

1.4. Significance of the Study

Since there is a lack of research in the field of foreign language teaching concerning the students' preference about error correction methods to lower students' language anxiety, the findings of this research may contribute to the studies in effective teaching strategies. Error correction strategies may aid in determining the underlying reasons for language anxiety and in identifying situations in which it arises.

If instructors are informed about the students' attitudes about error and error correction methods, they may be able to have more effective teaching. In other words, it can be stated that this study is crucial in providing information about learners' attitudes and approaches on error correction and particularly in appreciating the learners' attitudes toward oral error correction. The way teachers cope with errors may be important in recognizing the value of error treatment in the teaching of a foreign languages, which may well reduce or increase their anxiety levels.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

Several limitations have been set in this study. Due to time constraints only 266 students from the department of English Language Teaching of three universities in Turkey have randomly participated in this study. The study is also restricted to the identification and specification of the Turkish EFL learners' preference for oral error correction techniques. Since the study is learner-oriented, learners' point of view are attended to but teachers' perceptions about the ways errors are corrected are left out of the scope of the study. Data are collected solely by means of a questionnaire, in which only Chaudron's taxonomy (1988) are used to determine the learners' perception of error correction methods.

1.6. Assumptions

In this research, it is presupposed that;

- The tools drawn on ascertaining learners' preferences for and perceptions of error treatment techniques are valid and reliable.
- The responses given by subjects in questionnaires are all honest and sincere.
- For these reasons, the evaluation and analysis of the data are presumed to be valid and reliable.

1.7. Key Words

The following terms are repeatedly used in the chapters of this thesis. Foreign language **anxiety** in the literature has been defined as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language learning” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 284). Based on Brown's conclusions on the relationship between language learning and anxiety, it is possible to simply define **foreign language anxiety** as a feeling of inhibition in using the foreign language (cited in Balamir, 2009). **Second language** is defined in the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards, Platt, and Platt, 1992) as “a language which is not a native language in a country but which is widely used as a medium of communication (e.g., in education and in government) and which is usually used alongside another language or languages. **Error** also is indicated as any deviation from the rules of the native language model (Corder, 1973).

The common abbreviation **L1** is employed to mean students' mother tongue and **L2** to mean the (foreign or second) language they are learning and also **EFL** to mean English as a foreign language.

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

As it is mentioned in first chapter, learning anxiety is a real problem in language learning process that it has a negative relationship to L2 achievement. It is widely recognized in the literature that anxiety becomes particularly obvious, in language classroom interactions, when learners may want to avoid making mistakes, they think that it could do harm to their self-image, so they may feel anxious. Therefore, there is a need to release learners from the anxiety of representing correction as failure by knowing students' attitude and preference of their errors and error correction methods. So in this chapter of study, the literature on anxiety and error correction are reviewed.

2.2. Definition of Anxiety

Anxiety is an important affective problem in language classes that needs to be defined and understood very well. Before specifying the types of anxieties that learners experience in foreign language classroom, it is first necessary to define anxiety in general. Since there are a wide variety of explanations about anxiety, it is not easy to settle a precise definition of it. Anxiety is such a complex issue that researchers have been unable to agree on a particular and concise definition. Accordingly, Walker asserts that there are problems in clearly defining what we mean by anxiety “... because anxiety is such a simple word and common experience

for all people, it may come as a surprise that psychologists do not really know exactly what it is”. Many psychologists who express opinion similar to Walker claim that the term of anxiety is too general and also not clear. As Walker states, “... some psychologists have argued that the term itself is so vague and so general that it is useless for precise communication”, because the word is used to cover a large number of situations and multitude of experiences “... some of which are subjective feelings; some, mental reactions; some, physical reactions; and some, changes in behavior” (Walker 2001: 3).

Anxiety has been studied for over seventy years by psychologists. It can be stated that psychologists commonly describe anxiety as “a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object.” (Scovel, 1991: 18). Heston defines anxiety as “a feeling state, an affect. It is closely related to fear, except that anxiety is experienced when there is no apparent reason for fear. It is a physiologic response that is not under conscious control” (Heston, 1992: 103). Accordingly Freud, asserts that anxiety is similar to fear or fright

I avoid entering upon the discussion as to whether our language means the same or distinct things by the word anxiety, fear or fright. I think anxiety is used in connection with a condition regardless of any objective, while fear is essentially directed toward an object (Freud, 1920: 343).

He mentions that “...anxiety is used in connection with a condition regardless of any objective, while fear is essentially directed toward an object” (Freud, 1920: 342).

The definitions of anxiety and fear are often confounded. Since 1985 the words are used interchangeably for the same general concept. As Beck (1985) states, in order to better understanding of the meaning of these terms, it would be wise to consider their dictionary definitions and derivations.

The word fear comes from the Old English word *faer* which meant “sudden calamity or danger.” This word is currently defined as “an agitated foreboding often of some real or specific peril” and as also “the possibility that something dreaded or unwanted may occur” (Cited in Beck, 1985: 7-8).

According to Beck, “these definitions underscore several connotations of the word fear; it points to the possible occurrence of an “unwanted” or calamitous event; the event has not yet occurred; and the individual is concerned about the event”. As he states fear also “refers to the appraisal that there is actual or potential danger in a given situation. It is a cognitive process as opposed to an emotional reaction” (Beck, 1985: 8).

Anxiety, on the other hand, is defined as a “tense emotional state” (Funk & Wagnalls, 1963) and anxiety also is “often marked by such physical symptoms as tension, tremor, sweating, palpitation and increased pulse rate” (Webster’s Third International Dictionary, 1981 cited in Beck, 1985: 8). As Beck mentions, the term anxiety comes from the Latin word *anxius*, and its usage dates back as early as 1525. The Latin term was defined as a condition of agitation and distress. The stem of *anxious-anx* comes from another Latin word, *angere*, which means “to choke” or “to strangle.” The word *anxius* probably referred to the choking sensation frequently experienced by anxious individuals (Lewis 1970 cited in Beck, 1985: 8)

Beck asserts that anxiety may be distinguished from fear in that anxiety is “an emotional process while fear is a cognitive one. Fear involves the intellectual appraisal of a threatening stimulus; anxiety involves the emotional response to that appraisal”. According to him, “when a person says he fears something, he is generally referring to a set of circumstances that are not present but may occur at some point in the future”. On the other hand when a person has anxiety “he experiences a subjectively unpleasant emotional state characterized by unpleasant subjective feelings, such as tension or nervousness, and by physiological symptoms like heart palpitations, tremor, nausea, and dizziness” (Beck, 1985: 9).

Generally, it can be expressed that “a fear is activated when a person is exposed, either physically or psychologically, to the stimulus situation he considers threatening. When the fear becomes activated, he experiences anxiety”. Fear is the appraisal of danger; anxiety is the unpleasant feeling state evoked when fear is stimulated. (Beck, 1985: 9)

Walker also makes a distinction between anxiety and fear. He asserts that “fear is intense anxiety experienced in response to a specific threat” Walker, 2001: 4). Moreover, Freud mentions distinction between anxiety and fear as , “if a person

feels anxious, it is the ego's reaction to threats from within, from the id or the superego, whereas fear is the ego's reaction to external threats" (cited in Çakar, 2009: 10).

In general, from the fields of anthropology, psychology, and education, numerous perspectives on anxiety have been put forward, in the majority of cases, the notion of fear and threat to the person's physical safety or psychological wellbeing in his/her interactions with the environment is concerned. (Wilson 2006:40)

The construction of a valid conceptualization of anxiety has been a goal of psychiatric endeavor since the Freud's work (Michelson & Ascher, 1987: 39). The survey of conceptualization of anxiety was begun with Freud's thought (Hallam, 1985:74). Freud as the forerunner of this school of thought defined anxiety "as a specific state of unpleasure accompanied by motor discharge along definite pathways" (Keable, 1989: 55-56). And also anxiety is defined by him as an unpleasant emotional state arising from a unique combination of phenomenological and physiological qualities (cited in Truitt, 1995: 9).

The initial studies on anxiety date back to the 19th century. "In the 19th century, Darwin (1872) thought of anxiety as an emotional reaction that is aroused when an organism feels physically under threat" (cited in Wilson, 2006: 40).

At the beginning of the 20th century, Keable (1989) assert that the first major contributions to our knowledge of anxiety, based on the learning model, stemmed from Pavlov (1939), Skinner (1938) and Watson (1924)

From their well-known works emerged the "stimulus-response" concept. Accordingly certain stimuli, when associated with fear, could elicit an anxiety response. For example, if I get stuck in a lift on one or two occasions I am very likely to develop a fear of lifts. Similarly, if a child is bitten by a ferocious dog, the child will respond with anxiety the next time he sees the dog. This response will occur even if the dog does not actually bite him again, because the child has learned to associate the dog (stimulus) with the fear (response) of being bitten (Keable, 1989: 37).

Keable states that “anxiety is an extremely unpleasant feeling; it can make people feel frightened, uneasy, unhappy and sometimes desperate”. Anxiety can affect anyone, from all social backgrounds and also affect body, thoughts and emotions, and life-style of the individual. As Keable submits “anxious people may also find themselves increasingly subject to episodes of crying, panicking, worrying, being irritable, unable to concentrate and feeling guilty”. They may hold negative or unreasonable ideas about themselves or the feared situation, e.g. “I can’t cope”. “If I go out I might collapse/make a fool of myself/be sick/have an accident”. Because of these fears, anxious people tend to lose their confidence and even small stresses which are an ordinary part of life become huge obstacles (Keable, 1989: 130-131).

In later decades, anxiety was seen as “a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object” (Scovel, 1991: 18). Kelly defined it, “as a sense of awareness that one’s constructs are inadequate to deal with change”. (Cited in Keable, 1989: 88). Brown (1994), claims that anxiety is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension or worry.

In general terms, anxiety can be defined as “ an unpleasant emotional state or condition which is characterized by subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (Spielberger, 1983, cited in Horwitz and Cope, 1986: 125). Similarly, May states that anxiety as “an emotional response to threat to some value that the individual holds essential to his existence as a personality” (May, 1977: 205). Walker also defined it as “... the reaction we have to a situation in which we believe our well-being is endangered or threatened in some way” (Walker, 2001: 4).

Consequently, it can be concluded that while there is no completely adequate and concise definition of anxiety, researchers commonly describe it as a subjective feeling of tension, worry, apprehension, uneasiness, nervousness, frustration and self-doubt.

2.3. Types of Anxiety

In the literature, there are three different types of anxiety: trait, state and situation-specific anxiety. “Trait anxiety has been shown to impair cognitive functioning, to disrupt memory, and to lead avoidance behavior, in addition to other effects” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991: 87). While “trait anxiety is the tendency to react in an anxious manner, state anxiety is defined as the reaction; it is a situation-specific trait anxiety (Philips, 1992). It is transitory; it is not a long-lasting personality feature that surfaces in a response to particular situation” (cited in Aydın, 2001: 17). MacIntyre & Gardner, assert that “state anxiety is a blend of the trait and situational approaches”. According to them “State anxiety is apprehension experienced at a particular moment in time...” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991: 90).

These two general types of anxiety were introduced by Spielberger (1966), Trait anxiety is defined as the stable personality trait of an individual who is likely to become anxious in any situation. On the other hand “state anxiety results from an unpleasant condition or emotional state and is experienced at a particular moment in time” (cited in İpek, 2007: 11). Brown (1994) adds that “trait anxiety is a more permanent predisposition to be anxious while state anxiety is experienced at a more momentary or situational level, in relation to some particular act or event” (cited in İpek, 2007: 12).

According to Ellis (2008) a distinction can be made between trait anxiety, state anxiety and situation-specific anxiety. Scovel (1978) drawing on work in general psychology, defined trait anxiety as “a more permanent predisposition to be anxious”. It is perhaps best viewed as an aspect of personality. State anxiety can be defined by Spielberger (1983) as apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a response to a definite situation. It is a combination of trait and situation-specific anxiety. This latter type consists of the anxiety which is aroused by a specific type of situation or event such as public speaking, examinations, or class participation (Cited in Ellis, 2008: 691).

Two categories of anxiety have also been described from the perspective of its effects, as facilitating and debilitating anxiety. “In the academic literature there is

a disagreement about the effects of anxiety on learning” (Şakrak, 2009: 29). Several researchers support the idea that anxiety has positive effects on learning; however, others maintain that anxious learners are less successful. “In order to understand the effects of anxiety, one should first understand the types of anxiety”. In general terms, facilitative anxiety has positive effects on language learning but debilitating anxiety has negative effects on language learners and language learning process (Şakrak, 2009: 29-30).

Aydın mentions that “Some experts believe that anxiety does not always impede the learners’ ability, but can even be helpful rather than harmful. The good or mild type of anxiety is called facilitating anxiety which assists performance, keeps students alert and on their toes” (Aydın, 2001: 15). On the other hand, Horwitz (1986) believes that facilitating anxiety can only be helpful for very simple learning tasks, but not for more complicated learning tasks. According to him, “there is no such thing as facilitating anxiety. Since the term anxiety has negative connotations, it can only be used to refer to “debilitating” anxiety, which motivates the learner to flee the new learning task, and stimulate the individual emotionally to adapt avoidance behavior. Therefore, it is called the bad type of anxiety in the literature” (Aydın, 2001:16).

Albert and Haber (1960) introduced the notions of facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety. According to them facilitating anxiety may enhance performance and debilitating anxiety may hinder performance (cited in Young, 1992).

Effects of anxiety on language learning are mentioned in more detail in the following part.

2.4. Language Anxiety and Its Effects on Language Learning

Foreign language anxiety and its effects on the language learning and learners performance have recently received an increasing attention of language teachers and researchers. Although there are still different views and unanswered questions about

how anxiety affects language learning, it is now known enough to conclude that foreign language anxiety is experienced by many language learners and affects their efficacy in the learning process.

Keable states, “Everybody feels some degree of anxiety, this is normal and useful”. As Keable asserts, if we were unable to get anxious at all, it would be extremely dangerous, for example, we need some anxiety to help us to cross the road safely. Also we need some anxiety to give us an extra spur to deal with difficult situations like exams and interviews. It may sound surprising, but moderate anxiety can improve our strength of purpose and also help us to perform better. “Psychologists’ experiments have shown that people who are moderately anxious do better on a variety of tasks than people who have either very high or very low levels of anxiety” (Keable, 1989 : 132).

In the case of language learning, it has been observed that many language learners feel anxiety and fail to learn the language, it is also known that some students have an anxiety reaction against learning the language (Horwitz et al., 1991). As Balemir mentions, “it can be assumed that this anxiety reaction is developed gradually as learners try hard to make progress. When they see that they cannot make progress, they may have an anxiety reaction against learning the language.”(Balemir, 2009: 13)

Generally, it can be stated that scholars, instructors, and language learners have maintained the idea that anxiety affects language learning (Hill and Wakefield 1984; McIntyre 1995; Horwitz 2001; Cheng, (2004).

The initial studies on foreign language learning and anxiety date back to the 1970’s. As Young (1991) asserts, the foreign language profession began to pay more interest in foreign language in the late 80’s and early 90’s. “These studies have primarily investigated the relationship between anxiety and foreign language performance” (İpek, 2007: 13).

In this part of study, it would be wise to consider some studies that have revealed the relationship between anxiety and language learning.

Three correlation studies that investigated the relationship between the anxiety level of language learners and their language performance are reviewed by Scovel (1991). He indicates that these studies show “mixed and confusing results”. The results of first study that is mentioned by Scovel was conducted by Swain are the same as the results of second study that was conducted by Tucker, Hamayan, and Genese (1976). These studies show that anxiety negatively correlated with language proficiency. The third study that is reported by Scovel was conducted by Chastain (1975). In this study Chastain compared the results of an anxiety measure and the results of academic performance of language students in the classroom. The students that enrolled in this study were consisting of three groups: students learning French, German, and Spanish. Between anxiety and the test scores of French students, a negative correlation was reported. However, a positive correlation was found between anxiety and the test scores of the German and Spanish students. Considering the results of Chastain’s study, Scovel asserts that when anxiety and test scores are compared, it is revealed that moderate anxiety could be beneficial (facilitating) as in the German and Spanish students. but, too much anxiety could be harmful (debilitating) as in the French students (Scovel, 1991 cited in Ipek, 2007:14).

Considering these correlation studies, Scovel (1991) advocates that the issue of facilitating versus debilitating anxiety may be central to research in anxiety in second language learning. He states that:

Facilitating anxiety motivates the learner to ‘fight’ the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behavior. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast, motivates the learner to ‘flee’ the new learning task; it stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behavior (p. 22).

Accordingly, Young (1992) also conducted an interview by the English language specialists Krashen, Omaggio, Hadley, Terrel, and Radin that they share their ideas on anxiety in foreign language learning. In this interview Krashen states that “facilitative anxiety may, in general, have a positive effect on tasks that require conscious learning”.

Krashen’s view is supported by Omaggio and Hadley. They state that a little anxiety is necessary to learn, however they mention that anxiety, which means apprehension

or fear, is actually not good. Thus, they support that debilitating anxiety can have a negative effect on the foreign language learning.

As a result of this interview, facilitating anxiety is favorable because it may support the foreign language learning process. On the other hand, debilitating anxiety is not favored because it may inhibit the foreign language learning process.

Consequently as Scovel (1978) states, it can be mentioned that the growing number of the literature indicates both facilitating and debilitating effects of language anxiety. As Çubukçu (2007) indicates,

On one side there are Chastain (1975) and Kleinmann (1977) who find positive relationships between language anxiety and second language achievement. On the other hand, there is a study by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) who hold that foreign language anxiety is responsible for students' negative emotional reactions to language learning and this anxiety stems from immature foreign language communicative abilities. (Çubukçu, 2007: 136).

Several studies have investigated the effects of anxiety on language learning. Horwitz and Young (1991) mention that "Exactly how anxiety impedes language learning has not been resolved". It is believed that effects of anxiety on language learning are both positive and negative. In the same way Kondo (2004) also investigate anxiety in the language learning process. According to him anxiety may be helpful since it can motivate students to study harder to be successful and may be harmful since it can cause negative effects on learning.

Consequently, it can be said that, most of the studies that have investigated the effects of anxiety on language learning, reveal that there are both negative and positive effects of anxiety on language learning.

2.5. Sources of Anxiety

As foreign language anxiety is an important affective problem in language learning, it will be beneficial to be informed about the potential sources of anxiety. The sources of anxiety in foreign language learners needed to be determined, to create a low-anxiety classroom and also to help improving the learners' proficiency in learning. Several researchers have attempted to discover the sources of anxiety in language learning. Their results show that foreign language learners feel anxiety due to several personal and instructional reasons.

In a close review of the literature on anxiety in language learning, Young offers at least six potential sources of language anxiety.” Some are associated with the learner, some with the teacher, and some with the instructional practice”. From an analysis of this research, language anxiety arises from:

- 1) personal and interpersonal anxieties, 2) learner beliefs about language learning, 3) instructor beliefs about language teaching, 4) instructor-learner interactions, 5) classroom procedures, and 6) language testing (Young, 1991: 427).

First of all, regarding personal and interpersonal anxieties, Young indicates that these may involve “low self-esteem and competitiveness” (Young, 1991: 427) or be experienced by those learners who have low proficiency levels or who consider themselves as having poor language ability. Second, regarding to learner beliefs, anxiety is reported to be aroused through a variety of sources such as learners may believe that they must speak with perfect accuracy or accent (Horwitz, 1988), or the learners also think that they do not have the aptitude needed to be able to learn a foreign language (Price, 1991). Third, as far as teacher beliefs are concerned, Young listed the following teacher beliefs which have been shown to evoke feelings of anxiety in students: it is essential for the teacher to be intimidating at times; the instructor is supposed to correct all the students' mistakes; group or partner work is not appropriate because it can get out of control; the teacher should do most of the talking; and the instructor's “role is more like a drill sergeants than a facilitator's” (Young, 1991: 428). Fourth, concerning the relationships between teacher and

language learner, Young gives several suggestions about, how language anxiety may be aroused. She indicates that “severe error correction on the part of the teacher may cause anxiety, although she does point out that learners feel that correction of their errors is desirable to a certain extent...”.(cited in Wilson, 2006: 79). Classroom procedures are the fifth major source of foreign language learning anxiety that evoke anxiety in some language students. Young point out that speaking in front of other students in the classroom is a particularly anxiety-producing activity. She refers to several studies that the majority of students learning a foreign language experience anxiety when doing “oral presentation in front of the class...” (Young, 1991: 429). Young, proposed a list of classroom activities which are perceived as anxiety-provoking: spontaneous role play in front of the class, speaking in front of the class, oral presentations or skits in front of the class, presenting a prepared dialogue in front of the class and writing work on the board. Finally, it is understandable that language testing may lead to foreign language anxiety. Young (1991) considers language testing to be a source of anxiety. She submits that difficult tests, especially tests that do not match the teaching in class, as well as unclear or unfamiliar test tasks and formats can all create learner anxiety.

Similarly, Aydın (2001) conducted a study in a Turkish EFL context, regarding the causes of anxiety in speaking and writing classes. According to this study, the learners’ comments both in the diaries and interviews for each skill reveal their personal concerns, the teacher’s manner in the classroom, and the teaching procedures in speaking and writing classroom as the three main sources of foreign language anxiety. As Aydın mentions, anxiety basically and primarily is caused by “personal reasons, resulted from negative self assessment of learners’ ability, self comparisons to other students, high personal expectations” (Aydın, 2001: 138) and their irrational beliefs about the nature of language learning. The second main category of foreign language anxiety is the teachers’ manners towards learners in the classroom and their errors in the foreign language. The teaching procedures in speaking are the third main sources of anxiety that resulted from “speaking in front of the classroom, making oral presentations and studying individually”. Speaking in the foreign language in front of the teacher and other students was found to be an anxiety provoking situation. “Speak without preparation” in the classroom and “the

desire to be more fluent and the feeling that they were not making a proper social impression on others by making mistakes caused low anxious learners to fear from speaking in front of the classroom”(Aydın, 2001: 144-145).

Accordingly, Wilson (2006) also states that for many learners, speaking is one of the sources of anxiety in language learning. That is, to some extent, many learners suffer from foreign language speaking anxiety, which can simply be defined as the fear of using the language orally. Woodrow (2006) also uses interviews to investigate the sources of anxiety in speaking L2 English students. as a result the three most prominent ‘stressors’ are ‘ performing English in front of classmates’, ‘giving an oral presentation’ , and ‘speaking in English to native speakers’.

Considering learners’ perspectives as one of the potential sources of anxiety, Bailey’s study can be mentioned. Bailey takes into account learners’ perspectives on language anxiety and analyses the diary entries of 11 learners and find that they tend to become anxious when they compare themselves with other learners in the class and find themselves less proficient. She also identifies other sources of anxiety, including tests and learners’ perceived relationship with their teachers (Bailey, 1983 cited in Ellis, 2008: 692).

Similarly, Wörde investigates the sources of language anxiety from the students’ perspectives. In the interviews with students of French, German, and Spanish, Von Wörde, explores the causes of language anxiety. The interviews revealed severely negative experiences from their language classes. According to her study, major sources of anxiety are, “Non-comprehension”, “Speaking activities”, “Pedagogical and instructional practices”, “Error correction”, and “Native speakers” (Wörde, 2003: 3-4).

Price (1991) also considers language anxiety from the students’ perspective by conducting interviews with language learners who were identified as highly anxious. From her case studies, she concludes that “the proficiency level of foreign language classes, students’ language aptitude, certain personality variables such as perfectionism and fear of public speaking, and stressful classroom experiences” are all possible causes of anxiety (cited in Çakar, 2009: 21-22).

Some researchers have suggested that anxiety might be the result of poor performance. Skehan supposed that anxiety “may be partly the result of low achievement” (Skehan, 1989: 115). Horwitz, (2001) also concludes that anxiety is the result of poor language learning. Accordingly Çubukçu also asserts that, “it seems logical to conclude that students who do poorly in language classes would naturally become anxious” (Çubukçu, 2007:136). MacIntyre and Gardner in the study conducted to clarify theoretical perspectives on anxiety in the field of language learning, assert that “foreign language anxiety causes poor performance in the foreign language which produces elevations in state anxiety” (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989: 272). Generally it can be stated that while some scholars claim that having poor language skills is a cause of anxiety, others assert that anxiety is the cause of poor language learning

2.6. Errors versus Mistakes

Both notions of error and mistake have the common characteristic of being wrong models of a language resulting from a failure to utilize a system properly , but academics discriminate between these notions based on some criteria. Before referring to these criteria, it will be better to start by giving definitions of error and mistake.

According to most dictionaries the terms error and mistake are synonyms, while in error analysis, it is convenient to reserve the term mistake for something rather different (Shrestha, 1979). According to Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (1999), “a mistake is an action, opinion or word that is not correct” and “error is the state of being wrong in belief or behavior”.

Different researchers interpret the concept of error and mistake and their identification in various ways.

Edge (1989) suggests dividing mistakes into three categories: slips, errors and attempts. Edge divides it, according to the teacher’s opinion of how a mistake fits in

with an individual student's stage of learning in his or her class. Slips are mistakes that students can correct themselves. errors are mistakes which students cannot correct themselves; attempts are student's intentions of using the language without knowing the right way (Edge, 1989: 9-10).

According to Brown, "a mistake is a performance error that is either a random guess or a 'slip,' in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly". According to this definition, a mistake can be made by native speakers in their native language. On the other hand, errors are problems that native speakers would not have. Brown defines "an error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner" (Brown, 1994: 205). Error also is defined by George, as "any unwanted form by the teacher and course designer, any deviation from the grammar rules of the native language model" (George, 1972: 158).

Since there are various explanations that are asserted by different researchers, presenting their viewpoints will be valuable here. Ellis also states that "errors reflect gaps in a learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner doesn't know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance; they occur because, in a particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows" (Ellis, 1994: 17).

The notions of mistake and error are also discussed by Bartram and Walton. They state that, "the former is caused by the learner not putting into practice something they have learned, the latter is caused by the learner trying out something completely new, and getting it wrong" (Bartram and Walton, 1991: 20). According to them, this distinction is an academic one; however, in practice it is impossible to distinguish between them.

As researchers assert distinguishing between learner's errors and mistakes has always been problematic for teachers and researchers. Corder as one of the pioneers of error analysis acknowledges that "... the problem of determining what is a learner's mistake and what a learner's error is one of some difficulty..." (Corder, 1982: 10). Brown (1987) is also aware of this problem when he asks: "can you tell the difference between an error and a mistake?" (Brown, 1987: 171).

Some academics is classified the difference in their conceptions of error and mistake in terms of systematicity.

Keshavarz (1999) states that “errors are rule-governed and systematic in nature and as such indicative of the learner’s linguistic system at a given stage of language learning”. In contrast to errors, “mistakes are random deviations, unrelated to any system, and instead representing the same types of performance mistakes that might occur in the speech or writing of native speakers, such as slips of the tongue or pen, false starts, lack of subject-verb agreement in a long complicated sentence, and the like”. Keshavarz appears that “mistakes which are due to non-linguistic factors such as fatigue, strong emotion, memory limitations, lack of concentration, etc., are typically random and can be corrected by the language user if brought to his attention” (Keshavarz, 1999: 49-50-51).

Corder also states that learners commit two different types of errors, systematic and non-systematic. The systematic errors are those that occur due to the lack of knowledge while the non systematic ones occur due to memory lapse, slips of tongue, and strong emotions. The systematic errors are often called errors and the non-systematic errors are often called mistakes. According to Corder even native speakers make mistakes. Mistakes can be easily corrected by the learner as soon as they are realized. On the other hand, “systematic errors, which are deviant from the native model are consistent with the learners transitional competence at the time and are not considered errors from the point of view of the learners. Systematic errors cannot be corrected unless feedback is provided” (cited in Şenol, 1992: 23-24).

The difference between error and mistake is also classified by Janicki, according to his conceptions of error and mistake in terms of systematicity. He defines mistakes as being related to the performance of the learner while errors are due to his lack of knowledge of the rules of the language. He expresses that errors are systematic and indicate that the learner has not mastered the target language. However mistakes are not systematic and may be corrected by language users when they notice them (Janicki, 1985 cited in Dirim, 1999: 9).

In distinguishing the difference between error and mistake, Ellis (1994) suggests checking the consistency of learner’s performance. According to him, if

learners consistently say the incorrect utterance, it can be considered as an error, while if they sometimes say it, it can be considered as a mistake. As Ellis asserts learners also can be asked to correct their incorrect utterances in order to distinguish the difference between error and mistake, it can be said that if they can't correct themselves then they may be described as errors. However if they can correct themselves then incorrect utterance can be regarded as mistakes.

To distinguish between errors and mistakes, another general criterion adopted by most error analysts is the frequency of occurrence. "Errors which have a rather low frequency are considered as mistakes or performance errors and those with high frequency as systematic errors" (Cited in Keshavarz, 1999: 51). As Keshavarz (1999) states, "However, it does not seem legitimate to consider frequency alone as the sole criterion for determining what constitutes an error and what a mistake". While high frequency can be considered as a characteristic of errors and not mistakes, low frequency does not necessarily reflect the existence of mistakes (Keshavarz, 1999: 51-52).

2.7. Significance of Errors

Whenever a language is learnt or acquired one is faced with the problem of errors. Errors are an inevitable feature of learning. One can not learn a language without committing errors. It is cited in several studies that errors are essential as signal that learning is taking place and students' progress and success could be indicated by error occurrence. There is a significant shift in attitude towards learner errors. Although traditional review of errors in second language learning states that errors are like sin, today, errors are viewed as an integral part of the language learning, process and they are very significant.

As Shrestha (1979) states, errors "at first, especially in the fifties and early sixties, were looked upon as evils which hindered the learning process and which had to be eradicated. From the sixties to seventies, however, there has been a gradual but definite change in the attitude of language teaching specialists towards errors". The current view suggests that errors as normal and inevitable strategies that language

learner's use, and also it should not be looked upon as problems to be overcome. "Linguists today believe that a learner errs, because he is evolving a language system, that he is always formulating and discarding hypotheses and is constantly testing his knowledge of the language against the data he encounters". Shrestha indicates that researchers have reached the conclusion that errors are an essential part of the learning process, that they show evidence of a system and are not random as is generally supposed.

Moreover, Keshavarz who also shares the same view, states that in second language learning, a more positive attitude developed toward learners' errors. Errors were no longer considered as evil signs of failure, in learning, rather they were seen as a necessary part of language learning process (Keshavarz, 1999: 42-43).

As many language educators and researchers (e.g., Edge, 1989; Hendrickson, 1987) also maintain, making errors is a necessary and natural process of language learning.

Keshavarz asserts that as a result of the new research interest in the processes and strategies of first and second language acquisition, the study of errors, gained unprecedented momentum, because errors were seen as evidence of the processes and strategies of language acquisition (Keshavarz, 1999: 42). With regard to first language acquisition, Menyuk (1971) states that the study of the child native language learner's errors throws light on the types of cognitive and linguistic processes that appear to be part of the language learning process (cited in Keshavarz, 1999: 42).

Now it is widely believed that language learning, virtually any other human learning, involves the making of errors. The learners profit from their errors by using them to obtain feedback from the environment and in turn use that feedback to test and modify their hypotheses about the target language. Thus, from the study of learner's errors, it is possible to get some information about the nature of their knowledge of the target language in their learning career and find out what they still have to learn. By describing and classifying the students' errors, we can build up a picture of the features of the language which are causing their learning problems (Keshavarz, 1999: 43).

Consequently, it can be said that errors have vital functions in the learning process. Jain (1974) who support this view, claims that errors are significant for understanding the process of second language acquisition and planning courses incorporating the psychology of second language learning (cited in Keshavarz, 1999: 45). Dulay and Burt (1974) also state that errors have crucial function in the language learning process. According to the Allwright (1975), language is learned by hypothesis formation about the target language and by testing them during the learning process. Errors provide evidence to learners, about the system of language that they are using (cited in Şenol, 1992: 26).

Many scholars in the field of error analysis have stressed the significance of second language learners' errors. Errors are significant in several ways. As Corder (1967) remarks,

Errors are significant in three different ways. First to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far toward the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learnt or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the marking of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is a way the learner has for testing his hypotheses about the nature of the language he is learning (p. 167).

Keshavarz asserts that Richards (1971) reiterates Corder's view. As he states Richards remarks that errors are significant and of interest to linguists, psycholinguists and teachers. Linguists, because the study of human language is the most fruitful way of discovering what constitutes human intelligence. Psycholinguists, because by comparing children's speech with adult speech, they have been able to examine the nature of the mental processes that seem to be involved in language. Teachers, by analyzing learners' errors, would be able to discover their difficulties and devise a method for comparing them (Keshavarz, 1999: 45).

Generally, it can be affirmed that student's errors have always been of interest and significance to teachers, syllabus designers and test developers. "It is widely held that insights gained from the study of learners' errors can provide

invaluable information for devising appropriate materials and effective teaching techniques, and constructing tests suitable for different groups of learners at various stages of second language development”(Keshavarz, 1999: 124).

As a result, it can be said that errors are an inevitable and natural part of learning process. Systematically studies of learner’s errors, tell us crucial information about teaching and learning better. Therefore, errors are necessary for both teachers and students.

2.8. Theoretical Approaches to Errors

With respect to learners’ errors and language learning, there have been two major schools of thought: the behavioristic and cognitive approaches (Corder, 1967). The former views language as habit formation and error is seen as bad habit which should be avoided, whereas the later considers error as a natural part of the learning process.

Over the past few decades there has been a significant change of attitudes towards students’ errors. In second language acquisition generally it can be said that shifting from a behavioristic approach to a cognitive approach has caused a change about attitudes towards error and error correction.

Corder asserts these two approaches in the following way:

In the field of methodology there have been two schools of thought in respect of learners’ errors. Firstly the school which maintains that if we were to achieve a perfect teaching method the errors would never be committed in the first place, and therefore the occurrence of errors is merely a sign of the present inadequacy of our teaching techniques. The philosophy of the second school is that we live in an imperfect world and consequently errors will always occur in spite of our best efforts. Our ingenuity should be concentrated on techniques for dealing with errors after they have occurred. (Corder, 1967: 162-163)

Throughout the 1950s and 1960s a rather negative attitude towards errors was prevalent (Keshavarz, 1999: 127). During that period behaviourism was a common psychological approach to learning. As Muluk has also pointed out “from a behaviouristic perspective, student errors are thought to be the result of habit formation, in other words, behaviourists believe that uncorrected errors result in a student leaving his/her mistakes rather than correcting them” (Muluk, 1998: 8). Also in analysis of the behaviouristic approach, Leki, mentions that “teachers, including ESL teachers influenced by behaviourist ideas, considered language learning simply a matter of developing habits” (Leki, 1992: 105).

In this approach, as Ellis (1997) mentions, learning is seen as a response to stimuli and the reinforcement of the response made responses memorable, so in order to foster learning, positive reinforcement are given for learners’ correct utterances and for their incorrect utterances they are given negative reinforcement.

Advocates of behaviouristic approach have negative attitudes towards errors. Brooks (1960) considers errors “like sin”. Brooks indicates that, “error is to be avoided and its influence overcomes” (p.58). Higgs and Clifford (1982), who support the same view, assert that students’ errors should be corrected in the earlier stages of language learning to prevent them from using incorrect forms at all. According to Bartram and Walton, this approach focused on the idea that “... if students made a lot of mistakes, this was a sign of poor preparation on the part of the teacher” (Bartram and Walton, 1991: 109). So lessons were expected to be planned in such a way that students would not make mistakes (Dirim, 1999: 11).

Generally, it can be said that according to the behaviouristic theory, errors are indicator of non learning and if they are tolerated, it will lead to a bad habit formation, so they should be avoided. And scholars who support this view believe that correcting students errors, help them to prevent from making the same kinds of errors in future.

In the late 1960s, with the emergence of error analysis, as a reaction to contrastive analysis and with the wave of research interest in the processes of first

and second language acquisition, language learners' errors was gained unprecedented significance. As a result, negative attitudes towards errors changed into a positive one. Errors were no longer considered as evil signs of failure, rather they were seen as a necessary part of language learning process. Also with regard to this view, methodologies and materials for teaching foreign languages were developed that encouraged creative self-expression and not error-free communication (Keshavarz, 1999: 128-129).

During this period, emphasis on form and accuracy moved in a direction towards communication. The advocates of cognitive approach focused on communication in language learning rather than form of the language. Keshavarz asserts that "instead of expecting students to produce flawless sentences in a foreign language, many of today's students are encouraged to communicate in the target language..." (Keshavarz, 1999: 129). As Chastain states, "more important than error free speech is the creation of an atmosphere in which the students want to talk" (Chastain, 1988: 330).

Larsen Freeman (1986) claims that in language learning, opportunities for student's communication should be provided by teachers and student's ideas and opinion should be expressed without considering their errors as problematic issues but as natural outcomes of spoken language. According to Anderson and Ausebel, (1965) in second language acquisition, the cognitive approach focuses on the student's ability to convey meaning, so from this perspective, errors have minor importance in learning process (cited in Brown, 1994).

From this perspective "...errors are accepted as a natural phenomenon integral to the process of learning a second language" (Keshavarz, 1999:129). As Leki mentions "ESL teachers are not particularly focused on errors, which are no longer regarded as evidence of students' failure to learn. Rather errors are thought of as a natural part of the second language learning process" (Leki, 1992: 105). Norrish (1983) also affirms, errors are considered as a part of learning that can be ignored as long as there is no breakdown in communication.

Scholars, who embrace the cognitive approach, have also positive attitudes towards errors and view errors as positive aids. Bates, Lane and Lange (1993) claim that student's errors are positive and the real signals that indicate the student's linguistic system is developing. Also as Littlewood (1984) indicates, errors are useful tools since they inform both teachers and students about the problematic areas that student's experience. Additionally, Lengo asserts that errors are the signals of learning stages in the target language development and the learners' level of mastery of the language system can be determined from the errors that they make (Lengo, 1995 cited in Muluk, 1998: 9).

Consequently, despite the opposing views it can be said that errors are an inevitable, unavoidable and natural part of the learning and teaching process. For teachers and students, errors are essential and provide them with necessary information for teaching and learning better.

2.9. Types of Error Correction

As mentioned previously, shifting from behaviouristic to cognitive approaches has caused a change about attitudes towards error and error correction. Some scholars insist that errors should be ignored, whereas some others claim that students' errors must be corrected. According to Walz (1982), "a review of literature on error correction shows a lack of a agreement on the benefits of error correction in second language learning and confusion on which errors to correct and the approach to take to correction of both oral and writing language".

As Chaudron mentions, the research on error correction has focused on these questions:

Should learner errors be corrected? If so, when should learner errors be corrected?
Which learner errors should be corrected? Who should correct learner errors? How should learner errors be corrected? (Chaudron, 1988:135).

The question of how to correct is not clear, this may stem from the fact that research studies have demonstrated that there are many different techniques of error correction in language classroom. Teachers react to students' errors in several ways. Some of techniques and correction types that teachers use are mentioned in following part of this section. There are the models of Lyster and Ranta (1997), Allwright (1988), Chaudron (1988), Long (1983) and Walz (1982).

Lyster and Ranta (1997), conduct a study which provides the types of corrections. In their analysis of classroom interaction to characterize various types of corrective feedback used by teachers in response to learner errors, they classify the correction types in the following way.

1. **Explicit correction:** teacher provides the correct form and he or she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect.
2. **Recasts:** involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error.
3. **Clarification requests:** include phrases such as "Pardon?" and "what do you mean by X?"
4. **Metalinguistic feedback:** contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance without explicitly providing the correct form.
5. **Elicitation:** teachers elicit a completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students 'to fill in the blank' as it were.
6. **Repetition:** refers to the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance. (p.46-48)

Allwright (1988) presents another model for correcting errors. As Allwright states in correcting of errors, teachers should be take individual's various needs and levels into consideration. After the incorrect utterance, the teacher had to consider the situation and then react according to the needs of the individual. Allwright first,

introduces some questions that teachers need to know the answers of them before referring to the 18 sub-categories of error correction types. The teacher needs to consider these questions which are listed below:

1. What was actually said or done
2. Who said or did it
3. What was meant by it
4. What should have been said or done

In addition, the teacher may need to know

5. What the native language equivalent would be (Allwright, 1988:206).

As Allwright asserts after recognizing the questions above, the next step is choose a treatment type among the given option listed below. The following treatment types are divided into two categories as basic options and possible features.

Treatment type

A. Basic options: the teacher makes a decision to

1. Treat or ignore completely.
2. Treat immediately or delay.
3. Transfer treatment or not.
4. Transfer to another individual, a sub-group, or to the whole class.
5. Return, or not, to original error-maker after treatment.
6. Call, upon, or permit, another learner (or learners) to provide treatment.

Test for efficacy of treatment.

7. Test for efficacy of treatment.

B. Possible features:

8. Fact of error indicated.
9. Blame indicated.
10. Location indicated.
11. Opportunity for new attempt given.
12. Model provided.
13. Error type indicated.
14. Remedy indicated.
15. Improvement indicated.
16. Praise indicated. (Allwright, 1988: 207)

Another model for correcting errors is mentioned by Chaudron who presents the types and features of corrective reactions teachers use in language classrooms. Chaudron distinguishes between types and features as he states “types were deemed to be capable of standing independently, whereas features were bound, dependent on the context” (Chaudron, 1988: 145).

Chaudron’s taxonomy for error correction strategies is as Table 1.

Table 1: Chaudron’s taxonomy for error correction strategies

Feature or type of “act” (F/T)	Description
Ignore (F)	Teacher ignores student’s error, goes on to another topic, or shows acceptance of content. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: What did you do then?
Interrupt (F)	Teacher interrupts students utterance following error, or before student has completed. For example, S: Yesterday I go to the T: I went to
Delay (F)	Teacher waits to complete utterance before correcting. For example, S: Yesterday I go to the school. T: I went
Acceptance (T)	Simple approving or accepting word (Usually as sign of repetition of utterance) but teacher may immediately correct a linguistic error. For example, T: Good, fine, excellent etc.
Attention (T-F)	Attention-getter; probably quickly learned by students. For example, T: Pay attention, pardon? Mmmm.
Negation (T-F)	Teacher shows rejection of part or all of students utterance. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: No, not go.
Provide (T)	Teacher provides the correct answer when student has been unable or when no response is offered.

	For example, S: Yesterday when I go to the school, I uh... T: Joined the lesson.
Reduction (F)	Teacher's utterance employs only a segment of student's utterance. For example, S: I wocitd eee.. T: Wocit (spelling)
Expansion (F)	Teacher adds more linguistic material to student's utterance, possibly making more complete. For example, S: I get the bus yesterday. T: I got on the bus yesterday
Emphasis (F)	Teacher uses stress, iterative repetition, or question intonation, to mark area or fact of incorrectness. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: What is the second word?
Repetition with no change (T)	Teacher repeats student's utterance with no change of error, or omission of error. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: I go to the school yesterday.
Repetition with no change and emphasis	Teacher repeats students with no change of error, but emphasis locates or indicates fact of error. For example, T: I <u>Go</u> to the school yesterday.
Repetition with change (T)	Usually teacher simply adds correction and continues to other topics. Normally only when emphasis is added will correcting change become clear, or will teacher attempt to make it clear. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: I went to the school yesterday.
Repetition with change and emphasis (T-F)	Teacher adds emphasis to stress location of error and its correct formulation. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: I <u>WENT</u> to the school yesterday.
Explanation (T)	Teacher provides information as to cause or type of error. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: Don't say go, say went.
Complex explanation (T)	Combination of negotiation, repetitions, and /or explanation. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: Go is the present tense. You need past tense here.
Repeat (T)	Teacher requests student to repeat utterance, with intent to have student self correct.

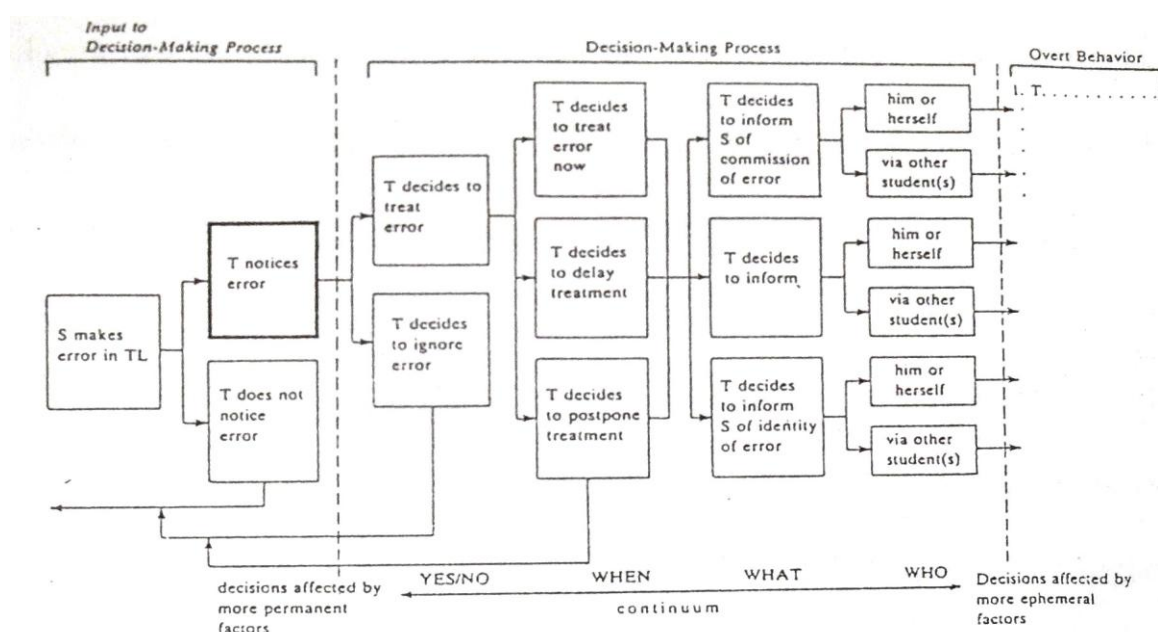
	For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: Again? Where did you go?
Repeat Implicit	(Procedures are understood that by pointing or otherwise signaling, teacher can have student repeat.
Loop (T)	Teacher honestly needs a replay of student utterance, due to lack of clarity or certainty of its form. For example, T: Please repeat the sentence.
Prompt (T)	Teacher uses a lead-in cue to get student to repeat utterance, possibly at point of error; possible slight rising intonation. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: Yesterday I
Clue (T)	Teacher reaction provides student with isolation of type of error or of the nature of its immediate correction, without providing correction. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: Go to?
Original question (T)	Teacher repeats the original question that led to response. For example, T: Where did you go yesterday? S: I go to the school yesterday. T: Where did you go yesterday?
Altered question (T)	Teacher alters original question syntactically, but not semantically. For example, T: Where did you go yesterday? S: I go to the school yesterday. T: Yesterday morning where did you go?
Questions (T)	Numerous ways of asking for new response, often with clues, etc. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: When you went to the school Yesterday what did you do?
Transfer (T)	Teacher asks student or several, or class to provide correction. For example, S: I go to the school yesterday. T: Students? (Class gives answer).
Verification (T-F)	Teacher attempts to assure understanding of correction; a new elicitation is implicit or made more explicit.
Exit (F)	At any stage in the exchange teacher may drop correction of the error, though usually not after explicit negation, emphasis, etc.

In another model of error treatment, Long (1983) explains the decision-making process the teacher undergoes. (See Figure 1) In his model, the first decision teachers make when an incorrect utterance is heard is to treat the error or not. If teachers decide to treat the error, they must consider when to treat the error. Long lists three alternatives on when to treat the error: “a) immediately, which often involves interrupting the student, b) after the completion of the student’s utterance, and c) at some future time” (Long, 1983:459, cited in Dirim, 1999: 17). The next decision to be made is based on three basic options:

a) To inform the student of the existence of error, b) to inform the student of the location of error, c) to inform the student of the identity of error. Then follows a decision as to whether a, b, c will be carried out by the teacher or by another student or students. (Long, 1983:460, cited in Dirim, 1999: 18)

Long concludes his decision-making process model by “starting that the teacher may decide to ignore the error due to either not noticing or deciding to postpone treatment for another lesson or later in the current lesson” (cited in Dirim, 1999: 1

Figure 1: Long (1983) explains the decision making process the teacher undergoes



Walz (1982) also suggests a number of techniques for oral correction under the heading of self-correction, peer-correction and teacher-correction.

Self-correction: According to Walz, “although the students correct their own errors, the teacher does play a role by calling attention to the fact that a statement contains an inaccuracy” (Walz, 1982: 18). Self-correction is divided into the 10 sub-categories of error correction types that listed below.

Pinpointing: This is the term Cathcart and Olsen (1976) use to describe the teacher’s localizing an error without giving it away. In their study, this was the technique that ESL teachers preferred. Knop (1980) suggests repeating the student’s sentence up to the error. This can be a very effective technique for correcting student generated sentences (versus a sentence from the textbook with a blank to be filled in). The last word before the error should have a slightly exaggerated vowel length and trailing intonation for the student to catch the idea that the fragment needs to be completed again.

Rephrasing question: Holley and King (1971) suggest rephrasing the question in order to reduce the number of words. This technique should be used when the student indicates a lack of understanding of the question but does not make a grammatical error.

Cueing (Holley and King 1971): The teacher gives the grammatical variations of a key content word. This is possible when a student indicates difficulty forming a specific word.

Generating simple sentences (Holley and King 1971): With this technique, the teacher provides several possible answers to the question just asked, thereby relaxing the constraints. Like rephrasing the question, this is a technique to use when the student shows a lack of understanding of an entire question.

Explain key word (Joiner 1975): this can be done by writing a difficult word on the board or by acting it out. The former technique is particularly useful when the phoneme-grapheme relationship causes a problem.

Questioning (Burt and Kiparsky 1972) : If the student uses a word that the teacher does not understand, the teacher should ask a question about it. The student should reveal the meaning of the word without recourse to the native language and without making an obvious correction.

Repetition: Cohen (1975) advises teachers to ask a student to repeat the sentence containing the error. The technique is deliberately ambiguous, so the students do not feel they have been corrected.

“No”: Shaking one’s head from side to side is also criticized by Fanselow as being too vague. However, it can be used effectively in certain areas. If the class were concentrating on a particular point of grammar, especially an “either-or” choice, the students would understand.

Grammatical terms: localizing an error by mentioning what function it plays in the sentence (e.g., “verb”) can have limited use.

For example: S: I came to the U.S on plane in 1978.

T: Preposition?

S: By plane. I came by plane.

Gestures: Under certain circumstances, errors can be corrected nonverbally. The great advantage of using gestures is that there is no additional verbal input to confuse the student. Furthermore, gestures often take less time than verbal corrections.

Peer correction: As Walz states, for getting students to correct one another’s errors, there are no specific techniques. The teachers simply can use any of the techniques for self-correction that are mentioned above, by calling on another student who understood what he or she was trying to indicate to the first student. “Instead of the teacher’s providing possible answers, several students can do the same thing. The teacher can then return to the student who made the original error, and it will seem as if no correction had been made”. (Walz, 1982: 24)

Teacher correction: Walz divides teacher-correction type into the 4 sub-categories of error correction types. There are mentioned in the following list:

Providing correct answer: Although this has been widely criticized as not demonstrating that real learning is taking place (e.g., Fanselow 1977), there comes a time when the teacher must tell the class what the proper form is. Often it is a question of saving time or reducing confusion, especially when two errors must be corrected. The teacher should return to the student who made the error, ask for a repetition or reformulation, and look for a glimmer of understanding.

OLD: Burt and Kiparsky (1972) propose “Own Language Distortion.” The teacher translates into the native language an improper syntactic element a student has made to demonstrate how shocking it sounds.

Discrimination exercises: Fanselow (1977) recommends contrasting the correct and incorrect forms, even to the extent of writing lists on the board and asking students for explanations of each item.

Paraphrasing: Hanzeli (1975) recommends paraphrasing a syntactic error, while Joiner (1975) suggests modeling the incorrect sentence with the proper substitution but without calling attention to the correction. The teacher should use this technique when a more direct correction would have a negative effect. (P.24-25)

As learners are sensitive to target language correction, the selection of error correction techniques should be based on instructional philosophy and on reducing defective reactions in students. In this section, five techniques for error correction is mentioned. Chaudron's (1988) taxonomy concerning error correction strategies is used in the questionnaire of this study, to gathering data on the subject of learner preferences for oral error correction techniques which can motivate the students positively and reduce their anxiety in oral communication.

3

METHODOLOGY**3.1. Introduction**

In this section, the methodology employed in the study is demonstrated. In the first section, the model and the main context of this research are defined. The second section deals with the participants of the study, the third section explores the data collection instruments employed, the fourth gives insights into the data collection process and in the last section the data analysis procedure is mentioned.

3.2. Research Design

The research method is a survey because we would just give our respondents the questionnaire for them to fill out the needed data. In this study, the methods of error correction and error correction agents, and error types were considered as the dependent variables of the study, whereas anxiety with its three levels was the independent one.

The study was conducted to investigate three research questions that are mentioned in the first chapter. To address the research questions, the researcher used quantitative method.

3.3. Participants

This study was conducted with the participation of 266 students in the English Language Teaching Departments of three state universities in Turkey. The subjects were especially chosen among university students, because as explained in the introduction, foreign language anxiety is especially experienced by adults learning a foreign language in a classroom setting. Language anxiety is not a big problem for young learners (Aydın, 2001: 59).

The ages of participants were between 18 and 26. The participants are dominated by female students (218 female and 48 male) The participants in the first group of this study (121 students in total) were 106 female and 15 male students in ELT department of Gazi University and the participants in the second group (70 students in total) were 55 female and 15 male students in ELT department of Hacettepe University in Ankara. The participants in the third group (75 students in total) were 57 female and 18 male students in ELT department of Abant İzzet Baysal University in Bolu. The table below (Table 2) illustrates the number of all participants according to their gender and university.

Table 2: Number of participants according to their gender & university

Gender	Gazi University	Haccettepe	Abant İzzet Baysal
Male	15	15	18
Female	106	55	57
Total	121	70	75
Overall	266		

3.4. Data Collection Instrument

In this study, three sets of data were collected through three instruments. The first set of data was collected through the FLCAS questionnaire, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale. This questionnaire measures the general level of language anxiety of students of a foreign language. The second set of data was collected through Chaudron's (1988) taxonomy concerning error correction strategies which was a list of 27 error correction methods and the third set of data was collected by two open ended questions with regard to the types of errors that learners preferred to be corrected and person who provides correction. (See appendix A)

3.4.1. FLCAS Questionnaire: The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

The first instrument used in this study was the FLCAS questionnaire developed by (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986) to provide investigators with a standard instrument to determine the range and degree of foreign language anxiety experienced in a foreign language classroom (p.129-130).

In Horwitz's (1986) study internal consistency of FLCAS, measured by Cronbach's alpha coefficient, was 0.93, and test-retest reliability of the questionnaire over 8 weeks was $r = 0.83$, ($p < 0.001$) (Horwitz's, 1986: 129). In short, the FLCAS is considered to be a reliable instrument in measuring the general anxiety level of the subjects. The reliability of this scale for the current study is 0.80.

The FLCAS questionnaire has 33 items, designed with a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. With values ranging from 1 to 5 points. The scoring for the positive statements were as follows: Strongly Disagree = 1 points, Disagree = 2 points, Neither Agree nor Disagree = 3 points, Agree = 4 points, Strongly Agree = 5 points. For the analysis, all negatively phrased items in the

questionnaire (items 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28, 32) were reverse scored. Possible scores range from 33 to 165.

The subjects in the study were first asked to complete FLCAS to assess their general language anxiety level experienced in the foreign language classroom. The test was graded by the researcher, and in accordance with their scores, the students were categorized into three different anxiety levels: low, medium and high. The aim of categorizing the subjects into three different anxiety levels is to determine whether the students' preferences of error and error correction methods change according to their anxiety levels. The following procedure was used in the categorization of anxiety levels;

Low = Mean- Standard deviation = The score lower than this

High = Mean+ Standard deviation = The score higher than this

Medium= The score between Mean- Standard deviation and Mean + Standard deviation. (Aydın, 2001: 67).

In this study the mean score for the FLCAS was 91.69925 and the Standard deviation was 17.96096. In accordance with the categorization above participants who scored lower than 74 were considered to have low anxiety levels and those who scored higher than 110 were considered to have high anxiety levels. The participants whose scored between 75 and 109 were considered to be moderately anxious. The majority of the participants (172 out of 266) fall into the moderately anxious level category, (49 out of 266) participants fall into the low anxious level category and (45 out of 266) participants fall into the high anxious level category in this study

Mean= 91.69925

Standard deviation = 17.96096

$91.69925 - 17.96096 = 73.73829$

$91.69925 + 17.96096 = 109.66021$

Lower than 74= low group

Higher than 110= high group

Between 75-109=Medium group

Table 3: FLCAS

Item	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class	17	6.4	86	32.3	57	21.4	82	30.8	24	9.0
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.	17	6.4	112	42.1	63	23.7	57	21.4	17	6.4
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.	32	12.0	78	29.3	81	30.5	66	24.8	9	3.4
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	42	15.8	78	29.3	40	15.0	87	32.7	19	7.1
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.	12	4.5	34	12.8	84	31.6	86	32.3	50	18.8
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	30	11.3	104	39.1	64	24.1	61	22.9	7	2.6
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	45	16.9	106	39.8	52	19.5	53	19.9	10	3.8
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.	4	1.5	30	11.3	93	35.0	110	41.4	29	10.9
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.	23	8.6	52	19.5	50	18.8	94	35.3	47	17.7
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	19	7.1	58	21.8	48	18.0	107	40.2	34	12.8
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.	9	3.4	61	22.9	86	32.3	85	32.0	25	9.4
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	23	8.6	67	25.2	50	18.8	95	35.7	31	11.7
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.	39	14.7	97	36.5	71	26.7	47	17.7	12	4.5

14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.	18	6.8	68	25.6	75	28.2	72	27.1	33	12.4
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	20	7.5	67	25.2	62	23.3	95	35.7	22	8.3
16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.	35	13.2	83	31.2	44	16.5	77	28.9	27	10.2
17. I often feel like not going to my language class.	52	19.5	100	37.6	72	27.1	31	11.7	11	4.1
18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.	13	4.9	58	21.8	75	28.2	89	33.5	31	11.7
19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	27	10.2	105	39.5	44	16.5	66	24.8	24	9.0
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.	24	9.0	78	29.3	65	24.4	83	31.2	16	6.0
21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.	76	28.6	113	42.5	37	13.9	28	10.5	12	4.5
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.	13	4.9	65	24.4	65	24.4	97	36.5	26	9.8
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do	45	16.9	102	38.3	62	23.3	46	17.3	11	4.1
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.	14	5.3	60	22.6	89	33.5	86	32.3	17	6.4
25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	42	15.8	112	42.1	63	23.7	44	16.5	5	1.9
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.	56	21.1	109	41.0	53	19.9	36	13.5	12	4.5
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.	38	14.3	93	35.0	53	19.9	72	27.1	10	3.8
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	6	2.3	33	12.4	78	29.3	112	42.1	36	13.5
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language	35	13.2	94	35.3	60	22.6	64	24.1	13	4.9

teacher says.

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.	25	9.4	79	29.7	84	31.6	60	22.6	18	6.8
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.	67	25.2	106	39.8	39	14.7	44	16.5	10	3.8
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.	11	4.1	49	18.4	85	32.0	89	33.5	32	12.0
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	21	7.9	55	20.7	66	24.8	91	34.2	33	12.4

3.4.2. Chaudron's (1988) Taxonomy

The subjects were asked to complete second part of questionnaire with the propose of gathering data on the subject of learner preferences and attitudes toward oral error correction techniques which can motivate them positively as regards their active participation in classroom. The second set of data was collected through Chaudron's (1988) taxonomy concerning error correction strategies which was a list of 27 error correction methods that are mentioned in chapter 2. The subjects of this study were instructed to indicate their preferences for error correction methods by choosing the most appropriate ones. In the questionnaire, the students were informed of the definitions of each methods. Chaudron's taxonomy for error correction strategies:

Feature or type of "act" (F/T)

Description

1. **Ignore** (F): Teacher ignores student's error, goes on to another topic, or shows acceptance of content.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: What did you do then?

2. **Interrupt** (F): Teacher interrupts students utterance following error, or before student has completed.

For example, S: Yesterday I go to the

T: I went to

3. **Delay** (F): Teacher waits for student to complete utterance before correcting.

For example, S: Yesterday I go to the school.

T: I went

4. **Acceptance** (T): Simple approving or accepting word (Usually as sign of repetition of utterance) but teacher may immediately correct a linguistic error.

For example, T: Good, fine, excellent etc.

5. **Attention** (T-F): Attention-getter; probably quickly learned by students.

For example, T: Pay attention, pardon? Mmmm.

6. **Negation** (T-F): Teacher shows rejection of part or all of students utterance.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: No, not go.

7. **Provide** (T): Teacher provides the correct answer when student has been unable or when no response is offered.

For example, S: Yesterday when I go to the school, I uh...

T: Joined the lesson.

8. **Reduction** (F): Teacher's utterance employs only a segment of student's utterance.

For example, S: I woctid eee..

T: Woct (spelling)

9. **Expansion** (F): Teacher adds more linguistic material to student's utterance, possibly making more complete.

For example, S: I get the bus yesterday.

T: I got on the bus yesterday.

10. **Emphasis** (F) : Teacher uses stress, iterative repetition, or question intonation, to mark area or fact of incorrectness.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: What is the second word?

11. **Repetition with no change** (T): Teacher repeats student's utterance with no change of error, or omission of error.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: I go to the school yesterday.

12. **Repetition with no change and emphasis**: Teacher repeats students with no change of error, but emphasis locates or indicates fact of error.

For example, T: I Go to the school yesterday.

13. **Repetition with change** (T): Usually teacher simply adds correction and continues to other topics. Normally only when emphasis is added will correcting change become clear, or will teacher attempt to make it clear.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: I went to the school yesterday.

14. **Repetition with change and emphasis** (T-F): Teacher adds emphasis to stress location of error and its correct formulation.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: I WENT to the school yesterday.

15. **Explanation** (T): Teacher provides information as to cause or type of error.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: Don't say go, say went.

16. **Complex explanation** (T): Combination of negotiation, repetitions, and /or explanation.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: Go is the present tense. You need past tense here.

17. **Repeat** (T): Teacher requests student to repeat utterance, with intent to have student self correct.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: Again? Where did you go?

18. **Repeat (Implicit)** : Procedures are understood that by pointing or otherwise signaling, teacher can have student repeat.

19. **Loop** (T): Teacher honestly needs a replay of student utterance, due to lack of clarity or certainty of its form.

For example, T: Please repeat the sentence.

20. **Prompt (T):** Teacher uses a lead-in cue to get student to repeat utterance, possibly at point of error; possible slight rising intonation.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: Yesterday I

21. **Clue (T):** Teacher reaction provides student with isolation of type of error or of the nature of its immediate correction, without providing correction.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: Go to?

22. **Original question (T):** Teacher repeats the original question that led to response.

For example, T: Where did you go yesterday?

S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: Where did you go yesterday?

23. **Altered question (T):** Teacher alters original question syntactically, but not semantically.

For example, T: Where did you go yesterday?

S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: Yesterday morning where did you go?

24. **Questions (T):** Numerous ways of asking for new response, often with clues, etc.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: When you went to the school

Yesterday what did you do?

25. **Transfer (T):** Teacher asks student or several, or class to provide correction.

For example, S: I go to the school yesterday.

T: Students? (Class gives answer).

26. **Verification (T-F):** Teacher attempts to assure understanding of correction; a new elicitation is implicit or made more explicit.

27. **Exit (F):** At any stage in the exchange teacher may drop correction of the error, though usually not after explicit negation, emphasis, etc.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

The study was conducted in the spring semester of 2012. To distribute the questionnaire to the participants, written permission was received from ELT Departments of three universities located in two different cities in Turkey, in April, 2012. In the week of May 7, the data collecting was begun. The procedure ended June 20, lasting six weeks.

In the first week of May, data was collected from 266 respondents from the Department of ELT during their class time at Gazi and Hacettepe Universities in Ankara and Abant İzzet Baysal University in Bolu.

The subjects in the study were first asked to complete FLCAS to assess their general language anxiety level experienced in the foreign language classroom. The test was graded by the researcher, and in accordance with their scores, the students were categorized into three different anxiety levels: low, medium and high. The subjects were also asked to complete second part of questionnaire with the purpose of gathering data on the subject of learner preferences and attitudes toward oral error correction techniques which can motivate them positively as regards to their active participation in classroom. The second part of the questionnaire consists of Chaudron's (1988) taxonomy concerning error correction strategies and two questions with regard to the types of errors that learners preferred to be corrected and person who provides correction.

In this study, the Statistic Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0 was used by researcher to analyze the data quantitatively. SPSS program was used to obtain descriptive statistics were used to determine the potential relationship between dependent and independent variables.

3.6. Data Analysis

In this study, in order to analyze the data collected from the questionnaires, the Statistic Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0 was used by researcher to analyze the data quantitatively. SPSS program was used to obtain descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, standard deviation, mean, multiple regression analysis and chi-square tests were used to determine the potential relationship between dependant and independent variables. Frequencies, percentages, standard deviation and mean were used to determine the general level of language anxiety of students of a foreign language and multiple regression analysis and chi-square tests were used to determine the relationship between students' errors and error correction preferences and their anxiety levels.

The results were offered based on the categorical variables included in the study. The methods of error correction and error correction agents, and error types were considered as the dependent variables of the study whereas anxiety with its three levels was independent ones. The findings of the study will be presented in the next chapter.

4

FINDINGS AND COMMENTS**4.1. Introduction**

In this chapter of the study, the procedure of the data analysis is explained and the results related to each of the research questions are reported based on the data gathered. Also, the results of questionnaires are discussed and findings of the questionnaires are given in tables.

4.2. FLACS Items with Percentages of Students Selecting Each Alternative

Item 1 of FLCAS, (I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class): In responding to this item, 6.4 % of the subjects (17 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 32.3% of the subjects (86 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 21.4% of the subjects (57 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 30.8% of the subjects (82 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 9.0 % of the subjects (24 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 2 of FLCAS, (I don't worry about making mistakes in language class): In responding to this item, 6.4 % of the subjects (17 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 42.1% of the subjects (112 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 23.7% of the subjects (63 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 21.4% of the subjects (57 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and

6.4 % of the subjects (17 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 3 of FLCAS, (I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class): In responding to this item, 12.0 % of the subjects (32 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 29.3% of the subjects (78 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 30.5% of the subjects (81 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 24.8% of the subjects (66 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 3.4 % of the subjects (9 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 4 of FLCAS, (It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language): In responding to this item, 15.8 % of the subjects (42 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 29.3% of the subjects (78 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 15.0% of the subjects (40 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 32.7% of the subjects (87 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 7.1 % of the subjects (19 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 5 of FLCAS, (It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes): In responding to this item, 4.5 % of the subjects (12 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 12.8% of the subjects (34learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 31.6% of the subjects (84 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 32.3% of the subjects (86 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 18.8 % of the subjects (50 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 6 of FLCAS, (During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course): In responding to this item, 11.3 % of the subjects (30 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 39.1 % of the subjects (104 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 24.1% of the subjects (64 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 22.9 % of the subjects (61 learners

out of 266) have stated that they agree and 2.6 % of the subjects (7 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 7 of FLCAS, (I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am): In responding to this item, 16.9 % of the subjects (45 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 39.8 % of the subjects (106 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 19.5% of the subjects (52 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 19.9 % of the subjects (53 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 3.8% of the subjects (10 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 8 of FLCAS, (I am usually at ease during tests in my language class): In responding to this item, 1.5 % of the subjects (4 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 11.3 % of the subjects (30 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 35.0% of the subjects (93 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 41.4 % of the subjects (110 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 10.9 % of the subjects (29 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 9 of FLCAS, (I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class): In responding to this item, 8.6 % of the subjects (23 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 19.5 % of the subjects (52 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 18.8 % of the subjects (50 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 35.3 % of the subjects (94 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 17.7 % of the subjects (47 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 10 of FLCAS, (I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class): In responding to this item, 7.1 % of the subjects (19 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 21.8 % of the subjects (58 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 18.0 % of the subjects (48 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 40.2 % of the subjects (107 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 12.8 % of the subjects (34 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 11 of FLCAS, (I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes): In responding to this item, 3.4 % of the subjects (9 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 22.9 % of the subjects (61 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 32.3 % of the subjects (86 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 32.0 % of the subjects (85 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 9.4 % of the subjects (25 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 12 of FLCAS, (In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know): In responding to this item, 8.6 % of the subjects (23 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 25.2 % of the subjects (67 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 18.8 % of the subjects (50 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 35.7 % of the subjects (95 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 11.7 % of the subjects (31 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 13 of FLCAS, (It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class): In responding to this item, 14.7 % of the subjects (39 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 36.5 % of the subjects (97 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 26.7 % of the subjects (71 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 17.7 % of the subjects (47 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 4.5 % of the subjects (12 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 14 of FLCAS, (I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers): In responding to this item, 6.8 % of the subjects (18 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 25.6 % of the subjects (68 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 28.2 % of the subjects (75 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 27.1 % of the subjects (72 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 12.4 % of the subjects (33 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 15 of FLCAS, (I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting): In responding to this item, 7.5 % of the subjects (20 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 25.2 % of the subjects (67 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 23.3 % of the subjects (62 learners out of 266) , neither

agree nor disagree, 35.7 % of the subjects (95 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 8.3 % of the subjects (22 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 16 of FLCAS, (Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it): In responding to this item, 13.2 % of the subjects (35 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 31.2 % of the subjects (83 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 16.5% of the subjects (44 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 28.9 % of the subjects (77 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 10.2% of the subjects (27 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 17 of FLCAS, (I often feel like not going to my language class): In responding to this item, 19.5 % of the subjects (52 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 37.6 % of the subjects (100 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 27.1% of the subjects (72 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 11.7 % of the subjects (31 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 4.1 % of the subjects (11 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 18 of FLCAS, (I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class): In responding to this item, 4.9 % of the subjects (13 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 21.8 % of the subjects (58 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 28.2 % of the subjects (75 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 33.5 % of the subjects (89 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 11.7 % of the subjects (31 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 19 of FLCAS, (I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make): In responding to this item, 10.2 % of the subjects (27 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 39.5 % of the subjects (105 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 16.5 % of the subjects (44 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 24.8% of the subjects (66 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 9.0 % of the subjects (24 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 20 of FLCAS, (I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class): In responding to this item, 9.0 % of the subjects (24 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 29.3 % of the subjects (78 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 24.4 % of the subjects (65 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 31.2% of the subjects (83 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 6.0 % of the subjects (16 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 21 of FLCAS, (The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get): In responding to this item, 28.6 % of the subjects (76 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 42.5 % of the subjects (113 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 13.9 % of the subjects (37 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 10.5 % of the subjects (28 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 4.5 % of the subjects (12 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 22 of FLCAS, (I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class): In responding to this item, 4.9 % of the subjects (13 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 24.4 % of the subjects (65 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 24.4 % of the subjects (65 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 36.5 % of the subjects (97 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 9.8 % of the subjects (26 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 23 of FLCAS, (I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do): In responding to this item, 16.9 % of the subjects (45 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 38.3 % of the subjects (102 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 23.3 % of the subjects (62 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 17.3 % of the subjects (46 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 4.1 % of the subjects (11 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 24 of FLCAS, (I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students): In responding to this item, 5.3 % of the subjects (14 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 22.6 % of the subjects (60 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 33.5 % of the subjects (89

learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 32.3 % of the subjects (86 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 6.4 % of the subjects (17 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 25 of FLCAS, (Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind): In responding to this item, 15.8 % of the subjects (42 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 42.1 % of the subjects (112 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 23.7 % of the subjects (63 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 16.5 % of the subjects (44 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 1.9 % of the subjects (5 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 26 of FLCAS, (I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes): In responding to this item, 21.1 % of the subjects (56 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 41.0 % of the subjects (109 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 19.9 % of the subjects (53 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 13.5 % of the subjects (36 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 4.5% of the subjects (12 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 27 of FLCAS, (I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class): In responding to this item, 14.3 % of the subjects (38 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 35.0 % of the subjects (93 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 19.9 % of the subjects (53 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 27.1 % of the subjects (72 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 3.8 % of the subjects (10 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 28 of FLCAS, (When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed): In responding to this item, 2.3 % of the subjects (6 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 12.4 % of the subjects (33 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 29.3 % of the subjects (78 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 42.1 % of the subjects (112 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 13.5 % of the subjects (36 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 29 of FLCAS, (I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says): In responding to this item, 13.2 % of the subjects (35 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 35.3% of the subjects (94 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 22.6 % of the subjects (60 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 24.1 % of the subjects (64 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 4.9 % of the subjects (13 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 30 of FLCAS, (I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language): In responding to this item, 9.4 % of the subjects (25 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 29.7% of the subjects (79 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 31.6 % of the subjects (84 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 22.6% of the subjects (60 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 6.8 % of the subjects (18 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 31 of FLCAS, (I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language): In responding to this item, 25.2 % of the subjects (67 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 39.8% of the subjects (106 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 14.7 % of the subjects (39 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 16.5 % of the subjects (44 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 3.8 % of the subjects (10 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 32 of FLCAS, (I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language): In responding to this item, 4.1 % of the subjects (11 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 18.4% of the subjects (49 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 32.0 % of the subjects (85 learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 33.5 % of the subjects (89 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 12.0 % of the subjects (32 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

Item 33 of FLCAS, (I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance): In responding to this item, 7.9 % of the subjects (21 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly disagree, 20.7 % of the subjects (55 learners out of 266) have stated that they disagree, 24.8 % of the subjects (66

learners out of 266) , neither agree nor disagree, 34.2 % of the subjects (91 learners out of 266) have stated that they agree and 12.4 % of the subjects (33 learners out of 266) have stated that they strongly agree with this statement.

4.3. Results Related to Research Question 1

“Does anxiety influence learners’ preferences with regard to error types?”

The results, as determined by Chi-square test, for the potential relationship between participants’ level of anxiety and error types were statistically significant [χ^2 (12,266) =23.449; df=12; P-value=.024; P<.05].The results of percentage analyses (**see Table 4**) also confirmed that the highest percentages for error types were observed for pronunciation, pronunciation and grammar in all the three groups of anxiety. Moreover, the highest scores for pronunciation (61.8%) were received by participants with high anxiety level, 43.3% by medium level group and 28.9 percent by participants with low anxiety level.

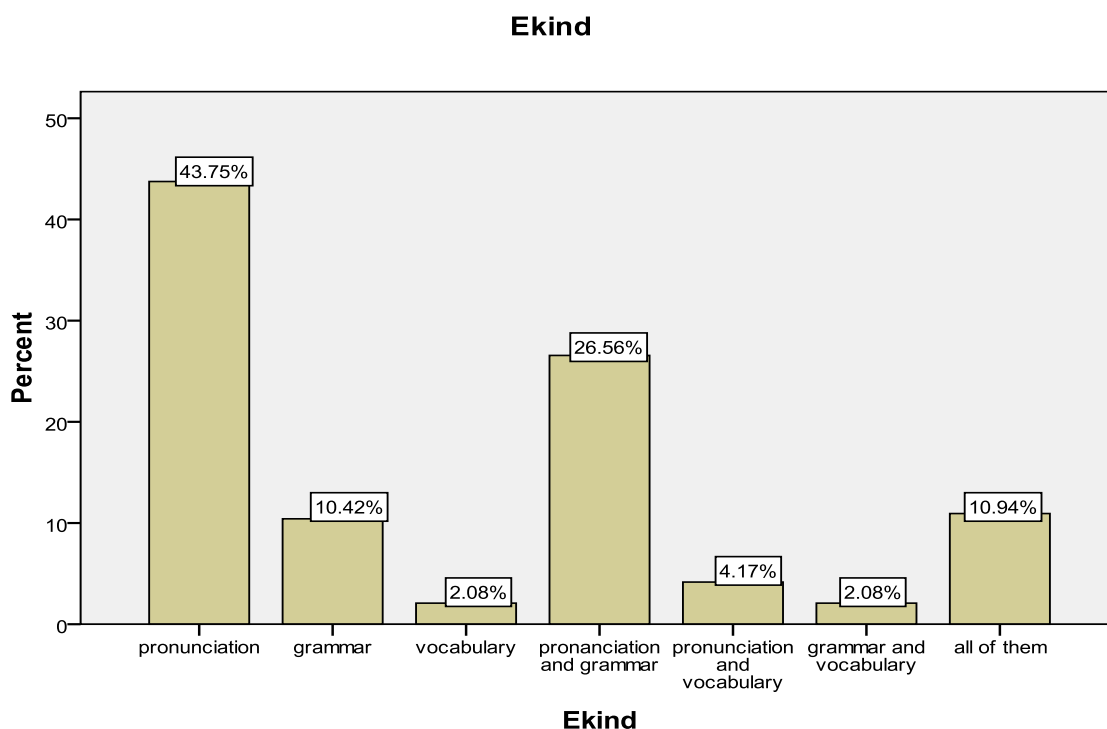
Table 4. The Association between Anxiety and Error Types

Error types	Anxiety							
	L	%	M	%	H	%	Total	%
Pronunciation	11	28.9	52	43.3	21	61.8	84	43.8
Grammar	3	7.9	15	12.5	2	5.9	20	10.4
Vocabulary	1	2.6	3	2.5	0	0.0	4	2.1
Pronunciation & Grammar	12	31.6	35	29.2	4	11.8	51	26.6
Pronunciation & Vocabulary	1	2.6	3	2.5	4	11.8	8	4.2
Grammar& Vocabulary	2	5.3	1	0.8	1	2.9	4	2.1
All of them	8	21.1	11	9.2	2	5.9	21	10.9
Total	38	100.0	120	100.0	34	100.0	192	100.0

The participants' responses revealed that 43.8 % of the subjects (84 learners out of 266) prefer their pronunciation errors to be corrected, 10.4 % of the subjects (20 learners out of 266) prefer their grammar errors to be corrected , 2.1% of the subjects (4 learners out of 266) prefer their vocabulary errors to be corrected, 26.6 % of the subjects (51 learners out of 266) prefer their pronunciation and grammar errors to be corrected, 4.2% of the subjects (8 learners out of 266) prefer their pronunciation and vocabulary errors to be corrected, 2.1% of the subjects (4 learners out of 266) prefer their grammar and vocabulary errors to be corrected, and 10.9 % of the subjects (21 learners out of 266) prefer their all kinds of errors to be corrected.

Learners' perceptions as to the types of errors are represented in the form of a bar graph below (see Figure 2). In the graph, it can be observed that learners usually prefer their pronunciation errors to be corrected.

Figure 2



4.4. Results Related to Research Question 2

“Does anxiety influence learners’ preferences with regard to error correction sources (E.g. teachers, peers and self-correction)?”

The results, as determined by Chi-square test, for the association between participants’ level of anxiety and their choice of error correction sources were found to be significant [χ^2 (10,266) =19.340; df=2; P-value=.036; P<.05]. The results of percentage analyses (**see table 5**) also confirmed that the subcomponents of teacher, teacher and peer are the most preferred choices for correcting students’ error. The highest scores for error correction variable were ascribed to participants with medium anxiety almost in all subcomponents. Thus, it can be concluded that the source of correction and teacher’s personality play an important role in decreasing and/or increasing anxiety.

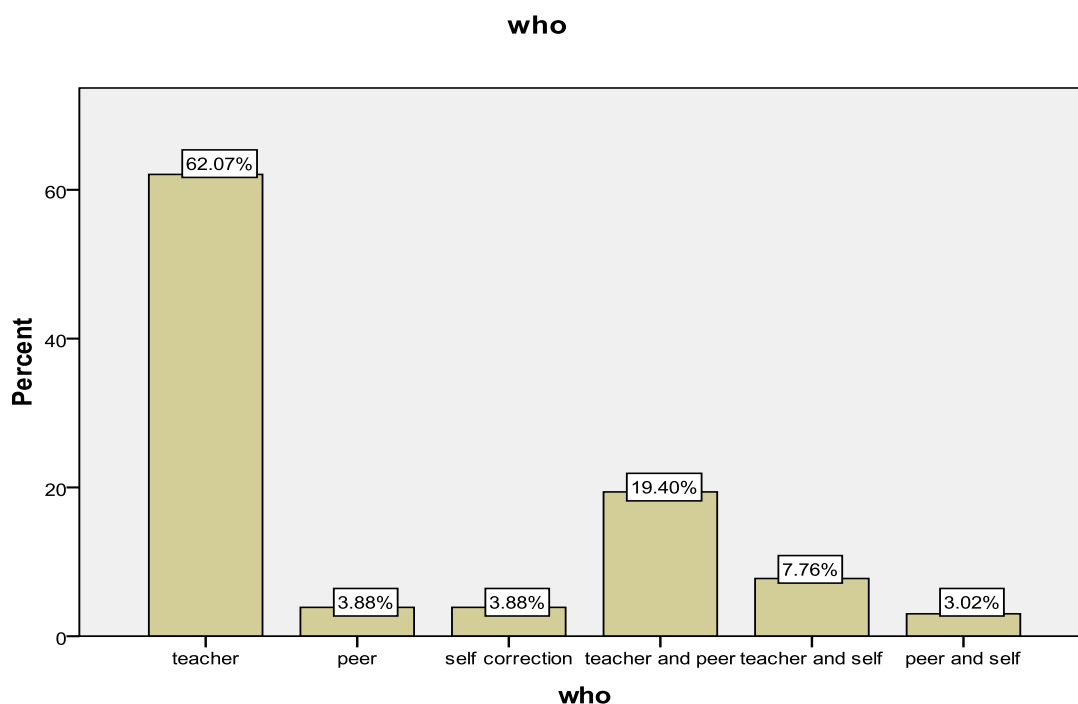
Table 5. The Association between Anxiety and Error Correction Sources

Correction Sources	Anxiety							
	Low		Medium		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Teacher	20	55.6	91	59.5	33	76.7	144	62.1
Peer	1	2.8	8	5.2	0	0.0	9	3.9
Self correction	2	5.6	3	2.0	4	9.3	9	3.9
Teacher & peer	11	30.6	29	19.0	5	11.6	45	19.4
Teacher & self	2	5.6	15	9.8	1	2.3	18	7.8
Peer & self	0	0.0	7	4.6	0	0.0	7	3.0
Total	36	100.0	153	100.0	43	100.0	232	100.0

The participants' responses revealed that 62.1% of the subjects (144 learners out of 266) prefer teacher correction, 3.9% of the subjects (9 learners out of 266) prefer peer correction, 3.9% of the subjects (9 learners out of 266) prefer self correction, 19.4% of the subjects (45 learners out of 266) prefer teacher and peer correction, 7.8% of the subjects (18 learners out of 266) prefer teacher and self correction and 3.0% of the subjects (7 learners out of 266) prefer peer and self correction.

Learner's perceptions with regard to the person who provides correction is presented in the form of a bar graph as in the following (see Figure 3). It can be seen that learners generally prefer teacher correction.

Figure 3



Although many of scholars believe that students do not like error corrections, the results of findings show that majority (62.1%) of the students regardless of their

anxiety levels prefer their teachers correct their errors. Moreover, nearly half of the students (43.8%) indicate that corrections of pronunciation errors are important for them.

4.5. Results Related to Research Question

“Is there any relationship between anxiety levels of students and their preference of error correction methods?”

According to the below table, the results of multiple regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between anxiety levels and the error correction methods (method 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 21, 22, 24) were statistically significant (**see table 6**). That is, the anxiety level may have facilitative and/or debilitating effect on students in learning a foreign language in relation to different subcomponents such as vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation and eventually on their ultimate academic performance. As seen, the choice of error correction method is highly influenced by learners' anxiety level. Hence, anxiety variable can be considered as a key predictor of the type of error correction method preferred by students. However, there was no significant relationship between anxiety and number 1, 4, 5, 7, 12, 17, 18, 19, 20, 23, 25, 26 and 27 of error correction methods.

Table 6. Relationship between Anxiety and Error Correction Methods

		ANOVA					
Error Correction Methods		Anxiety Level	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)*
2	Interrupt	Low	266	6199.326	6	15.792	0.000
3	Delay	Low	266	1034.734	6	5.277	0.000
6	Negation	Low	266	1089.273	6	5.524	0.000
8	Reduction	Low	266	1410.522	6	6.245	0.000
9	Expansion	Low	266	1388.537	6	6.148	0.000
10	Emphasis	Medium	266	1135.191	6	4.738	0.003
11	Repetition with no change	High	266	2096.339	6	8.551	0.000
13	Repetition with change	Low	266	1434.910	6	6.399	0.000
14	Repetition with change and emphasis	Low	266	4426.614	6	14.475	0.000
15	Explanation	Low	266	1891.603	6	7.603	0.000
16	Complex explanation	Low	266	1027.663	6	5.169	0.000
21	Clue	High	266	209.545	6	8.578	0.004
22	Original question	High	266	713.663	6	2.572	0.019
24	Questions	Medium	266	1328.437	6	4.698	0.031

p < 0.05

2. Interrupt: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 2 (Interrupt), [Method2► $F(6, 264) = 15.792$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in low level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 7.9 % (N=21) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 2. That is, 19.0% (N=4) from low anxiety group, 52.4% (N=11) from medium anxiety group and 28.6% (N=6) from high anxiety group preferred method 2.

3. Delay: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 3 (Delay), [Method3► $F(6, 264) = 5.277$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in low level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 62.4 % (N=166) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 3. That is, 16.3% (N=27) from low anxiety group, 65.1% (N=108) from medium anxiety group and 18.7% (N=31) from high anxiety group preferred method 3.

6. Negation: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 6 (Negation), [Method6► $F(6, 264) = 5.524$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in low level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 6.4 % (N=17) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 6. That is, 5.9 % (N=1) from low anxiety group, 70.6 % (N=12) from medium anxiety group and 23.5% (N=4) from high anxiety group preferred method 6.

8. Reduction: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 8 (Reduction), [Method8► $F(6, 264) = 6.245$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in low level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 4.9 % (N=13) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 8. That is, 30.8 % (N=4) from low anxiety group, 46.2 % (N=6) from medium anxiety group and 23.1% (N=3) from high anxiety group preferred method 8.

9. Expansion: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 9 (Expansion), [Method9► $F(6, 264) = 6.148$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in low level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 16.9 % (N=45) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 9. That is, 17.8 % (N=8) from low anxiety group, 71.1 % (N=32) from medium anxiety group and 11.1% (N=5) from high anxiety group preferred method 9.

10. Emphasis: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 10 (Emphasis), [Method10► $F(6, 264) = 4.738$; $P\text{-value} = 0.003$, $P < 0.05$] in medium level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 66.2 % (N=176) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 10. That is, 19.3 % (N=34) from low anxiety group, 63.1 % (N=111) from medium anxiety group and 17.6% (N=31) from high anxiety group preferred method 10.

11. Repetition with no change : There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 11 (Repetition with no change), [Method11► $F(6, 264) = 8.551$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in high level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 16.2 % (N=43) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 11. That is, 27.9 % (N=12) from low anxiety group, 58.1 % (N=25) from medium anxiety group and 14.0% (N=6) from high anxiety group preferred method 11.

13. Repetition with change: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 13 (Repetition with change), [Method13► $F(6, 264) = 6.399$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in low level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 27.8 % (N=74) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 13. That is, 27.0 % (N=20) from low anxiety group, 54.1 % (N=40) from medium anxiety group and 18.9% (N=14) from high anxiety group preferred method 13.

14. Repetition with change and emphasis : There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 14

(Repetition with change and emphasis), [Method14► $F(6, 264) = 14.475$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in low level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 22.6 % ($N=60$) of the scores for the whole sample ($N=266$) were ascribed to method 14. That is, 25.0 % ($N=15$) from low anxiety group, 55.0 % ($N=33$) from medium anxiety group and 20.0% ($N=12$) from high anxiety group preferred method 14.

15. Explanation: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 15 (Explanation), [Method15► $F(6, 264) = 7.603$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in low level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 35.7 % ($N=95$) of the scores for the whole sample ($N=266$) were ascribed to method 15. That is, 20.0 % ($N=19$) from low anxiety group, 61.1 % ($N=58$) from medium anxiety group and 18.9% ($N=18$) from high anxiety group preferred method 15.

16. Complex explanation: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 16 (Complex explanation), [Method16► $F(6, 264) = 5.169$; $P\text{-value} = 0.000$, $P < 0.05$] in low level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 1.5 % ($N=4$) of the scores for the whole sample ($N=266$) were ascribed to method 16. That is, 0 % ($N=0$) from low anxiety group, 50.0 % ($N=2$) from medium anxiety group and 50.0 % ($N=2$) from high anxiety group preferred method 16.

21. Clue: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 21 (Clue), [Method21► $F(6, 264) = 8.578$; $P\text{-value} = 0.004$, $P < 0.05$] in high level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 50.8 % ($N=135$) of the scores for the whole sample ($N=266$) were ascribed to method 21. That is, 14.8 % ($N=20$) from low anxiety group, 63.0 % ($N=85$) from medium anxiety group and 22.2 % ($N=30$) from high anxiety group preferred method 21.

22. Original question: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 22 (Original question), [Method22► $F(6, 264) = 2.572$; $P\text{-value} = 0.019$, $P < 0.05$] in high level anxiety group.

The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 12.0 % (N=32) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 22. That is, 9.4 % (N=3) from low anxiety group, 68.8% (N=22) from medium anxiety group and 21.9% (N=7) from high anxiety group preferred method 22.

24. Questions: There were statistically significant relationship between anxiety and participants' choice of error correction method 24 (Questions), [Method24► F (6, 264) = 4.698; P-value= 0.031, P< 0.05] in medium level anxiety group. The percentage analyses of the scores observed showed that 25.6 % (N=68) of the scores for the whole sample (N=266) were ascribed to method 24. That is, 26.5 % (N=18) from low anxiety group, 60.3% (N=41) from medium anxiety group and 13.2% (N=9) from high anxiety group preferred method 24.

As shown in Table 5, the results indicate that there are difference between student's preferences of error correction methods and their anxiety levels. There are significant relationship between students with low level anxiety and their preferences for correction strategies of oral errors. Those can be observed in 9 out of 27 correction strategies. As indicated in the table, students with low level of anxiety prefer (2) Interrupt, (3) Delay, (6) Negation, (8) Reduction, (9) Expansion, (13) Repetition with change, (14) Repetition with change and emphasis, (15) Explanation and (16) Complex explanation significantly. On the other hand, students with high level of anxiety prefer (11) Repetition with no change, (21) Clue and (22) Original question and also students with medium level of anxiety prefer (10) Emphasis and (24) Questions.

Method 2 (Interrupt) comparing with other methods is preferred by 1.36 % of the participants that in this type of correction, teacher interrupts student's utterance following the error or before student has completed the utterance. Teacher corrects student's oral errors explicitly by interrupting them. By using of this method, teacher corrects students immediately by interrupting and giving the correct form. Method 3 (Delay) comparing with other methods is preferred by 10.67 % of the participants that this type of oral error correction, requires waiting for the students to complete the utterance before correcting. Teacher corrects students, explicitly by providing the correct form after the student complete their sentences. Method 6 (Negation) comparing

with other methods is preferred by 1.09 %, of the participants that in this type of error correction, teacher shows rejection of part or all of students utterance. Method 8 (Reduction) comparing with other methods is preferred by 0.84 % of the participants that in this type of correction, teacher employs only a segment of students utterance. Method 9 (Expansion), comparing with other methods is preferred by 2.89 % of the participants that in this correction method, teacher provides the correct answer with making more complete students' utterance. Teacher adds more linguistic material to students' utterance. Method 13 (Repetition with change), comparing with other methods is preferred by 4.76% of the participants that in this type of correction teacher gives a corrected version of the message after the student makes an incorrect utterance. Method 14 (Repetition with change and emphasis), comparing with other methods is preferred by 3.86% of the participants that in this correction method, teacher adds emphasis to stress location of error and its correct formulation. Method 15 (Explanation), comparing with other methods is preferred by 6.11% of the participants that in this correction method, teacher provides information as to cause or type of error. And method 16 (Complex explanation), comparing with other methods is preferred by 6.11% of the participants that this correction method is combination of negation, repetitions and explanation.

While in method 10 (Emphasis), comparing with other methods is preferred by 11.31% of the participants that in this correction method, teacher uses stress, iterative repetition or question intonation, to mark area or fact of incorrectness. And also in correction method 24 (Question) that is preferred by 4.37%, of the participants and method 11 (Repetition with no change) that is preferred by 2.76% of the participants and method 21 (Clue) that is preferred by 8.68% of the participants and finally in method 22 (Original question) that is preferred by 2.06% of the participants, generally it can be stated that in these methods, teacher's reaction provides students with isolation of error, without providing correction.

In sum, the findings indicate that all students with low level of anxiety prefer to be corrected explicitly. They prefer the following methods: Interrupt, Delay, Negation, Reduction, Expansion, Repetition with change, Repetition with change and emphasis, Explanation and Complex explanation. They prefer some correction methods that in

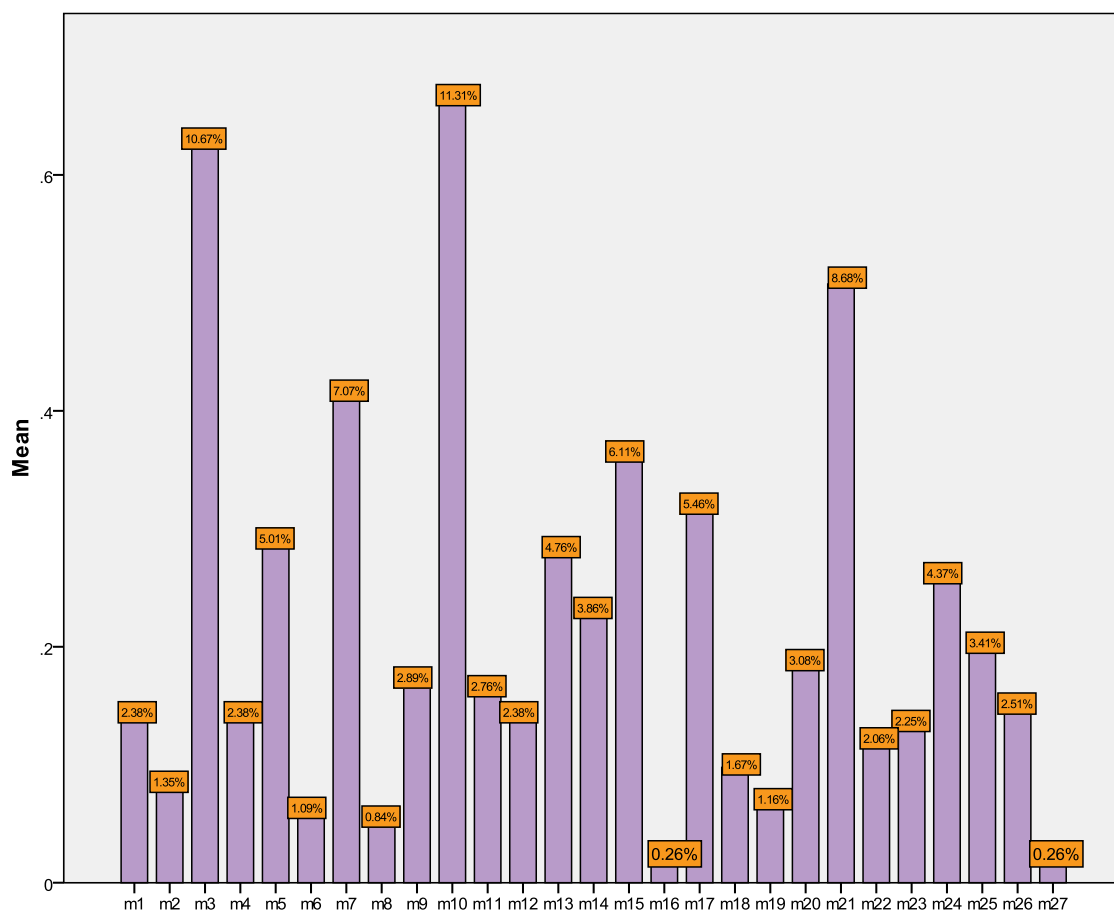
these types of methods, teachers provide the correct answer. It can be inferred that these students don't mind being corrected and also they are not afraid of losing face in front of others. Whereas some students with high level of anxiety feel better when they are corrected implicitly, these students prefer their teacher provides them with some clues without providing correction. Repetition with no change, Clue and Original question are the methods that students with high level of anxiety are preferred.

Many scholars advise that teacher should correct students' errors by giving some clues that using these clues, students can find the correct forms. For instance, Leki (1991) claims that in the study, the majority of the students want to be corrected by showing the place of error and giving clues about how to correct their errors. In sum, contrary to the suggestions of the many scholars, correcting students' errors using some clues, Muluk's (1998) study indicates that majority of the students want to be corrected by being supplied the correct forms and also indicating the place of error. This study also shows that some of the students want to be corrected by being supplied the correct forms, these students have low levels of anxiety, on the other hand the students with high levels of anxiety want to be corrected by giving some clues, they don't prefer correct by providing direct correction.

Walz (1982) claims that students prefer and expect teachers to correct their errors. Many scholars advise teachers to allow students to find and correct their errors themselves by giving some clues. They assert that this is more helpful for students. The writers who support this view, state that pointing out errors is very helpful to students, they believe that it cause students to use other sources.

To conclude, it can be reported that students view emphasis (11.31%), delay (10.67%) and clue (8.68) as the most advantageous techniques of correction. Learners' preferences of error correction techniques are delineated in the form of a bar graph below. (see Figure 4)

Figure 4: Methods



CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to conclude this study by giving some suggestions to ELT teachers about how they can teach learners in an environment that is full of motivation and free from anxiety, stress and frustration.

5.2. Summary of the Study

As anxiety is one of important facet of the affective domain in language learning process. It can be mentioned that learning anxiety is a real problem in language learning process. Anxiety becomes particularly obvious, in language classroom interactions, when learners may want to avoid making mistakes, they think that it could do harm to their self-image, so they may feel anxious and keep silent (Aydın, 2001). And also it is widely recognized in the EFL literature that anxiety while learning has a negative relationship to L2 achievement. So the important aim of this study is reducing the language learners' anxiety. Considering and awareness of students' attitude and preference of their errors and error correction methods shape their feeling about participation in classroom activities and maybe reduce their anxiety level.

The data for this study is obtained from 266 language learners in three state universities in Turkey. The data collection procedure is conducted via questionnaire, in

which learners' preferences for error correction are identified through Chaudron's categorization of error correction techniques and also their anxiety levels are determined by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986 FLCAS questionnaire. After the data elicitation procedure is completed, the results are analyzed in the light of the research questions.

The results of questionnaires indicate that the majority (43.8 %) of the students believes that corrections of pronunciation errors are important for them. Moreover, the results also indicate that the majority (62.1%) of the students prefer their teachers to correct their errors during oral communication. In addition, the results indicate that there is significant relationship between student's preferences of error correction methods and their anxiety levels. All students with low levels of anxiety prefer to be corrected explicitly, they prefer some correction technique in which the teacher supplies the correct answer. It can be inferred that these students don't mind being corrected and also they are not afraid of losing face in front of others. Whereas some students with high levels of anxiety feel better when they are corrected implicitly, these students prefer the error correction technique in which their teacher shows the place of error and gives a clue about how to correct it.

Generally, it can be stated that the students believe the importance of error correction and prefer being corrected even though they feel anxiety when corrected.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

In light of findings and the pedagogical implications presented in this chapter, learners might be provided with assistance in reducing their foreign language anxiety. In addition, the findings of the study can guide teachers to develop approaches that take students' feeling and opinions into consideration. All of these findings are helpful to teachers, by reminding the differences between what students expect and teacher provide.

One of the most important factors in language learning is being and feeling relaxed in learning environment. So considering students feelings are necessary for teachers. Instructors should be aware of the fact that learners suffer from a certain amount of foreign language anxiety in classroom. Considering the effects of anxiety on the students learning process, some recommendations can be made. The learners should be positively encouraged to participate in oral activities, and they should be provided with positive feedback in a comfortable classroom atmosphere where the instructor acts as a facilitator and behaves in a friendly way it can also be recommended that the instructors be alert to signs of anxiety in the students.

Learners' anxiety influences their preference for specific methods. In this case it is suggested that teachers awareness of learners' preferences, may contribute to learners' engagement in oral communication and reduction of learners' anxiety in oral communication, this results successful oral communication. So to reduce students' anxiety, frequent use of preferred methods for error correction is highly recommended.

Most teachers correct without accounting learners' point of view, and without being aware of and paying attention to the effect they have produced on learners, and thereby on active involvement during class time. The correction techniques that teacher employs may either affect learners positively or negatively in language learning so, it can be claimed that the error correction techniques implemented in language classrooms may determine or shape the attitude of learners towards the language learning process and their feeling about participation in classroom activities. At this point knowing the learners' preferences and perspectives of oral error correction techniques are significant which can encourage active involvement in the classroom and reduce learners' anxiety in oral communication. The findings of this study may help teachers to lower students' anxiety by start using correction methods that students are preferred regarding to their levels of anxiety.

Since the results of the study show us that majority of the students indicate corrections of pronunciation errors are important for them, the students should be provided with more effective instruction and practice in pronunciation. This may be achieved by allocating more time to pronunciation instruction and training in pronunciation learning strategies.

Traditionally, errors have negative connotations for language students, so correcting learners' error without considering their feelings is counterproductive. Therefore, unless the psychological factors are taken into consideration, the fear of making errors will be a barrier to communication. Since some students seem to fear making mistakes, the teachers should emphasize the fact that making mistakes is a natural part of language learning.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

Considering the findings of the study, some suggestions can be made for further research. This study investigated error correction preferences from the perspectives of the learners. Therefore, another study can be conducted to investigate both teachers and learners' perspectives.

Further research could be conducted on whether students' anxiety decrease when teachers use error correction techniques that majority of the students prefer in oral communication.

In this study, gender, age and the proficiency level of subjects are not taken into consideration. In further research these variables can be taken into consideration.

Since this study was conducted in a limited period of time, another study can be carried out with a lower level group of participants to investigate how the students anxiety level, change over time and the study can be continued with the same group of participants as they become more proficient.

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APPENDIX A: Questionnaire

Questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire has been devised to be used in a master's degree study related to the topic of a study on error correction to reduce learning anxiety in oral communication in EFL classes. Which of the following options do you think are likely to produce effects on fostering your active oral participation and reduce your anxiety in the English class. Please choose the most appropriate alternative.

Age :

Gender :

Grade :

What kind(s) of errors do you prefer to be corrected by your instructor?

Who do you prefer to correct your errors?

What are your favored correction methods for your oral errors? Please indicate your preferences.

1. **Ignore:** Teacher ignores student's error, goes on to the topic, or shows acceptance of content.
2. **Interrupt:** Teacher interrupts students utterance following error, or before student has completed.
3. **Delay:** Teacher waits to complete utterance before correcting.
4. **Acceptance:** Simple approving or accepting word (Usually as sign of reception of utterance), but teacher may immediately correct a linguistic error.
5. **Attention:** Attention-getter; probably quickly learned by students.
6. **Negation:** Teacher shows rejection of part or all of students utterance.

7. **Provide:** Teacher provides the correct answer when student has been unable or when no response is offered.
8. **Reduction:** Teacher's employs only a segment of student's utterance.
9. **Expansion:** Teacher adds more linguistic material to student's utterance, possibly making more complete.
10. **Emphasis:** Teacher uses stress, iterative repetition, or question intonation, to mark area or fact of incorrectness.
11. **Repetition with no change:** Teacher repeats student's utterance with no change of error, or omission of error.
12. **Repetition with no change and emphasis:** Teacher repeats students with no change of error, but emphasis locates or indicates fact of error.
13. **Repetition with change:** Usually teacher simply adds correction and continues to other topics. Normally only when emphasis is added will correcting change become clear, or will teacher attempt to make it clear.
14. **Repetition with change and emphasis:** Teacher adds emphasis to stress location of error and its correct formulation.
15. **Explanation:** Teacher provides information as to cause or type of error.
16. **Complex explanation:** combination of negotiation, repetitions, and or explanation.
17. **Repeat:** Teacher requests student to repeat utterance, with intent to have student self correct.
18. **Repeat:** Procedures are understood that by pointing or otherwise signaling, teacher has students repeat.
19. **Loop:** Teacher honestly needs a replay of student utterance, due to lack of clarity or certainty of its form.
20. **Prompt:** Teacher uses a lead in cue to get student to repeat utterance, possibly at point of error; possible slight rising intonation.
21. **Clue:** Teacher reaction provides student with isolation of type of error or of the nature of its immediate correction, without providing correction.
22. **Original question:** Teacher repeats the original question that led to response.
23. **Altered question:** Teacher alters original question syntactically, but not semantically.
24. **Questions:** Numerous ways of asking for new response, often with clues, etc.

25. **Transfer:** Teacher asks student or several, or class to provide correction.
26. **Verification:** Teacher attempts to assure understanding of correction; a new elicitation is implicit or made more explicit.
27. **Exit:** At any stage in the exchange teacher may drop correction of the error, though usually not after explicit negation, emphasis, etc.

FLCAS Questionnaire

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.					
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.					
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.					
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.					
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.					
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.					
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.					
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.					
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.					
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.					
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.					
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.					
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my					

language class.					
14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.					
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.					
16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.					
17. I often feel like not going to my language class.					
18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.					
19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.					
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.					
21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.					
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.					
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.					
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.					
25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.					
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.					
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.					
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.					
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.					
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.					

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.					
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.					
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.					