FINNISH EFL LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS ON ERRORS, CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

Master's thesis

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English
September 2012

JYVÄSKYLÄN YLIOPISTO

Tiedekunta – Faculty Humanistinen tiedekunta	Laitos – Department Kielten laitos
Tekijä – Author Katariina Renko	
Työn nimi – Title FINNISH EFL LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS ON ERRORS, CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY	
Oppiaine – Subject Englannin kieli	Työn laji – Level Pro gradu -tutkielma
Aika – Month and year Syyskuu 2012	Sivumäärä – Number of pages 70 sivua + 2 liitettä

Tiivistelmä – Abstract

Virheiden merkitys vieraiden kielten oppimisessa on tunnustettu aina 1970-luvulta lähtien, jolloin virheet alettiin nähdä välttämättömänä osana kielen ja sen sääntöjen oppimista. Virheiden tekemiseen vieraan kielen opiskelussa liittyy oleellisena osana opettajan oppijoille antama korjaava palaute (*corrective feedback*). Opettajan ja oppilaan vuorovaikutuksen, jota korjaava palaute osaltaan edustaa, on kuitenkin todettu voivan aiheuttaa oppijoissa ahdistuneisuutta ja pelkoa (*anxiety*). Tässä tutkielmassa kartoitetaan, millaisia suullisia virheitä suomalaiset yhdeksäsluokkalaiset englannin kielen oppitunneilla tekevät ja miten noloina he niitä pitävät. Tarkoituksena on myös selvittää, miten he suhtautuvat tekemiinsä suullisiin virheisiin ja niihin liittyvään opettajan korjaavaan palautteeseen. Tutkimuksessa keskitytään erityisesti siihen, kokevatko yhdeksäsluokkalaiset virheet, korjaavan palautteen ja niihin liittyvät kommunikaatiotilanteet ahdistavina ja pelottavina. Tutkimukseen osallistui 100 yhdeksäsluokkalaista, joiden mielipiteitä kartoitettiin kirjallisen kyselyn avulla.

Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittavat, että 83 % vastaajista kokee suullisten virheiden tekemisen luokkatilanteessa ahdistavana, vaikkakin enemmistöllä heistä (91 %) ahdistusta esiintyy harvoin tai silloin tällöin. Erityisen ahdistaviksi virheet koetaan opettajan läsnä ollessa, kun taas pari- ja ryhmätyötilanteissa ahdistusta esiintyy vähemmän. Yleisimmät syyt virheiden ahdistavuuteen liittyivät muihin oppilaisiin (nolous, nauraminen, kommentointi) tai opettajaan (arvosanan laskeminen, opettajan ajatukset). Lähes kaikki vastaajat (98%) kuitenkin mieltävät virheet hyödyllisiksi ja oppimista edistäviksi. Korjaavaa palautetta opettajalta toivoo *aina* tai *usein* 56 % vastaajista, vaikkakin 80 % vastaajista kokee palautteen hyödylliseksi *aina* tai *usein*. Opettajan tuleekin kiinnittää huomiota valitsemiinsa korjaamisstrategioihin, sillä toiset strategiat (*elicitation*) koettiin huomattavasti ahdistavampina kuin toiset (*metalinguistic feedback*), mikä voi osaltaan vaikuttaa siihen, että oppilaat eivät halua korjaavaa palautetta, vaikka mieltävätkin sen hyödylliseksi.

Vaikka tutkimuksen aineisto on pienehkö, sen tulokset tarjoavat tuoretta tietoa suomalaisten kielenoppijoiden ahdistuneisuudesta ja suhtautumisesta virheisiin ja korjaavaan palautteeseen. Jatkotutkimuksia tarvitaankin eri ikäluokkien osalta, jotta oppilaiden ahdistuneisuuden syistä saadaan lisää tietoa.

Asiasanat – Keywords
Foreign language anxiety, individual learner differences, errors, corrective feedback

Säilytyspaikka – Depository

Muita tietoja – Additional information

1 INTRODUCTION

The role of errors in the language learning process has interested researchers since the 1970s when Error Analysis became the favored paradigm for studying second and foreign language learning. Moving away from Contrastive Analysis to Error Analysis meant that the focus shifted from studying the relationship between the native and the target language to inspecting the actual language learner (van Els et al. 1984: 37). In Error Analysis, the language learners' deviations from the TL were no longer contrasted to their L1, but comparisons were made between the learners' production of the TL and the TL itself (Gass and Selinker 2008: 102). Thus, Error Analysis provided a method for investigating the learner and the learner language (Ellis 1994: 48). This learner language, or *interlanguage*, that the learner builds from environmental data is nowadays seen as the learner's internal linguistic system that has its own rules and conventions and that is worth studying in its own right (James 1998: 43, VanPatten and Benati 2010: 2). Similarly, the errors the learners make in their interlanguage provide researchers and teachers evidence of their knowledge of the target language. That is why errors should not be regarded as signs of imperfect learning, but as indications of the learner's attempt to figure out the target language system (Gass and Selinker 2008: 102).

A matter that is closely related to errors in second and foreign language learning contexts is the corrective feedback teachers give to the learners in the language classroom. Teacher correcting a learner's error is one of the most typical interactive situations between a teacher and a learner and can take place several times during a language lesson. There is a great deal of research on *when* and *how* learners' errors are or should be corrected (see for example Lalande II 1982, Lyster and Ranta 1997, Ellis et al. 2006, Surakka 2007, Rahimi and Dastjerdi 2012, and Taipale 2012), but the majority of the previous studies have focused on learner uptake and the effects of error correction on the learners' language proficiency. What have so far been left for little attention are the learners' personal opinions and affections about corrective feedback (see Saito 1994, Schultz 1996 and Lee 2005), especially in the Finnish context. This should not be the case, however, since teachers should always take into account the learners' opinions on the classroom procedures they choose to use. After all, the connection between instructor-learner interaction and language anxiety has been acknowledged by many researchers (Oxford 1999: 65). For example, Young (1991: 427) clearly states that classroom procedures and instructor-learner interactions have been identified as

potential sources of language anxiety, which is why teachers should be conscious of the possible implications of their teaching methods and strategies. Indeed, learners cannot concentrate on the learning task at hand if they feel stressed and insecure (Ellis 1994: 479).

Hence, the present study aims at investigating the mutual relationship between errors and anxiety by examining whether Finnish 9th graders experience anxiety in the EFL classroom relation to their oral errors and the teacher's corrective feedback. In addition, the purpose is to study the learners' general attitudes towards errors and corrective feedback in terms of their usefulness and value in language learning. The present study differs from previous studies on errors and corrective feedback by focusing on language learners and giving them the opportunity to report on their attitudes and affections. Furthermore, there are no previous studies in Finland about the interrelationship between errors, corrective feedback and anxiety, which is why the findings of the present study can give valuable information to language teachers and language learning professionals.

The present study begins by introducing two of the three main themes of the study, i.e. error and corrective feedback, in Chapter 2. The chapter will discuss errors in language learning, error definitions, corrective feedback and different corrective feedback strategies, as well as present some of the relevant previous studies on these themes. The third main theme of the study, anxiety, will be addressed in Chapter 3 which will begin with a short introduction of individual learner differences before moving on to discussing anxiety and foreign language anxiety. Similarly to Chapter 2, Chapter 3 will end with a presentation of relevant previous studies on the theme. The research questions of the present study can be found at the beginning of the Chapter 4 which continues with a presentation of the data and methods. The findings of the present study are introduced in Chapter 5, whereas a more detailed discussion and conclusion are included in the final Chapter 6.

2 ERRORS AND CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

The aim of the present chapter is to discuss two of the key the concepts in the present study, i.e. *errors* and *corrective feedback.* The first three sections will discuss errors by first presenting the historical background to the study of errors, after which different error definitions and error types will be introduced. The next two sections, in their turn, will focus on corrective feedback and error correction strategies. Finally, relevant previous research on errors and corrective feedback will be presented at the very end of the chapter.

2.1 Errors in language learning

It is nowadays generally agreed among second language researchers that learners are active participants in their own language learning process. In the 1950s and 1960s, however, Contrastive Analysis saw the language learning process as a continuous imitation of the data provided by the language learning environment and adults (van Els et al. 1984: 48). Hence, any deviations from the (adult) L2 norm were regarded as undesired by-products of the L2 learning and were to be avoided at any cost with the help of effective language teaching (van Els et al. 1984: 49). If errors did occur, they were said to be due to the learner transferring L1 conventions to the target language (Ellis 1994: 47). It was not until Error Analysis became the favored paradigm for studying second and foreign language learning in the 1970s that errors started receiving more attention and their significance in the language learning process was acknowledged.

In 1967 Corder published one of his pioneering articles that is regarded as one of the cornerstones of Error Analysis. In his article “The significance of learner’s errors” (Corder 1967, as quoted by van Els et al. 1984: 51), Corder stated that L1 and L2 learners have the cognitive ability to make hypotheses about the language they are learning, which is demonstrated by the learners’ use of different strategies and procedures, such as overgeneralization, when processing the target language. He continued by stating that the aforementioned strategies may well lead to errors, but that “errors are inevitable, necessary and systematic stages in the language learning process” (Corder 1967, as quoted by van Els et al. 1984: 51). Errors are important, as they give

teachers information about what their students have already acquired, inform researchers about the way languages are learnt, as well as function as devices through which learners discover the rules of the target language (Corder 1967, as quoted by Ellis 1994: 48). Corder's views about errors being significant and carrying value on their own were radically contradictory to the prevalent ideas of the time, according to which errors were to be avoided and eliminated (Gass and Selinker 2008: 102).

Whereas Contrastive Analysis aimed at handling the learners' errors by studying the differences between the L1 and the target language, Error Analysis had its focus on the learners' *interlanguage,* i.e. the half-way position between knowing and not knowing the target language (James 1998: 3). Opposite to Contrastive Analysts, Error Analysts argued that many L2 errors are in fact not due to transfer from the L1 (VanPatten and Benati 2010: 77). One of the main ideas behind Error Analysis was that interlanguage, the internal language system possessed by second language learners, is worthy of studying in its own right and not merely as a skewed version of the L1 (Selinker 1972, as quoted by VanPatten and Benati 2010: 2). Along with the rise of Error Analysis, interlanguage began to be seen as a natural human language that has its own rules and conventions and is independent of both the learners' L1 and the TL (James 1998: 43). In the interlanguage theory the learners' own active participation in constructing their mental grammars was strongly emphasized and their errors were considered to be rule-governed reflections of the strategies they use when constructing grammatical rules about the target language (Ellis 1994: 44).

The usefulness of errors has also been discussed from the perspective of what makes a good language learner. Naiman et al. (1978, as quoted in Johnson 2001: 147) has suggested that a good language learner is not inhibited and is willing to make mistakes in order to learn and communicate. In other words, successful language learners accept that a certain amount of vagueness is an internal part of the language learning process. Moreover, good learners constantly monitor their own interlanguage and correct their own mistakes.

2.1.1 Defining an error

Naturally, one of the key concepts in Error Analysis is the notion of error. However, errors are not easily identified, as they always depend on a norm of some kind (van Els et al. 1984: 469). A common approach is to handle the language learners' errors in relation to the *native speakers'* language and norms. In his aforementioned article, Corder (Corder 1967, as quoted by Allwright and Bailey 1991: 91) suggested that the term *error* refers to regular patterns in the learners' speech that consistently differ from the target language model. Thus, errors are a part of the learners' current interlanguage system and thus they do not recognize them as "wrong". According to Corder (1967 as quoted by Gass and Selinker 2008: 102), the term *mistake*, in contrast, refers to memory lapses, slips of the tongue and other performance errors which second language learners can often correct themselves. The separation between a mistake and an error is also mentioned by James (1998: 78) who includes the ability to make corrections in his definition. He states that mistakes are such faults in learner's output that he / she is able to and willing to correct, whereas errors he / she is not able to or is disinclined to correct (James 1998: 78).

A more recent and fairly often-quoted definition of error is by Lennon (1991) who, similarly to Corder, incorporates the native speaker norm into his definition. He suggests that an error is "a linguistic form … which, in the same context… would in all likelihood not be produced by the learner's *native speaker counterparts*" (Lennon 1991, as quoted by James 1998: 1).

Despite the many popular definitions that are based on the native speaker norms of a language, there can be seen an obvious problem with using them as the basis for defining an error. Currently, the vast majority of EFL learners study English with an instructor who is not a native speaker of the target language (Allwright and Bailey. 1991: 84). This means that, for example in the Finnish context, learners are consistently exposed to a non-native language model and the English used in the classroom may deviate from the native speaker norm. Additionally, teachers who are oriented towards the communicative language approach are often more concerned with the learners' ability to convey the message, than to produce grammatically and accurate language (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 84).

Another problem with defining error arises especially in the classroom context. Sometimes a learner's response is rejected by the teacher not because it was somehow non-native-like or linguistically erroneous, but because it was not what the teacher expected or wanted in the given situation. Indeed, one definition classifies error as a "form unwanted by the teacher" (George 1972, as quoted by Allwright and Bailey 1991: 85). In such a situation, defining error becomes extremely problematic, as it is no longer a characteristic of the language but an entirely classroom-related phenomenon. Additionally, in a case like this, the teacher should always clearly indicate that the form produced by the student was in fact linguistically correct in order to prevent further confusion from the student's part.

Chaudron (1986, as quoted in Allwright and Bailey 1991: 86) has presented a well-formed definition of error that combines both native speakers and the classroom aspect of the concept. He stated that errors are

> "1) linguistic forms or content that differed from native speaker norms or facts, and
> 2) any other behavior signaled by the teacher as needing improvement".

This definition is suitable for the purposes of the present study, as it takes into account both the native speakers of the target language and the teachers' role in determining errors in the classroom.

2.1.2 Different error types

In his book, James (1998) divides errors into four main categories: substance errors, discourse errors, lexical errors and grammatical errors. *Substance errors* include misspellings, such as punctuation errors or typographic errors, and mispronunciations which are errors in encoding at the productive phonological level when speaking a foreign language spontaneously (James 1998: 139). When it comes to mispronunciations, a distinction can be made between a phonological error, which occurs when speaking spontaneously, and a *miscue*, which occurs when reading out loud a passage of prose (James 1998: 139). For the present study, however, this distinction is not relevant, as the present study investigates errors in the language classroom where both spontaneous speech and reading aloud are typical activities. *Discourse errors*, on the other hand, include errors in production, such as coherence and

pragmatics errors, and reception, such as misunderstanding and misprocessing. Pragmatic errors involve putting linguistic knowledge into practice and arise whenever a speaker misencodes the pragmatic force of an utterance, i.e. what speech act it is intended to perform, or what rhetorical force it should carry (James 1998: 164). An example of this in English could be the use of the word *please* in order to differentiate between a command and a request. These pragmatic errors, or socio-pragmatic failures, result from cultural differences in regard to what is appropriate behavior in a certain setting (James 1998: 165). James (1998) divides *grammatical errors* into two subcategories: errors in morphology and errors in syntax. A morphology error involves a failure to comply with the norm in supplying any part of any instance of the following word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs (James 1998: 154). Prepositions, however, have no morphology and are thus not included in the definition. Morphological errors include errors such as omitting the third person *–s* (*he speak English)* or overusing the past tense *–ed* (*he wented home*). These errors are regarded fairly basic but persistent among learners, even on higher levels (James 1998: 155). Syntax errors, on the other hand, are errors that affect phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraphs in terms of, for example, phrase structure or intersentence cohesion (James 1998: 156). Lastly, there are *lexical errors* which can be divided into formal errors, such as misformations or distortions, and semantic errors, such as collocational errors (James 1998). As James (1998: 143) states, learners often consider vocabulary to be very important in language learning, sometimes even equating a language with its vocabulary. Still, lexical errors are the most common error type for many learner groups (James 1998: 143). Native speakers, in their turn, deem them as more disturbing and irritating than other types of error (James 1998: 143).

In the present study the pupils' opinions are investigated in relation to grammatical, lexical, pronunciation and pragmatic errors. There are two reasons for focusing on these particular errors. Firstly, they represent all four main categories of errors listed by James (1998) that were presented above, but are still comprehensible for 9th graders, whose understanding of linguistics and capability to analyze their own mistakes is somewhat limited. It was important that the categories of error they were asked to analyze and that were presented to them in the questionnaire were as clear-cut as possible in order to ensure that they were able to understand the questions. Had the categories been too difficult, the respondents would possibly not have been able to draw clear distinctions between them, which could have lead to both frustration as well as non-reliable

answers. Secondly, previous studies on errors in language classroom have also used similar categorization of errors. Chaudron (1986), for example, studied the errors of children in French immersion classrooms in Canada in relation to six categories: phonological, lexical, morphological, syntactic, discourse and content errors, whereas in Finland Kivelä (2008) investigated students' grammatical, lexical, pronunciation and semantic errors. In the present study, these categories were adapted and broadened with the help of James (1998), who lists Chaudron's (1986) morphological and syntactic errors under grammatical errors, and Kivelä's (2008) semantic errors under pragmatic errors. Thus, it is felt that choosing to study grammatical, lexical, pronunciation and pragmatic errors, gives a wide, yet comprehensible, picture of different kinds of errors in the Finnish EFL learners' language.

2.2 Feedback on errors

James (1998: 235) defines the term *correction* as

> "a reactive second move of an adjacency pair to a first speaker's or writer's utterance by someone who has made the judgment that all or part of that utterance is linguistically of factually wrong".

He continues by stating that correcting is a metalinguistic act, as it is a comment on language. A specifically language teaching and classroom related problem with the term correction is whether a *statement* that something is wrong without mentioning *in what way* can be regarded a correction. Statements are, after all, used by numerous language teachers when addressing their students' errors. In order to avoid the problem, the term *corrective feedback* is nowadays used widely when referring to the measures a teacher takes when informing their learners that something is wrong (James 1998: 22). Corrective feedback is seen as "any indication to learners that their use of the target language is wrong" (Lightbown and Spada 1999, as quoted by El Tatawy 2002: 2). Long (2007: 77) does not promote the term *error correction* either, as he considers it to be a loaded term implying that the teacher's feedback has a guaranteed effect on the learner's language, which, however, is often not the case. Instead, all the teacher can do is to provide feedback for the learner, who then will, or will not, correct the error (Long 1977, as quoted by Lyster et al. 1999: 457). Thus, Long suggests that the terms *feedback*

on error and *negative feedback* ought to be used due to their neutral and precise nature (Long 2007: 77).

The matter of the usefulness of corrective feedback is unquestionably related to how a foreign language is learned. It has been suggested that a child acquires his / her first language with the help of a special component of the mind, the language acquisition device (Dekeyser 1993: 501). The language acquisition device processes positive evidence in the input whereas negative evidence (=error correction) could only be processed by the problem-solving component of the mind (Dekeyser 1993: 501). This would suggest that if second language acquisition is similar to first language acquisition, error correction does not play a significant role in the process (Dekeyser 1993:501). It is possible, however, that first and second language learning are *not* similar processes, as adults are not as capable as children to process input with the language acquisition device. The lack in this processing needs to be compensated for by using the problem-solving component of the mind to deal with negative evidence, i.e. by thinking about rules (Dekeyser 1993:501).

One of the most widely established theories about second language acquisition was presented by Long in 1983 (as quoted by Lightbown and Spada 2006: 43) when he introduced the Interaction Hypothesis. According to Long, in order to acquire a second language learners need comprehensible input which is achieved through modified interaction (Long 1983, as quoted by Lightbown and Spada 2006: 43). He argued that second language learners cannot acquire the target language from native speakers' talk, but that they need modified interaction with other learners. Later, Long published a modified version of the Interaction Hypothesis, where he emphasized the teacher's role in the acquisition process by underlining the significance of corrective feedback (Long 1996, as quoted by Lightbown and Spada 2006: 44). He argued that implicit negative feedback and *negotiation of meaning* give the learners the opportunity to focus on the linguistic form and thus develop their language skills (Long 1996, as quoted by Sheen 2004: 265; Long 1996, as quoted by Lightbown and Spada 2006: 44). Thus, feedback promotes acquisition by connecting input, learner's attention and output in a productive manner (Long 1996, as quoted by Mackey et al. 2000: 472). According to Long, the teacher can offer learners two types of environmental input about the target language: *positive* and *negative evidence* (Long 1996, as quoted by El Tatawy 2002: 2). With positive evidence the teacher provides the learners with correct and acceptable models

about the target language, whereas with negative evidence the teacher directly or indirectly notifies the learners about what is incorrect and unacceptable in the target language (Long 1996, as quoted by El Tatawy 2002: 2).

The question of which errors should be corrected has spawned a great deal of research and animated discussion among researchers. For example, Truscott (1999) has strongly argued that in addition to causing both teachers and students many problems, research evidence indicates that oral grammar correction does not promote learning. Thus he feels that there is no reason for continuing the practice (Truscott 1999: 453). He writes that in order for a correction to have a lasting impact, the learner must incorporate it to his / her own interlanguage, which can only happen if the learner notices, understands and accepts the correction, as well as consciously rehearses it (Truscott 1999: 446). This, as Truscott argues, is not likely the case, as learners may 1) have other things on their mind, 2) not understand the teacher's correction, 3) feel resistant towards being corrected, or 4) not take the correction seriously. Nervousness or embarrassment may also get in the way of paying attention to the correction and understanding it, or the student may be unwilling to make the effort (Truscott 1999: 445).

As for how errors should be corrected, Young (1991: 427) argues that teachers who believe their role is to correct student every time they make any error may be contributing to learner language anxiety. The opposite, i.e. no feedback, is not a successful strategy either, as described by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, as quoted by Thrownborrow 2002: 131). They report on a teacher who consistently withheld feedback in order to indicate that there are not always correct answers. This approach, however, reduced the children to silence, as they could no longer see the point of his questions. Truscott (1999: 441) has stated correcting errors is extremely challenging for teachers, as they ought to tailor error correction for individual students who on the affective side differ greatly in how their react to correction. He argues that "there is a serious danger that correction may produce embarrassment, anger, inhibition, feelings of inferiority, and a generally negative attitude toward the class (and probably toward the language itself)" (Truscott 1999: 441). As Ellis (2009: 14) concludes, teachers should observe the extent to which corrective feedback causes anxiety in learners. Additionally, they should adapt the corrective strategies they use in order to ensure that anxiety facilitates rather than debilitates.

2.2.1 Different corrective feedback strategies

There are several different corrective feedback strategies that teachers can use when correcting the students' errors in the classroom. One comprehensive description of six different strategies is found in Lyster and Ranta (1997) which are presented in the following chapters.

Firstly, there is *explicit correction* where the teacher responds to the student's error by explicitly providing the correct form while clearly indicating that what the student had said was wrong (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 46). In contrast, a *recast* is by nature implicit, as the teacher reformulates the student's utterance without the error, but does not explicitly say where the error appeared (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 46). Thirdly, a teacher can respond with a *clarification request* with which he / she clearly points out to the student that he / she either did not understand what the student was saying, or that the utterance was somehow ill-formed and that either a repetition or a reformulation is needed (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 47). The fourth type or feedback consists of either comments, information, or questions related to the erroneous utterance, and is called *metalinguistic feedback*. In this case the teacher does not provide the student with the correct form, but offers certain metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, which will in turn help the student correct it (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 47). *Elicitation* is a technique where the teacher uses different methods in order to elicit the correct answer from the student. He / she might ask questions, such as "What is X again in English?", ask the student to reformulate the utterance, or strategically pause their own sentence in such a manner that it encourages the student to fill in the rest (Lyster et al. 1997: 48). Lastly, there is *repetition* which refers to situations where the teacher repeats the erroneous utterance in isolation, while often using intonation to highlight the error (Lyster and Ranta. 1997: 48).

The six categories presented in Lyster and Ranta (1997) were adapted for the present study with certain necessary adjustments. One must take into account the fact that the study does not include any classroom observations or teacher interviews, as has its focus solely on the pupils' perceptions. This denotes that only error correction strategies that the students can self recognize and understand could be included in the questionnaire. Thus, recasts, though a frequent strategy among teachers, could not be

included, as they are implicit by nature and often go unnoticed by the learners (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 57).

2.3 Previous studies on errors and corrective feedback

Dekeyser (1993) investigated Dutch-speaking high school students studying French as their second language during oral communication activities. His goal was to assess the efficiency of oral error correction in relation to the students' individual characteristics of aptitude, motivation, anxiety and previous achievement. The test procedures consisted of an aptitude test and an affective variable questionnaire, as well as a written grammar test and three oral tests. One of Dekeyser's hypotheses was that there is a significant correlation between error correction and anxiety in the sense that error correction is more beneficial for students with low anxiety than it is for students with high anxiety (Dekeyser 1993: 505). His results showed a significant interaction between error correction and anxiety for the low anxiety students in the written grammar test, but the hypothesis could not be confirmed for the oral test (Dekeyser 1993: 509). Another hypothesis in the study was that error correction is most beneficial for students with high previous achievement and that students with low previous achievement will be more successful without error correction (Dekeyser 1993: 505). This time he found only a slightly significant interaction for the written test, and similarly to the previous hypothesis, the results remained unconfirmed for the oral test. Dekeyser's (1993: 511) conclusion was that error correction during oral communicative activities does not have a significant influence on the students' general achievement or proficiency. What he did note, however, is that error correction is interconnected to the learners' individual characteristics of extrinsic motivation, anxiety and previous achievement in the sense that systematic error correction improved the grammar test results among students with high previous achievement and low anxiety (Dekeyser 1993: 511).

A well-known study on the relationship between corrective feedback and learner uptake is by Lyster and Ranta (1997) who studied second language learners in immersion classrooms in Canada. They examined six corrective feedback types, which have been presented in section 2.2.1, in terms of their frequency and distribution, as well as their effects on learner uptake. Lyster and Ranta (1997) discovered that the teachers had a strong tendency (55% of all occurrences) to use recasts as the strategy for corrective

feedback (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 53), even though it was the least likely strategy to elicit student-generated repair (only 31% of all occurrences) (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 54). They concluded that of the six feedback types, elicitation, repetition, clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback were the more successful in evoking student-generated feedback (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 56). In Lyster and Ranta's data, the teachers provided corrective feedback on 62% of the students' erroneous utterances on average, and the researchers did conclude that more frequent corrections would probably be undesirable, but that teachers should more actively apply the different corrective techniques and not only recasts (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 56).

In Finland, similar findings about the frequency and effectiveness of the different error correction strategies have been made in EFL classrooms by Surakka (2007). In her fairly recent study she discovered that recast was the corrective feedback strategy that was used most often by the teachers (Surakka 2007: 57). Additionally, she concluded that recasts and explicit are not successful strategies in terms of learner uptake (Surakka 2007: 60). In contrast, in her study elicitation and metalinguistic feedback led to learner repair in nearly all cases (98% and 96%, respectively) (Surakka 2007: 61).

Another relevant and recent study on oral errors and corrective feedback in a Finnish context is by Kivelä (2008). She investigated pupils' oral errors and the teachers' reactions to them in Finnish primary schools. Her study had three focus points: 1) what error types are most common among the pupils, 2) which errors the teachers correct and which they don't – and why, and 3) what kind of corrective feedback the teachers use. The results indicated that errors in pronunciation (52%), grammar (23%) and lexis (22%) were most common, covering over 90% of all the data (Kivelä 2008: 21). Of these errors, lexical and grammatical errors were corrected very often (93% and 81%, respectively), whereas pronunciation errors were left for far less attention (Kivelä 2008: 22). The reasons the teachers presented for not correcting all errors in the classroom were classified as either pupil-related (e.g. the belief that repeated corrections may influence the weaker pupils' self-esteem negatively), teacher-related (e.g. the teacher not noticing the error or not knowing how to correct it) or situation-related (e.g. the correction would have interrupted on-going classroom events). In 66% of all the error correction situations, the teacher was the one correcting the error, whereas self-correction and peer-correction were used significantly less (15% and 4%, respectively)

(Kivelä 2008: 27). The most typical error correction strategies were recasts and negotiations.

However, what has so far been left for too little attention, it seems, is the students' viewpoint. Saito (1994), Schultz (1996) and Lee (2005) have aimed at shedding light on the students' perceptions and preferences on error correction, Saito and Lee having their focus on writing classrooms, whereas Schultz focused on grammar teaching.

The purpose of Schultz's (1996) exploratory study was to compare students' and teachers' beliefs about explicit grammar teaching, particularly in connection to error correction. The subjects were second and foreign language students and teachers in both commonly taught (CTL) and less-commonly taught (LCTL) languages at the University of Arizona where the data was collected with the help of a questionnaire. In terms of grammar teaching, Schultz discovered that the students had more favorable attitudes towards formal grammar study than their teachers did, and that even though a large majority of both groups believed that studying grammar helps in FL learning, the students shared the belief more often than the teachers (Schultz 1996: 345). Overall, the students' responses indicated a strong belief about the usefulness of grammar teaching (Schultz 1996: 345). When it comes to error correction, the students reported notably positive attitudes towards negative feedback with only 4% of them reporting feelings of displeasure when corrected in class (Schultz 1996: 346). When the students were asked whether they want the teacher to correct their errors, the vast majority answered "Yes", both in terms of written and spoken errors (97% and 90% respectively) (Schultz 1996: 346). There was a great disparity between the students' and the teachers' opinions, as only 34% of the CTL teachers and 50% of the LCTL teachers felt that the student should be corrected every time they make an oral error (Schultz 1996: 347). To conclude, Schultz (1996: 348) states that the students' favorable attitudes towards explicit grammar study and error correction may be due to three factors: 1) they may be based on a generally agreed myths that pass along from generation to generation, 2) they may be strongly affected by the grammar-focus curriculum and prevalent instructional practices, and 3) they may be based on personal experiences convincing the students about the usefulness of grammar and corrective feedback.

Saito (1994) investigated students' preferences for teacher feedback in relation to the actual teacher practices in the classroom. He found out that students preferred teacher

feedback, such as error correction and identification, to non-teacher feedback, such as peer and self correction. This was the case even though non-teacher feedback was used frequently in the class by the teachers. Lee (2005) targeted L2 secondary students' perceptions about error correction in a writing classroom. His conclusion was that there was no real gap between the students' wishes on error correction and the actual teacher practices. The students tended to prefer that the teachers point out their errors comprehensively, as well as correct all errors for them, which is what actually happened in the classroom. What one must bear in mind, however, is that both Saito (1994) and Lee (2005) examined writing classes, and thus probably mostly *written* errors. Whether students' preferences are significantly different when it comes to *oral* errors performed in the classroom is a question the present study aims at answering.

A recent study by Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012) had a two-fold objective including both error correction and anxiety. Firstly, they investigated an effective error correction method for developing learners' complexity, accuracy and fluency in speech in terms of immediate and delayed correction. Secondly, they aimed at measuring students' anxiety levels while the teacher corrected their errors immediately and with some delay. Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012) found out that delayed error correction has a positive effect on fluency and accuracy, but not on complexity. In terms of anxiety experienced in relation to error correction their conclusion was that students who received delayed correction experience less anxiety and were more comfortable to participate in discussions.

To conclude, many of the previous studies on corrective feedback have focused on investigating the popularity of different corrective feedback strategies in the classroom, or their effects on learner uptake. Studies that have had focused on the language learners and their personal opinion on errors or corrective feedback are rare, and in the Finnish context virtually non-existent. Thus, the present study aims at examining Finnish EFL learners' attitudes towards their oral errors and the teachers' corrective feedback strategies, as the learners' own perceptions on the matters unquestionably affect their language learning process. Furthermore, similarly to Dekeyser (1999), the aim of the present study is to explore errors and corrective feedback in relation to the pupils' previous achievement and language anxiety.

3 ANXIETY IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

There is an unquestionable consensus among today's language learning professionals about the significance of individual learner differences in second and foreign language learning. Indeed, they have been found to be the most consistent predictors of L2 learning success (Dörnyei 2005: 2) and speed (Jakobovits 1970: 98). The present study investigates one of these individual variables, *anxiety*, in relation the pupils' oral errors and the teachers' corrective feedback. As Arnold and Brown (1999: 8) have stated, anxiety is quite possibly the one affective factor that most frequently obstructs the language learning process, and thus it is crucial for language teachers to be aware of the ways in which their corrective feedback may be contributing to their students' anxiety. The present chapter will first shortly introduce the key concepts related to the individual learner differences in general, after which the focus will be on discussing anxiety and foreign language anxiety in more detail. The final section in the chapter will present some of the relevant previous studies on language anxiety.

3.1 Individual learner differences

According to Dörnyei (2005: 1), individual differences (IDs) are "characteristics or traits in respect of which individuals may be shown to differ from each other". In other words, they are individuals' continuous and stable characteristics that mark them as unique and distinct human beings. The second – and similarly the foreign – language learning process is strongly influenced by these individual personality traits residing in the leaner (Arnold and Brown 1999: 8). The individual differences are generally divided into three categories: personality, cognitive and affective variables (Johnson 2001: 117). *Personality* accounts for consistent features that characterize a unique individual, such as feeling, thinking and behaving (Pervin and John 1997: 4). In addition, concepts such as mood, temperament and tolerance of ambiguity (Dörnyei 2005: 11 and Johnson 2001: 141) are closely related to personality. The *cognitive variables*, in their turn, relate to the mental characteristics of a person. Intelligence and language aptitude are often regarded the most relevant of the cognitive factors (see for example Johnson 2001 or Dörnyei 2005). Finally, there are *affective variables*, which have been defined as factors that involve "emotional reactions and motivations of the learner; they signal the arousal of the limbic system and its direct intervention in the task of learning" (Scovel

1978, as quoted in Dörnyei 2005: 33). Examples of the affective factors are motivation, attitude, learner styles (see for example Skehan 1989 or Oxford 1990) and anxiety which is the object of the present study and will thus be presented in detail in the following sections.

3.2 Perspectives on anxiety

Even though anxiety has been regarded a significant affective variable in language learning for decades, there is still a great deal of vagueness related to the basic category of the concept (Dörnyei 2005: 198). Some experts see it as a motivational element, some as a personality trait and some as an emotion. Thus, it is often regarded as a complex factor made up of units that have different characteristics (Dörnyei 2005: 198). One of the earliest definitions of anxiety was provided by Scovel in 1978:

> "Anxiety is commonly seen as a state of apprehension and vague fear linked only indirectly to the object in question, be it the language itself of the learning situation."
> (Scovel 1978, as quoted by Pavlenko 2005: 33)

More recently, Arnold and Brown (1999: 8) have stated that anxiety is associated with negative feelings such as uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension and tension.

Two important distinctions are mentioned by a number of researchers in their work related to anxiety. The first one is between *trait anxiety, state anxiety* and *situation-specific anxiety*. *Trait anxiety* is described as being a stable characteristic in the individual's personality (Pavlenko 2005: 33), whereas *state anxiety* refers to a momentary experience of anxiety as an emotional reaction to the on-going situation (Dörnyei 2005: 198). *Situation-specific anxiety* is experienced in a specific situation due to, for example, having to speak in public or take part in classroom events (Ellis 1994: 480). The second distinction is between *facilitating* and *debilitating* anxiety. It has been stated that anxiety does not necessarily always impede performance, and that in certain cases it may even promote it. This *facilitating* anxiety is related to the affective component of anxiety, that is emotionality (Dörnyei 2005: 198), and thus it is said to motivate the learner to "fight" the learning task at hand (Pavlenko 2005: 33). Contrary to that, there is *debilitating* anxiety which entails the cognitive component of anxiety,

i.e. “worry” (Dörnyei 2005: 198) which wastes energy that ought to be used for memory and processing (Eysenck 1979, as quoted by Arnold and Brown 1999: 9). Debilitating anxiety has been proven to have a negative impact on performance (Dörnyei 2005: 198) and motivate the learner to “flee” the learning task at hand (Pavlenko 2005: 33). Futhermore, anxiety can distract the learner from the task and cause difficulty in remembering new items (Spolsky 1989: 113).

3.2.1 Foreign language anxiety

In general, *language anxiety* is a kind of a situation-specific anxiety that is related to learning a second language and communicating with it (Ellis 1994: 480). However, for the purposes of the present study it is in place to discuss an anxiety that is specifically related to foreign language learning situations, i.e. *foreign language anxiety.* MacIntyre and Gardner (1994: 284) have defined foreign language anxiety as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning”. In other words, it involves worry and negative emotional reaction when one is learning or using a second language (MacIntyre 1999, as quoted in Dörnyei 2005: 199). It is a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, affections and behaviors that are related to classroom language learning, and that emerge from the uniqueness of the language learning process (Horwitz et al. 1986: 128). Foreign language anxiety has been found to be relatively independent of other types of anxiety (Horwitz 2001: 114), perhaps due to the disparity between the language learners’ “true self” and the more restricted self they can present in the foreign language (Horwitz et al. 1986: 128). Thus, it is a unique variable closely related to second, and similarly also, foreign language learning (Dörnyei 2005: 199). In fact, it has been listed among the most significant factors that influence language learning in both formal and informal settings, i.e. in and outside the language classroom (Oxford 1999: 58).

Even though foreign language anxiety has been characterized as a unique manifestation of anxiety, it does share certain characteristics with other anxieties. Horwitz et al. (1986: 127) suggest that foreign language anxiety shares resemblance with three performance anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. People who experience *communication apprehension* typically have difficulty with

speaking in groups or in public, or with listening or learning a spoken message (Horwitz et al. 1986: 127). Often these difficulties are even greater in a foreign language classroom, where the learners have little control over the situation, and where they are constantly monitored. Feelings of self-consciousness, the fear of making mistakes, and the desire to speak perfectly have been found to be common characteristics with communication anxiety and foreign language anxiety (Foss and Reitzel 1988: 438). The fear of making mistakes may arise from a belief that in order to be worthy, one must be utterly competent and adequate in all aspects of life (Foss and Reitzel 1988: 446). *Text-anxiety*, on the other hand, refers to a type of performance anxiety that derives from a fear of failure (Horwitz et al. 1986: 127). Test-anxious students frequently put unrealistic demands on themselves and regard anything less of a perfect test performance as a failure. In a foreign language class the situation is particularly demanding, as tests and quizzes are a frequent feature of the learning experience. Similarly, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994: 284) have reported on high correlation between language anxiety and two indices of language achievement: course grades and standardized proficiency tests. Lastly, *the fear of negative evaluation* is defined as "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (Horwitz et al. 1986: 128). The concept is related to text anxiety, but it is not limited to test-taking situations and may thus occur in any social, evaluative situation, such as speaking in a foreign language class. In addition to being afraid of the evaluation of the only fluent speaker in the classroom, i.e. the teacher, students who experience fear of negative evaluation are often sensitive to the evaluations of their fellow peers.

3.2.2 Anxiety during classroom interactions

In order for learning to take place in a classroom, there must be constant interaction between the teacher and the students (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 18). It is crucial, however, that the nature of the interaction supports the learning goals of the students and helps in its part to create a supporting atmosphere in the classroom. As Young (1991: 427) clearly states, classroom procedures are a potential source of language anxiety. Oxford (1999: 65) goes even further by stating that "harsh error correction, ridicule and the uncomfortable handling of mistakes in front of a class are among the most important instructor-learner interaction issues related to language anxiety". Thus,

if the teacher does not choose the procedures used in the classroom with care and thought, they can cause anxiety among the students. For example, communication that involves personal aspects of one's being should always take place in an emotionally safe atmosphere in order to prevent anxiety-provoking situations from developing in the classroom (Arnold and Brown 1999: 9). Indeed, one of the challenges in second and foreign language teaching is to provide students with a learner-centered, low-anxiety classroom environment (Young 1991: 426).

In addition to the relationship between a teacher and the students, there is another important interaction aspect in the classroom: the interaction between a student and his / her peers. Dörnyei (2005: 85) lists the effect of the learner group as one of the main motivational influences for language learning. Young (Young 1990, as quoted by Horwitz 2001: 119) has discovered that American secondary language students rather take part in oral activities in small groups than in front of the entire class. She has also described several studies where students have reported feelings of anxiety about responding erroneously, or about sounding or looking "dumb" in front of the fellow students (Young 1991: 429). A similar statement has been presented by Arnold and Brown in relation to the possible sources of language anxiety:

> "It is not always clear how foreign language anxiety comes into being. For some people it may be a case of having been ridiculed for a wrong answer in class."
> (Arnold and Brown 1999: 9)

To sum up the present chapter's discussion on anxiety, some anxiety may be beneficial for learning as an energizing element, whereas excessive anxiety, on the other hand, may cause the learner to act with insufficient purpose and thus engage in the same, unproductive activity over and over again (Skehan 1989: 115). The problem is then, how much anxiety is too much? As Skehan (1989: 115) states, different people handle anxiety in different ways and thus there is no reliable way of knowing whether an individual will be able to handle the stress caused by anxiety in a favorable manner. Nevertheless, most language research demonstrates a negative relationship between anxiety and performance (Oxford 1999: 60), and the present study is premised on the same hypothesis.

3.3 Previous studies on anxiety and language learning

One of the earliest studies on anxiety was mentioned in an often-quoted and pioneering article by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). They report on a clinical experience carried out among foreign language students in university classes and at the Learning Skills Centre at the University of Texas. During this experience it was discovered that anxiety centers on two aspects of foreign language learning: speaking and listening. The students reported that they feel more confident when delivering speeches they had prepared in advance, but that they tend to become inhibited in role-play situations. In addition, test anxiety and over-studying were mentioned as common anxiety-related phenomena. Students' beliefs about language learning were reported as contributing to their tension and frustration in the classroom in the sense that several students believed that "nothing should be said in the foreign language until it can be said correctly and that it is not okay to guess an unknown foreign language word (Horwitz et al. 1986: 127). According to the researchers, such beliefs must produce anxiety.

In the same article, Horwitz et al. (1986) present their method for indentifying anxiety among foreign language learners, i.e. *The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale*. The results they received with pilot testing of the scale clearly demonstrate that there are several common characteristics that are shared by students experiencing debilitating anxiety in the language classroom (Horwitz et al. 1986: 129). They found out that students who test high on anxiety are afraid to speak in the foreign language, prone to experience panic when having to speak without preparation, and self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of their fellow students. For example, 10% of the respondents reported being afraid that other students would laugh at them. Another common feature discovered among the anxious students was the fear of making mistakes in the foreign language (Horwitz et al. 1986: 130). As a conclusion the researchers state that "significant foreign language anxiety is experienced by many students in response to at least some aspects of foreign language learning" (Horwitz et al. 1986: 130).

In one of their many studies on anxiety, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) developed 23 scales to assess language anxiety, social evaluation anxiety and language anxiety. They measured their participants' short-term memory and vocabulary production in the participants' L1 (English) and L2 (French). MacIntyre and Gardner's (1991) conclusion

was that language anxiety correlates significantly with both short term memory and vocabulary production in the French L2 tests. In addition, the L2 tasks proved to cause more anxiety than the L1 tasks. In the English tasks, the short term memory test was more anxiety-provoking than the vocabulary production test.

In the Finnish context there are relatively few studies on language or classroom anxiety and none of them have had their focus specifically on the relationship between errors and corrective feedback and anxiety. In 1997 Kyyrönen investigated anxiety among a group of Finnish 9th grade students with her focus on the teacher-student interactions and classroom activities. After collecting data from the participants with the help of six questionnaires and two group interviews, her conclusion was that the students experienced some anxiety both during teacher-student interactions and classroom activities. The most anxiety-provoking interaction among the respondents was teacher reviewing homework, whereas presenting in front of the class and reading aloud were the most anxiety-arousing activities (Kyyrönen 1997: 74). In addition, she concluded that avoiding using English and being quiet were not likely signs of anxiety in her study.

4 THE PRESENT STUDY

The following sections will first discuss the aims of the present study in relation to the relevant previous research (see sections 2.3 and 3.3), after which the research questions of the present study will be introduced. Next, the design and the administration of the research questionnaire will be described before moving on to discussing the data and the methods.

4.1 Aims and research questions

As the sections on relevant previous research presented earlier have clearly indicated, there is a vast amount of research concerning foreign language anxiety as well as errors and corrective feedback in language learning. What has not yet been studied widely enough, however, is what kind of a mutual relationship these three important aspects have. As mentioned earlier, foreign language anxiety can be debilitating and it can have a negative effect on, if not prevent, language learning. In order for the teachers to be able to create a low-anxiety classroom, they must first be aware of what triggers anxiety in the learners. It is hoped that the findings of the present study will give teachers more valuable information on how learners' oral errors and teachers' corrective feedback affect learners' anxiety levels, which will in turn help teachers in their fight against anxiety in the language classroom. Furthermore, it is especially important to concentrate on the learners' personal opinions, thoughts and affections on errors and corrective feedback, as these issues unquestionably affect their language learning process. If learners, for example, self feel that corrective feedback is useful, there can hardly be reason to deny it from them.

The research problems of the present study are related to the three aforementioned main themes: errors, corrective feedback and foreign language anxiety. Firstly, the respondents' oral errors are investigated in terms how frequent they regard different error types to be in their speech and what type of errors they find most embarrassing. In addition, the respondents' general attitudes towards errors and their usefulness in language learning are examined. Secondly, the participants' opinions on teacher's corrective feedback are inspected in order to find out whether or not they prefer corrective feedback after their errors. Different corrective feedback strategies are

addressed separately in order to find out which of them are most popular among the respondents and to investigate whether certain strategies are more likely to create anxiety in the learners than others. Lastly, the focus is on finding out whether the respondents experience anxiety in the classroom due to their oral errors. Their error-related anxiety levels during different teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interactions will be examined in order to find out which types of interaction are the most anxiety-provoking. Hence, the research questions of the present study are as following:

1) In the respondents' speech, what is the relationship between grammatical, pronunciation, lexical and pragmatic errors in terms of their frequency and how embarrassing the respondents find them?
2) What are the respondents' attitudes towards errors in their own speech and in language learning?
3) What are the respondents' opinions on teacher's corrective feedback?
4) Which corrective feedback strategies do the respondents prefer and are certain strategies more anxiety-provoking than others?
5) Do the respondents experience anxiety about making oral errors during their English lessons?
6) Does the nature of the interactive situation, i.e. teacher-pupil or pupil-pupil interaction, have an effect on the respondents' error-related anxiety?

4.2 Design of the research questionnaire

A questionnaire was chosen as the research instrument in the present study for various reasons. As Dörnyei (2007: 101) writes, questionnaires are nowadays extremely popular within social sciences, as they are versatile and make it possible to collect a large amount of data in a relatively small amount of time. Indeed, as the number of respondents in the present study is 100 pupils, questionnaire was by far the most suitable method to gather information from them. In addition, as the topic of the study has to do with personal matters, such as classroom anxiety, it was concluded that more honest and personal answers could be elicited with the help of a nameless questionnaire which the respondents could fill in without revealing their identity. Additionally, using a fully anonymous questionnaire was seen as the only option, since the administrator

has previously taught in both the schools the data was collected from and thus using an open interview might have lead to biased answers from the behalf of the pupils. With a nameless questionnaire, however, interviewer effects, such as the characteristics and the familiarity of the interviewer (in Bryman 2004: 133) were avoided. Finally, the participants' answers to the questionnaire could be analyzed quantitatively with the help of a computer software, which would guarantee the reliability of the findings (for more detailed discussion of the data analysis, see section 4.3).

The questionnaire used in the present study (see Appendix 1) was designed to gather information from the respondents in three different categories introduced by Dörnyei (2007:102). The first part of the questionnaire consists of basic *factual questions* about the respondents' age, gender, previous achievement, language use outside the school context, and self-assessment of their language skills (questions 1.1 – 1.7). Designing suitable and well-formed factual questions that highlight the differences between the respondents makes it possible to draw interesting conclusions when interpreting the results of the questionnaire. Similarly to some previous studies (see for example Dekeyser 1993), the present study was interested in examining whether the respondents' gender, previous achievement in English studies and language use affect their experiences on errors, corrective feedback and foreign language anxiety. The second type of questions is *behavioral questions* that were designed to get information about the respondents' actual behavior in the classroom. An example of a behavioral question in the present study could be, for example, question number 2.4: "How often do you raise your hand in order to answer a teacher's question during one English lesson?" Thirdly, there are *attitudinal questions* which entail questions related to the respondents' opinions, beliefs and attitudes, for example, towards making errors in the classroom, or towards the corrective feedback received from the teacher. In the present questionnaire, question 2.22 about the usefulness of errors is a good example of an attitudinal question. In the present study attitudinal question*s* are often paired with behavioral ones in order to get more elaborate information about a given topic.

All the questions were carefully designed in such a manner that the language in the questions is clear and understandable for a 9th grader who perhaps does not have much experience in answering questionnaires. The respondents may also lack knowledge of specific linguistic terminology, which is why it was systematically avoided and used only when necessary. In questions where such jargon was needed, for example

questions 2.1 – 2.3 with specific terms for different error types, understandable, standard language explanations were given for the terms in order to ensure that everyone was able to answer to questions regardless of their previous knowledge on linguistics. The key issue in the design was to make sure that there was no room for misunderstanding or misinterpreting the questions, as that could severely affect the reliability of the data. Both closed and open questions were used in order to make sure that both quantitative and qualitative methods could be used in the process of analyzing the results. In addition, both question types appear in the questionnaire rather evenly, in order to keep the content logical and to prevent the *fatigue effect*, i.e. the respondent getting bored with monotonous questions (Dörnyei 2010: 9), which is a possible scenario considering the age of the respondents.

The scale chosen for the majority of the closed questions was a 5-point scale where the respondents were to choose between the options *always, often, occasionally, rarely* and *never*. This scale was chosen, as it in addition to making it possible to draw conclusions about the pupils' attitudes, also gives information about what actually goes on in the language classroom, as it measures the frequencies of the investigated phenomena. According to Dörnyei (2007: 194), using multi-scale items has been found to be a reliable practice in questionnaires, as it "maximizes the stable component that the items share and reduce the extraneous influences unique to the individual items".

4.3 Data collection and analysis

The data collection was carried out in May 2012 in two secondary schools in southern Finland. In addition to getting an official permission for carrying out the study from the town's school authorities as well as the headmasters of the schools, a written authorization was needed from every participant's parent or guardian, as the pupils were under-aged (for the parental consent form, see Appendix 2). In order to make sure that the amount of data would be as high as possible, the respondents filled in the questionnaire in the presence of the administrator, so that the returning of the questionnaire was not left for the responsibility of the respondents or their teachers. It was highlighted at the beginning of the questionnaire, both in writing and vocally, that the participants were to answer the questions as thoroughly and truthfully as possible, and that all their answers would be handled anonymously and confidentially.

Furthermore, it was emphasized that there were no right or wrong answers and that they were only asked to report on their own experiences and opinions as honestly as possible.

As the data from the open questions in the questionnaire was numeric, a quantitative method was used in its analysis. As Dörnyei (2007: 34) states, the data from quantitative research is reliable and can be generalized to other contexts. This is important, as it is hoped that the findings of the present study would provide a wider picture of Finnish EFL learners' attitudes towards errors and corrective feedback, as well as their experiences on error-related anxiety. When analyzing the data, the respondents' answers were first transformed into numeric data and tabulated, after which the SPSS program was used in order to analyze the data in comparison with the background variables, and to draw attention to any findings that were significant for the purposes of the present study. First, a reliability analysis was carried out in order to examine the general reliability of the questionnaire. Cronbach's Alfa was chosen as the examination method, as it is one of most commonly used measures of reliability (Metsämuuronen 2000: 33). The reliability was calculated from all the closed questions with a numeric scale. In order for the questionnaire to be reliable, the Cronbach's Alfa should be a minimum of 0,60 (Metsämuuronen 2000: 36). As can be seen in Table 1, it is approximately 0,85 in the present study, which proves that the data is reliable and that the questionnaire truly measures what it was designed to investigate.

Table 1 Demonstrating the reliability of the data with the help of Cronbach's Alfa

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,845	18

Furthermore, all open questions were analyzed both quantitatively, by finding and calculating similarities in them, and qualitatively by inspecting the respondents as individuals who have learning stories of their own. By converting qualitative data into numerical codes it is possible to bring into light certain salient themes in the respondents' answers to the open question (Dörnyei 2007: 270). Using only quantitative methods generally does not do justice to the subjective varieties of the individuals (Dörnyei 2007: 35), and thus the combination of both quantitative and qualitative

analysis would provide the most comprehensive picture of the studied phenomena also in the present study.

4.4 Participants

The 100 participants of the present study come from two upper elementary schools in a relatively large community in southern Finland. They represent 10 different classes taught by five different teachers, three in one school and two in the other. The amount of male (N=43) and female (N=57) participants is relatively similar and makes it possible to reliably compare the answers between the sexes. The average age of the respondents is 15 and most of them have studied English since the third grade. The participants' latest English school grades range from 6 to 10, and the average grade is 7,89. The wide range of the previous grades allows for comparisons between pupils with stronger English skills and pupils with weaker English skills.

9th graders were chosen as the respondents in the present study for two main reasons. One, they are old enough to analyze and describe their own opinions and affections in a manner suitable for the present study. Secondly, they are at the final stages of their elementary school career and thus represent the entire diverse body of Finnish language learners, which would not be the case, if one studied, for example, upper secondary school or vocational school students.

5 FINDINGS

The aim of the following sections is to introduce the findings of the present study that were discovered through a careful analysis of the data. Firstly, the respondents' opinions about the frequency and embarrassment of different error types and their general attitude towards errors will be presented. Next, the participants' perceptions on teacher's corrective feedback and the different error correction strategies will be examined. Lastly, findings related to the error-related anxiety the respondents experience in the classroom will be introduced and discussed in terms of different interactional situations, as well as the sources and manifestations of language anxiety. As the main themes of the study, errors, corrective feedback and anxiety, are strongly intertwined, it is not possible to discuss them separately, but the content is kept logical by presenting the findings one research question at a time. A number of charts have been included in the sections in order for the results to be accessed and interpreted in an easy manner. As the purpose of the present chapter is to simply introduce the findings, a more detailed analysis and discussion of the findings, along with comparisons to previous research, can be found in chapter 6.

Before moving on to presenting and discussing the findings, however, it is in place to explain some of the principles behind the data analysis. Firstly, in order to be able to discuss errors and corrective feedback in terms of the anxious and not anxious respondents, an "anxiety value" was calculated for each respondent with the help of the SPSS program. The method was to sum the respondent's answers on questions that directly handled anxiety, i.e. questions 2.9-2.12 and 2.15-2.18, where the more frequently the respondent experiences anxiety, the bigger value he / she would choose. Based on the average anxiety value (15,071) that was calculated from all respondents' anxiety values, it was thus possible to arrange the respondents into two groups: 1) anxious respondents (anxiety value over the average) and 2) not anxious pupils (anxiety value less than the average). When the findings of the data are presented and interpreted in the present chapter, these anxiety values will be used to classify the respondents as anxious or not anxious.

5.1 Different error types

One of the research questions in the present study was to investigate different error types in terms of how frequent they are in the respondents' speech, as well as how embarrassing the respondents find them. This section will present and discuss the respondents' perceptions on both matters, focusing first on issues of frequency, and then of embarrassment.

5.1.1 Frequency

One of the research questions in the present study was to investigate how common different errors (i.e. grammatical, lexical, pronunciation and pragmatic) are in the 9th graders' speech. As the focus of the entire study is on the learners' perceptions of their own language use, they were asked to personally evaluate the frequency of their own and their peers' errors in the classroom in questions 1 and 2. The respondents were asked to mark the frequency of each error by using a scale from one to four (1 = most common, 4 = least common). The opinions of 95 respondents could be included in the analysis of questions 1 and 2, as five respondents had used the same number more than once, which means that their answers had to be excluded from the analysis.

First, each respondent's answers were analyzed as they were in order to find out exactly which error he / she considered to be the most frequent, the second most frequent etc. Then the answers were transformed into "frequency points" by reversing them (4 = most common, 1 = least common) and each error type's total "frequency points" were calculated from the respondents' answers. This was done in order to get an overall picture of the frequencies, as it might be that even though a certain error was regarded most frequent most often, some other error might receive more points when taking into consideration all rankings. Finally, a comprehensible and easy-to-interpret "reference value" was calculated for each error type by dividing the error's total "frequency points" with the maximum "frequency points" for a category, i.e. 380 (4 x 95). To clarify, had all respondents regarded grammatical errors as most frequent, the calculation would have been 4 x 95 / 380 = 1. By comparing the reference values, where a maximum is one, it is easy to understand exactly how frequent a certain error is in the respondents' or their peers' speech.

In terms of the respondents' own errors, grammatical errors were regarded most common most often (*n*=36). Pragmatic errors were ranked most frequent by 24 respondents. Pronunciation errors were considered most common by nearly as many, (*n*=21), whereas only 14 respondents marked lexical errors as most frequent in their own speech. However, when considering the total reference value for each error, one can notice differences in the overall rankings (see Figure 1). In terms of the total reference value, grammatical errors were still most frequent, but the second most frequent were pronunciation errors, third most frequent lexical errors and fourth most frequent pragmatic errors.

Results for the respondents' evaluations about the frequency of their peers' errors are relatively similar in comparison to the evaluations about their own errors in terms of their reference values (see Figure 1). Again, grammatical errors were ranked as most common, pronunciation errors as second most common, lexical errors as third most common and pragmatic errors as fourth most common. When comparing the results in terms of how often an error was ranked as most frequent, certain differences do occur. Grammatical errors were again regarded the most frequent error type most often (39 respondents), whereas pragmatic errors, which were evaluated as most frequent in their own speech by 24 respondents, were ranked as most frequent in their peers' speech by only 12 respondents. In this category, pronunciation errors were ranked as most frequent by 24 respondents, which is fairly similar to the respondents' evaluations of their own speech. Lexical errors were considered to be the most common in their peers' speech by 12 respondents.

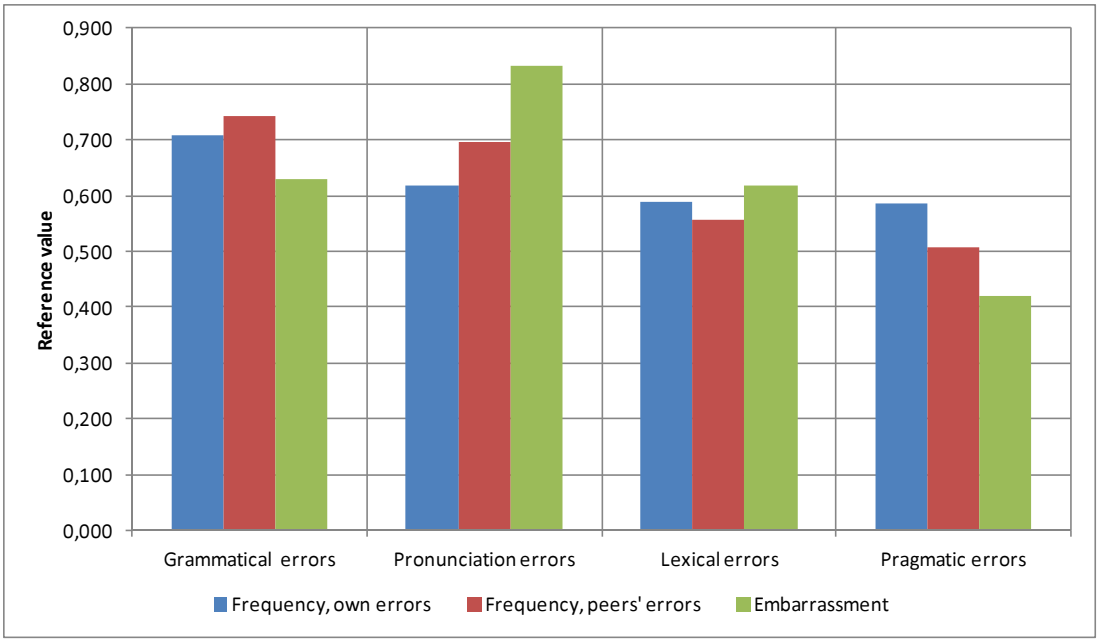

Figure 1 Total reference values of different error types in terms of their frequency and embarrassment

5.1.2 Embarrassment

In question 2.3 the respondents were again asked to rank the different errors on a scale from one to four but this time in relation to how embarrassing they find them (1 = most embarrassing, 4 = least embarrassing). Again, 95 respondents could be included in the analysis, as five respondents had used some of the number more than once in their rankings, thus making their answers impossible to interpret. Similarly to questions 2.1 and 2.2, the answers to question 2.3 were first analyzed as they were, and then transformed into "embarrassment points" in order to calculate their total "reference value" (see Figure 1). In this question, the total reference value was highest for pronunciation errors which were also classified as most embarrassing most often (n=55). Thus, it is clear that the respondents find it to be the most embarrassing error type.

The pupils' concern about pronunciation errors could also be seen in many of their answers to the open questions, where pronunciation was mentioned notably often, when, for example, explaining what it is about making errors that causes anxiety, or why corrective feedback is useful. As an example, in question 8 where the respondents were asked to reminisce their school time and describe any situation that had been particularly funny, embarrassing or unforgettable in some other way, almost one in ten

(9%) respondents described a situation that was somehow related to how words are pronounced in English. This provides further proof that pronunciation is a particularly sensitive aspect in the English language for 9th graders. Grammatical errors and lexical errors were considered to be most embarrassing almost equally as often, (*n*=17 and *n*=15, respectively), whereas pragmatic errors were regarded most embarrassing by only 8 respondents. The total reference values show that, as mentioned, pronunciation errors received, without a question, most reference points, followed by grammatical and lexical errors, whereas pragmatic errors were over-all considered to cause relatively little embarrassment.

5.2 Respondents' attitudes towards errors

Based on the respondents' answers on question 2.22 where they were asked to either agree or disagree with the statement "I believe I can benefit from the errors I make when speaking English", it is evident that they find oral errors useful. In total, 98% of all respondents agreed with the statement which is the considerable majority. The two pupils who disagreed with the statement were girls, had either a 6 or a 7 as their previous English grade, and one of them was categorized as anxious and the other one as not anxious. Furthermore, one of the pupils who mentioned that she does not find oral errors useful contradicted her statement in question 2.23 by saying that the usefulness of errors is situation-dependent. Hence, the conclusion is that the 9th graders feel that they can learn something from their errors regardless of which gender they represent, which grade they have, or whether they are anxious or not anxious.

In order to get a deeper understanding about the usefulness of errors, questions 2.23a) and 2.23b) were designed to elicit more information as to a) how exactly errors can be beneficial, or b) why errors are not beneficial. In question 23a) 20 respondents explicitly stated that one learns from errors and thus does not make them again. Another 20 respondents mentioned that they remember the situation where they made the error which makes it easier to remember the correct form the next time. In addition, 14 pupils felt that the teacher's corrections help them to learn. One of the respondents went as far as to state that one cannot learn for example grammar without making errors. Interestingly, another pupil reported that she might in fact remember the correct form better after making an error, but that she still does not want to make errors, as she finds

them embarrassing. When considering the one respondent who in question 2.22 did not believe that errors are useful in language learning, it seems that her negative attitude towards errors is in fact related to the actions of her teacher rather than the errors she makes, as illustrated by extract (1):

> ”Ei kiinnosta opiskella englantia, parempi opettaja voisi kannustaa ja osaisi opettaa edes vähän!”
>
> “I’m not interested in studying English, a better teacher might encourage [me] and would at least know how to teach!”

In general, the respondents seemed to have a very positive attitude towards errors in terms of their usefulness and significance for learning, as can be seen in extract (2):

> ”Virheet auttavat oppimaan sen, että ei se haittaa ja sen, että ei ehkä tee samaa virhettä enään uudestaan.”
>
> “Errors help you learn that they don’t matter and that you don’t necessarily make the same error again.”

The respondent quoted in extract (2) was not the only one to explicitly state that it is quite okay to make errors. In fact, 38 pupils explicitly stated at some point during the questionnaire that making errors is absolutely acceptable and that they are a natural part of the language learning process. Many of them explained that everyone makes errors and that no one is perfect, not even the teacher, as illustrated by extract (3):

> ”Ollaan kaikki ihmisiä, eikä kukaan välty virheiltä, edes opettaja”
>
> “We are all humans and no one can avoid errors, not even the teacher.”

5.3 Corrective feedback and error correction strategies

The pupils’ opinions on corrective feedback and error correction strategies were targeted in questions 24-33. The scale that was used in the closed questions was from one to five (1 = always, 2 = often, 3 = occasionally, 4 = rarely, 5 = never). The following chapters will first discuss the participants’ opinions on corrective feedback in

general in terms of its frequency and usefulness, after which the focus will be on the respondents' attitudes towards different error correction strategies.

5.3.1 Frequency and usefulness of corrective feedback

In question 2.24 the respondents were asked to evaluate how often they wish for the teacher to intervene in their oral errors. In terms of all pupils' answers, the options *always* (29 respondents), *often* (27 respondents) and *occasionally* (29 respondents) were clearly the most preferred, since *rarely* was chosen by as few as 12 respondents and *never* by only 3 respondents. Thus, more than half (56%) of the participants want the teacher to provide them with corrective feedback *always* or *often*. When inspecting the matter in terms of the respondents' gender, it can be seen that *always* and *never* were answered by the girls more often than the boys, but that *often, occasionally and rarely* were more popular answers among was the boys (see Table 2).

Table 2 Statistics on how often the respondents wish for their teacher to intervene in their error

		2.24 If you make an error in class, do you want the teacher to intervene in your error?				
		Always	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	23,3%	27,9%	32,6%	14,0%	2,3%
	Female	33,3%	26,3%	26,3%	10,5%	3,5%
1.4 Latest grade	6	6,2%	25,0%	37,5%	25,0%	6,2%
	7	25,0%	35,0%	25,0%	10,0%	5,0%
	8	44,0%	20,0%	24,0%	8,0%	4,0%
	9	25,8%	32,3%	35,5%	6,5%	0,0%
	10	80,0%	20,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%
Anxiety classification	Anxious	23,7%	23,7%	36,8%	10,5%	5,3%
	Not anxious	31,7%	30,0%	25,0%	11,7%	1,7%

When considering whether the pupils' previous achievement in English has an effect on their attitudes towards corrective feedback, certain interesting differences occurred. As can be seen in Table 2, 80% of the pupils whose latest English grade was 10 want the teacher to intervene in their errors *always*. This opinion is shared by notably fewer of the pupils whose latest grade is lower (grade 9 = 25,8%, grade 8 = 44,0%, grade 7 = 25,0% and grade 6 = 6,2%). Furthermore, *rarely* and *never* were answered by 31,2% of the pupils with the latest grade of 6, whereas those options were chosen considerably less by pupils with other higher grades (7 = 15,0%, 8 = 12,0%, 9 = 6,5% and 10 = 0,0%). Thus, the respondents whose latest English grade is 6 have want the teacher to give them corrective feedback notably less often than pupils with higher grades. Thus, it

seems that the pupils' previous achievement in their English studies affects their opinion on the frequency of corrective feedback in the sense that pupils with lower English skills want the teacher to correct their oral errors less than pupils with higher English skills.

A third aspect in which question 2.24 was further analyzed is the anxiety value of the respondents'. As can be seen in Table 2, 61,7% of the not anxious pupils prefer corrective feedback *always* or *often* (31,7% and 30,0%, respectively), whereas those options were chosen less (23,7% and 23,7%, respectively) by the anxious pupils. Similarly, 15,8% of the anxious pupils stated that they want the teacher to intervene in their errors *never* or *rarely,* whereas the same options were chosen by 13,4% of the not anxious respondents. Thus, the anxiety the pupils experience seems to influence their attitudes towards corrective feedback in the sense that the more anxious pupils want less corrective feedback from the teachers.

The findings about the pupils' preferences on the frequency of corrective feedback can be further supported by investigating their answers on question 2.31, where they were asked to evaluate on a scale from one to five (1 = always, 2 = often, 3 = occasionally, 4 = rarely, 5 = never) how often they find the teacher's corrective feedback useful. Of all the respondents, 29% find teacher's corrective feedback useful *always*, 51% *often,* 18% *occasionally,* and only 2% *rarely.* As can be seen in Table 3, pupils with grade 8 or 10 have answered that the teacher's corrective feedback benefits them *always* more often than pupils with other grades. In the light of this finding it is natural that they also want the teacher's corrective feedback more often than pupils with other grades, as was demonstrated in question 2.24. In question 2.31 *often* was the most popular answer among pupils with grade 7, 8, 9 and 10, whereas options *often* and *occasionally* were equally as popular among the pupils with grade 6. Furthermore, *occasionally* was clearly a more frequent option among the pupils with grade 6 than among the pupils with any other grade. Thus, the finding about the weakest pupils wanting less corrective feedback than the stronger pupils is further reinforced by the fact that the pupils with grade 6 find the teacher's corrective feedback useful less often than pupils with other grades.

Table 3 Pupils' evaluations about the usefulness of corrective feedback.

		2.31 Imagine that you've spoken English in class and made an error. The teacher intervenes in the error. Do you feel that the teacher's actions will benefit you?				
		Always	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	30,2%	55,8%	9,3%	4,7%	0,0%
	Female	28,1%	47,4%	24,6%	0,0%	0,0%
1.4 Latest grade	6	25,0%	37,5%	37,5%	0,0%	0,0%
	7	35,0%	45,0%	15,0%	5,0%	0,0%
	8	36,0%	40,0%	24,0%	0,0%	0,0%
	9	22,6%	67,7%	9,7%	0,0%	0,0%
	10	40,0%	60,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%
Anxiety classification	Anxious	31,6%	42,1%	23,7%	2,6%	0,0%
	Not anxious	28,3%	55,0%	15,0%	1,7%	0,0%

The respondents' answers on the open question 2.30 revealed in more detail the reasons they have for wanting or not wanting the teacher's corrective feedback. 59 respondents simply stated that the teacher's corrective feedback helps them to learn and avoid the same error in the future. Furthermore, six pupils mentioned that it is difficult, if not impossible, to learn without corrective feedback. The negative attitudes that some of the respondents had towards corrective feedback were often related their preference for self-correction. Altogether six pupils stated that they rather correct, or at least try to correct, the error themselves, as illustrated by extract (4):

> "Olen itsenäinen opiskelija ja haluan ensin yrittää pärjätä itse."

> "I am an independent student and I want to try to manage on my own first."

Five pupils stated that they do not want corrective feedback from the teacher due to the negative aspects and anxiety related to the teacher's corrections. Attributes such as "humiliation", "embarrassment" and "shame" were associated with corrective feedback by these five pupils.

5.3.2 Different corrective feedback strategies

Different corrective feedback strategies that were presented by Lyster and Ranta (1997) (see section 2.2.1) were the object of study in questions 2.25-2.29. The apparent limitations in the respondents' capability to analyze and separate the different strategies from each other had to be taken into consideration when designing the questions, which

is why it was not possible to separately address all the different strategies. The strategies that were included in the questionnaire were *explicit feedback*, *metalinguistic feedback* and *elicitation*.

Questions 2.25 and 2.27 were designed to determine whether the respondents prefer explicit feedback on their errors. In question 2.25 they were asked whether they want their teacher to clearly state where they have made an error. Nearly two thirds of both boys and girls (62,8% and 57,9%, respectively) are inclined towards the teacher telling them where their error is either *always* or *often* (see Table 4). The boys' opinions about the teacher pointing out their error explicitly seem to be slightly more negative than the girls' but the differences are not particularly meaningful. However, noticeable differences can be found between the answers of pupils with different grades and pupils with different levels of anxiety.

Table 4 Statistics on whether the respondents' want the teacher to explicitly identify their errors

		2.25 If you make an error in class when speaking English, do you want the teacher to clearly say where you made the error?				
		Always	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	25,6%	37,2%	20,9%	9,3%	7,0%
	Female	35,1%	22,8%	19,3%	19,3%	3,5%
1.4 Latest grade	6	12,5%	12,5%	43,8%	25,0%	6,2%
	7	20,0%	40,0%	20,0%	15,0%	5,0%
	8	36,0%	32,0%	20,0%	8,0%	4,0%
	9	32,3%	35,5%	12,9%	19,4%	0,0%
	10	100,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%
AnxVal	Anxious	15,9%	36,4%	20,5%	20,5%	6,8%
	Not anxious	43,4%	24,5%	17,0%	11,3%	3,8%

It can be seen in the respondents' answers that those who are have a lower proficiency in English, i.e. have 6 as their grade, are significantly more negative towards the teacher explicitly identifying their error than respondents who have a higher proficiency and have a grade of 8 or 10. Nearly a third (31,2%) of the pupils with grade 6 answered question 2.25 with *rarely* or *never*, whereas those options were chosen by only 12% of the pupils with grade 8 and none by the pupils with grade 10. Interestingly, pupils with grade 9 seem to be less inclined towards the teacher pinpointing their errors than pupils with grade 8. Thus, it cannot be said that the inclination towards explicit identification of errors goes hand in hand with the pupil's grade, but the very weakest and very strongest pupils clearly have different preferences. As far as the anxiety levels of the respondents are concerned, options *often*, *occasionally*, *rarely* and *never* are more popular among the more anxious pupils, whereas *always* is the most popular answer

among the not anxious pupils. The majority of the anxious pupils does prefer explicit indication of their errors *often*, and thus one cannot state that they would find it somehow unpleasing, but clearly there are more anxious pupils who are against it. This could be seen to indicate that explicit identification of errors causes anxiety in the respondents.

Similarly to question 2.25, question 2.27 handled the explicit aspects of corrective feedback, but this time in the form of *explicit correction.* In explicit correction the teacher does not simply say where the pupil has made an error, but in addition provides the correct form himself/herself without including the pupil in the correction. As can be seen when comparing the respondents' answers to question 2.25 (see Table 4) and question 2.27 (see Table 5), explicit correction is even more popular than explicit identification of the error among all other reference groups but pupils with grade 10. Whereas all of the pupils with grade 10 wanted the teacher to explicitly identify their error, only 20% of them want to teacher to also explicitly correct it. Furthermore, more than one in ten of the pupils with grade 9 wanted the teacher to use explicit correction *rarely,* which could indicate that the stronger pupils are more inclined towards correcting their errors themselves. When investigating the matter in terms of the respondents' anxiety, over a half (56,6%) of the not anxious pupils want the teacher to *always* correct them explicitly, whereas only circa one in three (31,8%) of the anxious pupils had answered similarly. Thus, it would seem that similarly to explicit identification of errors, explicit correction is more popular among the less anxious pupils.

Table 5 Respondents' perceptions on explicit error correction

		2.27 If you make an error in class when speaking English, do you want the teacher to directly state what the right form / word would have been?				
		Always	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	41,9%	23,3%	27,9%	7,0%	0,0%
	Female	47,4%	29,8%	14,0%	7,0%	1,8%
1.4 Latest grade	6	25,0%	50,0%	18,8%	6,2%	0,0%
	7	45,0%	30,0%	20,0%	0,0%	5,0%
	8	52,0%	12,0%	28,0%	8,0%	0,0%
	9	54,8%	25,8%	6,5%	12,9%	0,0%
	10	20,0%	40,0%	40,0%	0,0%	0,0%
AnxVal	Anxious	31,8%	40,9%	15,9%	9,1%	2,3%
	Not anxious	56,6%	17,0%	20,8%	5,7%	0,0%

Another error correction strategy that was investigated with the help of the respondents' answers is *metalinguistic feedback.* According to the respondents' answers to question 2.28, more than nine out of ten of both boys and girls (95,4% and 94,6% respectively) want the teacher to help them correct their errors *always, often* or *occasionally* (see Table 6). Thus, a clear positive attitude towards metalinguistic feedback can be seen in the respondents' answers. Among pupils with grade 6, 9 or 10 *often* was the most popular option and among pupils with grade 7 or 8 the most popular answer was *always*. Similarly to *explicit correction*, it would seem that pupils with the weakest language skills and pupils with the strongest language skills want the teacher's help with error correction less than pupils with intermediate language skills. 7,0% of the anxious respondents prefer metalinguistic feedback *rarely* or *never*, whereas the same percentage for the not anxious pupils is 3,8%. Similarly, 41,5% of the not anxious pupils want metalinguistic feedback *always*, whereas that options was chosen by 25,6% of the anxious pupils. Thus, metalinguistic feedback can be said to be more popular among not anxious than among anxious pupils.

Table 6 Respondents' perceptions on metalinguistic feedback

		2.28 If you make an error in class when speaking English, do you want the teacher to help you correct the error?				
		Always	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	34,9%	32,6%	27,9%	4,7%	0,0%
	Female	32,1%	35,7%	26,8%	5,4%	0,0%
1.4 Latest grade	6	13,3%	40,0%	33,3%	13,3%	0,0%
	7	45,0%	25,0%	30,0%	0,0%	0,0%
	8	52,0%	16,0%	20,0%	12,0%	0,0%
	9	22,6%	51,6%	25,8%	0,0%	0,0%
	10	20,0%	60,0%	20,0%	0,0%	0,0%
AnxVal	Anxious	25,6%	32,6%	34,9%	7,0%	0,0%
	Not anxious	41,5%	35,8%	18,9%	3,8%	0,0%

The error correction strategy that received the least support from the respondents was *elicitation* (see Table 7). Circa a third of both boys and girls *rarely* want the teacher to ask them additional questions related to their error (34,9% and 33,9% respectively). In addition, n*ever* and *occasionally* were popular answers among both sexes. 43,8% of pupils whose latest grade is 6 want elicitation to be used *never*, whereas the largest number of pupils with grade 7, 8 or 9 feel that elicitation should be used *rarely.* Of the pupils with grade 10, 40,0% want elicitation *occasionally.* Thus, it seems that pupils with higher English skills tend to be more I favor of elicitation than pupils with lower English skills. It is not possible, however, to draw clear-cut conclusions about the

pupils' attitude towards elicitation in relation to their previous achievement, as their opinions seem to vary a great deal even among the same grade group. Similarly to the other error correction strategies, not anxious pupils showed a more favorable attitude towards elicitation, but the differences do not seem to be as noticeable as with the other corrective feedback types. The respondents' generally negative attitudes towards elicitation are well illustrated by extract (5):

> ”Joskus haluaa itse vielä miettiä vastausta ja lisäkysymykset vain ahdistavat kun on valmistautunut vain yhteen kysymykseen.”

> “Sometimes one wants to think about the answer more and additional questions only cause anxiety when one is prepared for one question only.”

Table 7 Respondents' opinions on elicitation

		2.26 If you make an error in class when speaking English, do you want the teacher to ask you questions related to the error?				
		Always	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	4,7%	9,3%	23,3%	34,9%	27,9%
	Female	3,6%	5,4%	26,8%	33,9%	30,4%
1.4 Latest grade	6	0,0%	6,2%	18,8%	31,2%	43,8%
	7	5,0%	15,0%	20,0%	35,0%	25,0%
	8	4,0%	0,0%	24,0%	40,0%	32,0%
	9	3,3%	6,7%	33,3%	36,7%	20,0%
	10	0,0%	20,0%	40,0%	20,0%	20,0%
AnxVal	Anxious	2,3%	9,1%	18,2%	34,1%	36,4%
	Not anxious	5,7%	5,7%	30,2%	35,8%	22,6%

Question 2.29 targeted the pupils' opinions on *self-correction*. As can be seen in Table 8, *often* and *occasionally* are most popular answers among both boys and girls. Only 7% of the boys and 15,8% of the girls prefer self-correction *rarely* or *never*. When inspecting the answers in relation to how the pupils' English skills affect their perception on self-correction, pupils with the grade 10 are most inclined towards correcting their own errors. It seems that the stronger the pupil's skills, the more they prefer self-correction. In terms of the respondents' anxiety values, not anxious pupils are more strongly in favor of self-correction than anxious pupils.

Table 8 Respondents' perception on self-correction

		2.29 If you make an error in class when speaking English, do you want to try to correct the error YOURSELF?				
		Always	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	18,6%	41,9%	32,6%	2,3%	4,7%
	Female	21,1%	31,6%	31,6%	12,3%	3,5%
1.4 Latest grade	6	0,0%	25,0%	56,2%	12,5%	6,2%
	7	15,0%	30,0%	40,0%	10,0%	5,0%
	8	16,0%	40,0%	28,0%	8,0%	8,0%
	9	25,8%	41,9%	25,8%	6,5%	0,0%
	10	60,0%	40,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%
AnxVal	Anxious	18,2%	27,3%	36,4%	13,6%	4,5%
	Not anxious	22,6%	43,4%	26,4%	3,8%	3,8%

5.4 Respondents' experiences on anxiety in general

One of the aims of the present study is to investigate the relationship between foreign language anxiety and oral errors. Before presenting the findings related to that relationship, some other, more general perceptions on the respondents' foreign language anxiety are presented, as they provide interesting and important insights to the matter of language anxiety.

When investigating the respondents' anxiety values by using the pupils' gender, grade and language use in the free time as background variables, it was possible to see if these variables have an effect on the general anxiety levels of the respondents. As can be seen in Table 9, the vast majority (78,6%) of the boys in the present study are not anxious respondents, whereas the small majority of the girls on the other hand are anxious. This seems to indicate that girls in general experience more anxiety in the language classroom. The respondents' English skills also have an effect on how much anxiety they experience. As seen in Table 9, the pupils with weaker skills in English, i.e. whose latest English grade is 6, are more likely to be anxious than pupils with other grades. Interestingly, pupils whose latest grade is 10 are the second most likely group to experience anxiety during their English classes.

Table 9 Distribution between anxious and not anxious pupils in terms of their gender and grade

		Anxiety classification	
		Anxious	Not anxious
		Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	21,4%	78,6%
	Female	51,8%	48,2%
1.4 Latest grade	6	68,8%	31,2%
	7	35,0%	65,0%
	8	29,2%	70,8%
	9	33,3%	66,7%
	10	40,0%	60,0%

Lastly, the comparisons between the pupils' language use in their free time seem to indicate that the more the pupils use written English in their free time, the less likely they are to experience anxiety during their language classes (see Table 10). Based on their anxiety values, the majority of the pupils who use written English in their free time 1-3 times of month or more often fall into the category of not anxious pupils (1-3 times a month = 55,0%, 1-3 times a week = 57,1%, daily = 82,1%). On the contrary, the majority of the pupils who use written English in their free time less often than once a month (52,9%) or never (66,7%) fall into the category of anxious pupils. The results are not as coherent and conclusive in terms of the pupils' spoken language use, but it can be stated that the more the pupils use spoken English in their free time, the less anxiety they are likely to experience in their English classes.

Table 10 The effects of written and spoken language use in free time on the respondents' anxiety levels.

		Anxiety classification	
		Anxious	Not anxious
		Row N %	Row N %
1.5 Written language use in freetime	Daily	17,9%	82,1%
	1-3 times a week	42,9%	57,1%
	1-3 times a month	45,0%	55,0%
	Less often than once a month	52,9%	47,1%
	Never	66,7%	33,3%
1.6 Spoken language use in freetime	Daily	28,6%	71,4%
	1-3 times a week	36,0%	64,0%
	1-3 times a month	38,1%	61,9%
	Less often than once a month	42,3%	57,7%
	Never	45,5%	54,5%

As a conclusion, the findings of the present study suggest that foreign language anxiety is experienced less by boys than by girls; less by pupils with stronger English skills than by pupils with weaker English skills; and less by pupils who use English more in their free time than by pupils who use English less in their free time. These differences will be further clarified by the other findings presented in the following sections.

5.5 Respondents' experiences on error-related anxiety

In questions 2.9 – 2.12 the respondents were asked to evaluate on a scale from one to five (1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = occasionally, 4 = often, 5 = always), how often they feel anxious about making errors in the classroom with regard to four different interactional situations: speaking English to the teacher in the presence of other pupils; speaking English to the teacher in private; speaking English during a pair activity; and speaking English during a group activity. Of the 98 respondents whose answers could be included in the analysis of questions 2.9-2.12 (two respondents had answered some of the questions with two alternatives), 17,3% stated that they never feel anxious about their errors. In other words, 82,7% respondents *do* feel anxious about making errors. For the vast majority (91,4%) of these 81 respondents the feelings of error-related anxiety are *rare* or *occasional*, whereas only 8,6% of the respondents stated that they on average feel anxious about their errors either *often* or *always*. Even though the feelings of error-related anxiety are rare or occasional for most of the pupils, the overall amount of pupils who are anxious about their errors is noteworthy. Next, the respondents' experiences on error-related anxiety during classroom interactions will be discussed separately with the focus being first on teacher-pupil interactions and then on pupil-pupil interactions.

5.5.1 Error-related anxiety during teacher-pupil interactions

The respondents' answers on question 2.9 reveal that, in general, 38,7% of the pupils *rarely* feel anxious about making an error when speaking English to the teacher in the presence of others. *Never* and *occasionally* were the second and third most preferred options, both of which were chosen by circa a fifth of the pupils (20,4% and 21,4%, respectively). Nearly one in six respondents (14,3%) reported experiencing error-related anxiety *often*, whereas only 5,1% of the pupils experience it *always* when speaking

English to the teacher in the presence of others. Thus, when inspecting the group of the respondents as a whole, feelings of error-related anxiety when speaking English to the teacher in the presence of others are rare or non-existent for almost two thirds (59,2%) of the pupils. Interesting differences in the respondents' opinions were found, however, when considering their answers in terms of their gender, English skills or general anxiety levels.

Table 11 Respondents' error-related anxiety when speaking English to the teacher in the presence of other pupils

		2.9 I feel anxious about my errors when speaking English to the teacher in the presence of other pupils				
		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Always
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	35,7%	42,9%	19,0%	0,0%	2,4%
	Female	8,9%	35,7%	23,2%	25,0%	7,1%
1.4 Latest grade	6	18,8%	12,5%	31,2%	25,0%	12,5%
	7	10,0%	55,0%	15,0%	10,0%	10,0%
	8	29,2%	37,5%	16,7%	16,7%	0,0%
	9	20,0%	40,0%	26,7%	10,0%	3,3%
	10	20,0%	40,0%	20,0%	20,0%	0,0%

As the respondents' answers on question 2.9 presented in Table 11 clearly indicate, girls are clearly more likely to experience anxiety about making errors when speaking English to the teacher in the presence of other pupils than boys. As many as circa one in three (32,1%) girls reported feeling anxious over their errors in the aforementioned situation *often* or *always*, whereas the same options were chosen only 2,4% of the boys. Similarly, more than a third (35,7%) of the boys *never* feel anxious about their errors in the aforementioned situation, while only 8,9% of the girls stated the same. When inspecting the respondents' opinions on the same interactive situation in relation to their previous grades, one can see that pupils with grade 6 and 7 stated that they *always* feel anxious about their errors in the aforementioned situation clearly more often than pupils with other grades. In addition, *rarely* was answered by the majority of all grade groups except for pupils with grade 6, who most often answered *occasionally*.

In question 2.10 the respondents were asked to evaluate how often they feel anxious about making an error when speaking English to the teacher in private. In general, their answers were similar to those in question 2.9., as 35,7% of them reported feelings of error-related anxiety in such situations *rarely*, 28,6% *never* and 26,5% *occasionally* Only 6,1% of the pupils experience error-related anxiety *often* and 4,1% *always* when speaking English to the teacher in private. Again, certain differences in the pupils'

answers were found when examining them in relation to gender, previous achievement and general anxiety levels (see Table 12). It seems that the boys experience less error-related anxiety when speaking to the teacher in private than the girls do. However, when comparing questions 2.9 and 2.10, it can be stated that the respondents experience less error-related anxiety when talking to the teacher in private than they do when talking to the teacher in the presence of others. Interestingly, when considering the answers to question 2.10 in terms of the pupils' grades, the situation seems to be somewhat opposite to question 2.9. When speaking English to the teacher in the presence of others, 31,2% of the respondents with grade 6 answered the question *occasionally*, making it the most popular option among that grade group, whereas the most popular answer among other grade groups was *rarely*. When speaking English to the teacher in private, however, *occasionally* was the most popular answer among grades 9 and 10 (36,7% and 40,0% respectively), whereas respondents with grades 6, 7 and 8 mostly answered with *rarely* (31,2%, 40,0% and 40,0% respectively).

Table 12 Respondents' error-related anxiety when speaking English to the teacher in private

		2.10 I feel anxious about my errors when I speak English to the teacher in private				
		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Always
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	44,2%	30,2%	20,9%	2,3%	2,3%
	Female	16,1%	39,3%	30,4%	8,9%	5,4%
1.4 Latest grade	6	25,0%	31,2%	25,0%	12,5%	6,2%
	7	25,0%	40,0%	25,0%	5,0%	5,0%
	8	36,0%	40,0%	16,0%	8,0%	0,0%
	9	26,7%	30,0%	36,7%	3,3%	3,3%
	10	20,0%	40,0%	40,0%	0,0%	0,0%

5.5.2 Error-related anxiety during pupil-pupil interactions

Of the four interactive situations the respondents were asked to evaluate, errors proved to be least anxiety-provoking during a pair activity. In question 2.11, as many as 58,9% of the girls and 81,4% of the boys stated that they *never* feel anxious about their errors in such a situation (see Table 13). In terms of respondents with different grades, *never* was the most popular answer among all groups (6 = 43,8%, 7 = 60,0%, 8 = 80%, 9 = 76,7%, 10 = 60,0%). However, *rarely* was clearly more popular among grades 6 (31,2%), 7 (25,0%) and 10 (40,0%) than grades 8 (16%) and 9 (16,7%). Additionally, one must note that as many as one in four pupils with grade 6 answered question 2.11 with *occasionally*, which is a significantly large percentage compared to the pupils with

other grades (7 = 5%, 8 = 6,7%, 9 = 4%, 10 = 0,0%). Thus, errors seem to create more anxiety during a pair activity among pupils with lower grades and pupils with the highest grade.

Table 13 Respondents' error-related anxiety during a pair activity

		2.11 I feel anxious about my errors when I speak English during a pair activity				
		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Always
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	81,4%	11,6%	4,7%	2,3%	0,0%
	Female	58,9%	28,6%	10,7%	0,0%	1,8%
1.4 Latest grade	6	43,8%	31,2%	25,0%	0,0%	0,0%
	7	60,0%	25,0%	5,0%	5,0%	5,0%
	8	80,0%	16,0%	4,0%	0,0%	0,0%
	9	76,7%	16,7%	6,7%	0,0%	0,0%
	10	60,0%	40,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%
Anxiety classification	Anxious	28,9%	44,7%	21,1%	2,6%	2,6%
	Not anxious	93,3%	6,7%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%

Question 2.12 revealed that speaking English during a group activity stirred feelings of error-related anxiety in the respondents slightly more often than speaking during a pair activity. Whereas in 58,9% of the girls and 81,4% of the boys stated that they *never* feel anxious about making errors during a pair activity, the same percentages were slightly lower (girls = 30,4%, boys = 53,5%) in regard to group activities (see Table 14). *Never* was clearly the most popular answer among the stronger pupils (8 = 56%, 9 = 46,7% and 10 = 60,0%), where as pupils with the grade 7 mostly replied with *rarely* (45,0%) and the pupils with the grade 6 with *occasionally* (43,8%). Furthermore, option *often* was chosen by 3,3% of the pupils with the grade 9, and by no one with the grade 8 or 10, and the option *always* was chosen by no one with the grade 8, 9 or 10. In contrast, of the pupils with the grade 7, 5,0% chose *often* and 10,0% chose *always*. Of the pupils with the grade 6, the percentages were 6,2% for both *often* and *always*. This clearly indicates that group activities stir more error-related anxiety in the weaker pupils than they do in the stronger pupils.

Table 14 Respondents' error-related anxiety during a group activity

		2.12 I feel anxious about my errors when I speak English during a group activity				
		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Always
		Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
1.2 Sex of respondent	Male	53,5%	32,6%	11,6%	0,0%	2,3%
	Female	30,4%	32,1%	28,6%	5,4%	3,6%
1.4 Latest grade	6	18,8%	25,0%	43,8%	6,2%	6,2%
	7	20,0%	45,0%	20,0%	5,0%	10,0%
	8	56,0%	32,0%	12,0%	0,0%	0,0%
	9	46,7%	33,3%	16,7%	3,3%	0,0%
	10	60,0%	20,0%	20,0%	0,0%	0,0%
Anxiety classification	Anxious	5,3%	34,2%	44,7%	7,9%	7,9%
	Not anxious	63,3%	30,0%	6,7%	0,0%	0,0%

5.5.3 Sources of error-related anxiety

In question 2.13 the respondents were asked to describe in more detail why exactly making errors triggers feelings of anxiety in them. More than one fifth (21%) of the respondents explicitly stated that they are nervous about their peers laughing at them when they make an error in class. An example can be seen in extract (6):

> "No se että joku / kaikki nauraa ja sitten tulee kuuma ja pää muuttuu punaseks. Nolottaa! Ja ku tunnil on jotain hyvin englantii puhuvii niin ne saattaa ajatella et oon surkee.

> "Well that someone / everyone will laugh and then I'll get hot and my head will go red. Embarassing! And when in class there are some who speak English well, they might think that I am rubbish."

In addition to mentioning the fear of being laughed at, this particular respondent brought up the peers' negative thoughts and the fear that the stronger pupils will look down on him. All in all, 11 respondents stated that they are nervous about what their peers think about them, for example that they will judge them, or think that they are stupid or poor learners. Furthermore, 20 respondents mentioned their peers' actions in class, such as comments, bored looks, or mockery as anxiety-provoking. All the different reasons that were mentioned by the respondents as adding to their anxiety when making an error in the classroom are listed in Table 15.

Table 15 Reasons for error-related anxiety listed by the respondents

Reasons for error-related anxiety listed by the respondents	**Number of respondents**
Peers will laugh at the respondent	21
Peers will think that the respondent is stupid	7
Peers' comments	7
Peers' thoughts	4
The respondent will be misunderstood	4
The respondent makes the error in front of others	3
The error will affect the respondent's grade	2
The teacher's reaction	1
The teacher will think that the respondent does not know something	1
Peers will mock the respondent	1
Peers will judge the respondent	1
The respondent will blunder	1
It is embarrassing	1
The respondent will make himself / herself seem ridiculous	1
The respondent will get mixed up with the words	1
The respondent's pronunciation is bad	1
The feeling that the respondent does not know anything	1

As mentioned, one fifth (21%) of the respondents noted that the anxiety they experience in relation to making errors is due to being nervous about their peers laughing at them. Interestingly, however, almost half (48%) of all the respondents stated in question 2.19 that they had been laughed at by their peers when they had made an error at some point during their school career. This would indicate that being laughed at in the classroom transforms into feelings of anxiety about the matter in less than 50% of the pupils. Furthermore, almost a fourth (23%) of the pupils answered "Yes" to question 2.20 where they were asked whether they had ever been laughed at by their teacher when they had made an error. Again, as only four respondents mentioned the teacher's reaction or thoughts when asked to describe reasons for why errors can cause anxiety, it would seem that the teacher laughing at a pupil rarely transforms into feelings of anxiety. Lastly, 9 respondents reported that they had been mocked or made fun of by their teacher after making an error. Five of the respondents who had been laughed at by

their peers or their teacher commented on the matter by saying that it was nothing serious, or that they had laughed at the error themselves, as illustrated by extract (7):

> "Ihan humoristisessa mielessä nauroi, ei niinku mitenkää vakavasti"
>
> "[They] laughed in a humorous manner, not like seriously at all."

In contrast, four of them felt that they had been addressed in a negative manner due to the error, as illustrated by extract (8):

> "No joskus ala-asteella [opettaja] alkanut melkein huutaa ihan täyttä ja suuttunut ja sanonut etten osaa mitään"
>
> "Well once in the lower elementary school [the teacher] almost started yelling on full blast and got mad and said I don't know anything."

One can see certain disparities between the respondents' answers to the closed questions 2.9-1.12 and to the open question 2.13. As discussed in the previous sections, pair and group activities were the least likely forms of interaction to cause error-related anxiety in the pupils. In contrast, the pupils reported that they are more likely to experience anxiety about their errors during teacher-pupil interactions. Nevertheless, only four pupils mentioned the teachers' reaction or thoughts as adding the reason for their anxiety in question 2.13. Two of them specifically stated that that they were afraid that the errors they make will affect their grade, whereas the other two were either worried about the teacher's reaction or the teacher's thoughts. In contrast, reasons related to other pupils were mentioned in question 13 by more than half of the respondents, even though pair and group activities received low anxiety-scores in the previous questions. Thus, one could conclude that the pupils are most likely to experience anxiety about their errors in situations where they speak to the teacher in the presence of more than two or three of the fellow pupils.

The respondents' answers to question 2.13 did not offer conclusive information about why the respondents with higher grades seem to be more anxious about their errors in the presence of the teacher than in the presence of the other pupils. It is possible that pupils with higher grades are aware about their errors when they talk with the teacher in private, as they might feel that the teacher has a certain opinion about their skills and

that they must then live up to the teacher's expectations. In contrast, when they speak English with their peers, they might feel that their errors go unnoticed easier. The pupils with lower English skills, on the other hand, may feel that their peers will spot their errors easily, as they are better at English, and thus experience more anxiety during pupil-pupil interactions. In addition, they might compare themselves more to their peers and as a result feel more conscious about their English skills being weaker than their peers' skills. In general it is possible that the pupils feel more anxious about errors when speaking to the teacher than when speaking to the other pupils, because they make more errors during interaction with the teacher. As mentioned earlier, errors are not always errors in language, but forms that are for some reason unwanted by the teacher. Hence, it could be that pupils are most anxious about errors in situations where they make quantitatively most errors.

5.5.4 Manifestations of language anxiety

In her study, Kyyrönen (1997) reported that being quiet or avoiding using English are not likely manifestations of anxiety in Finnish students. The results of the present study, however, seem to support a somewhat different conclusion. In question 14 the respondents were asked to evaluate on a scale from one to five (1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = occasionally, 4 = often, 5 = never) how often they remain fully quiet when the teacher asks them a question because they are afraid of committing an error. In general, 40% of the respondents stated that that is something that they *never* do. 31% reported doing so *rarely*, 20% *occasionally*, 5% *often* and only 3% *always*. When comparing the answers of the anxious and not anxious students, however, more than half (56,8%) of the anxious respondents in the present study reported reacting to the teacher's questions with silence due to anxiety *occasionally*, *often* or *always* (see Table 16). This indicates that, in the light of the results of the present study, saying nothing to the teacher's question is a strategy most often used by an anxious pupil, i.e. it is likely to be a sign of anxiety. Furthermore, for long SLA researchers have been trying to identify possible reasons for avoidance, but so far the sources are still unclear (VanPatten and Benati 2010: 67). The findings of the present study, however, indicate that the fear of errors is one of the possible sources of avoidance, especially for pupils who experience anxiety in the language classroom.

Table 16 Being quiet as a manifestation of language anxiety

		AnxValAve	
		Anxious	Not anxious
		Column N %	Column N %
2.14 Do you ignore teachers' questions entirely (=don't say anything) because you are anxious about making errors	Never	9,1%	66,0%
	Rarely	34,1%	30,2%
	Occasionally	38,6%	3,8%
	Often	11,4%	0,0%
	Always	6,8%	0,0%

As far as being active and participating in the events of the language lessons is concerned, certain noteworthy differences can be found between anxious and not anxious respondents. When inspecting the respondents' answers to question 2.4 and 2.5, it is clear that the anxiety the pupils experience affects their behavior in the language classroom. As can be seen in the pupils' answers listed in Table 17, anxious pupils participate in the classroom events by raising their hand less often than not anxious pupils. In both groups, the majority of the pupils stated that they raise their hand approximately *1-3 times* during a lesson, but *never* was answered twice as often by an anxious pupil than by a not anxious pupil. Similarly, *4-6 times* was more than two times more popular among the not anxious pupils, and *7 times or more* approximately six times more popular.

Table 17 Respondents' tendencies to raise their hand in order to answer a teacher's question

		AnxVal	
		Anxious	Not anxious
		Column N %	Column N %
2.4 Raising one's hand per lesson	Never	29,5%	15,4%
	1-3 times	59,1%	48,1%
	4-6 times	9,1%	23,1%
	7 times or more	2,3%	13,5%
	Subtotal	100,0%	100,0%
2.5 Raising one's hand, though not certain about the answer	Always	0,0%	3,8%
	Often	2,3%	32,1%
	Occasionally	29,5%	35,8%
	Rarely	47,7%	18,9%
	Never	20,5%	9,4%
	Subtotal	100,0%	100,0%

The differences between the two groups are even more salient in terms of how often they raise their hand if they are not certain about their answer being correct. Nearly half (47,7%) of the anxious respondents reported raising their hand in such a situation

rarely, whereas that option was chosen by less than one in five (18,9%) of the not anxious respondents. Furthermore, a fifth of the anxious pupils stated that they *never* raise their hand if uncertain about their answer, whereas only about one in ten (9,4%) of the anxious pupils answered similarly. The differences between the two groups are probably most considerable in relation to the options *often* and *always.* They were chosen by as many as 35,9% of the not anxious respondents, but only by 2,3% of the anxious respondents.

In question 2.6 a), the pupils explained in more detail, why they do not want to answer the teacher's question if they are not certain about their answer. Among the anxious pupils, the following reasons were the most common: answering incorrectly is embarrassing (n=7); other pupils will laugh (n=4); the fear of failure (n=2); the fear of answering incorrectly (n=2); and problems in pronunciation (n=2). In addition, individual pupils mentioned feelings of shame and sounding stupid as the motivation for why they do not want to answer the teacher's question when they are not sure about their answer.

In the present study there was one particular respondent who reported that she never raises her hand in any school lessons due to an incident that had taken place during an English lesson in elementary school. She had made an error when reading a question out loud in English and everyone had started laughing at her. Her feelings are illustrated in extract (9):

> ”Pelkään väärin vastaamista. Se johtuu varmaan traumasta, jonka sain ala-asteella, kun väärälle vastaukselleni naurettiin. En viittaa muillakaan tunneilla.
>
> "I am afraid about answering incorrectly. It is probably due to a trauma that I suffered in elementary school when my incorrect answer was laughed at. I do not raise my hand in other classes either."

She explained that she had felt extremely embarrassed in the situation, and that the incident had traumatized her and caused her to stop raising her hand altogether in all classes. She was very specific about her feelings of anxiety and emphasized that she is not nervous about making errors, she is *afraid* of it. Her attitude towards corrective feedback was not positive either, even though she stated that it may occasionally be useful. For her, the problem was that the feelings of anxiety and shame outweigh the possible advantages of the teacher's corrections. This is obviously the story of one

particular pupil, but at the same time an alarming example about the connection between classroom interactions and anxiety.

6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In the present study the respondents considered grammatical and pronunciation errors to be the most common in their speech, which seems to support the observations made by Kivelä (2008). She investigated the frequency of pupils' errors in Finnish primary schools through classroom observation and concluded that errors in pronunciation (52%), grammar (23%) and lexis (22%) were most common among the pupils. The most common error categories are similar in the present study, with the exception that the respondents ranked grammar errors as the most frequent in both their own (reference value 0,71) and their peers' speech (reference value 0,74). Pronunciation errors were classified as the second most frequent (own errors 0,62; peers' errors 0,70) and lexical errors as the third most frequent (own errors 0,59; peers' errors 0,56). The fourth category of error in Kivelä's (2008) study were semantic errors which, according to James (1998: 151) are in fact errors in lexis and were thus not included in the present study as their own category.

To some extent, the results of the present study about the frequency of the different errors could be explained with Kivelä's (2008) findings about how often certain errors are corrected in the classroom. In her study, 93% of all lexical errors and 81% of all grammatical errors were corrected by the teachers, which could increase the pupils' consciousness about them (Kivelä 2008: 23). This could, in turn, affect the pupils' perceptions about their frequency. However, in her study only 58% of phonological errors were corrected, which does not explain the fact that in the present study, errors in pronunciation were regarded second most frequent by the respondents. Without a question, classroom practices, such as error correction, have an effect on pupils' opinions about how common certain errors are, as the teacher reacting to an error certainly brings the pupils' attention to it. Thus, it can be stated that pupils are especially sensitive to noticing pronunciation errors in their own and their peers' speech, since they are not corrected often by the teachers, but are still regarded as second most common error type. One must also bear in mind that the respondents' views on the frequency of different errors may well be interconnected with their views on how embarrassing different errors are. As discussed earlier, the pupils' perception on how embarrassing certain errors are can very well be related to their perception on how frequent they are. If certain errors, for example pronunciation errors, are regarded very embarrassing, the pupils are more likely to remember them both in their own and their

peers' speech. Thus, it is possible that the respondents of the present study regarded pronunciation and grammatical errors as most frequent because, for them, they are the most embarrassing errors. On the other hand, the situation could also be reversed. It could be that the frequency of the errors can affect how embarrassing the respondents regard them, as, for example, pragmatic errors were ranked as least common and least embarrassing. If the pupils are not that familiar with a certain error type, it may not in turn be considered to be that embarrassing either.

The fact that the respondents of the present study ranked grammatical and pronunciation errors as the most frequent and most embarrassing errors seems to indicate that 9th graders, who are at the final stages of their elementary school career, feel most uncertain about their knowledge in English grammar and pronunciation. This is something that should be taken into consideration when planning the EFL teaching in Finland in the future years. Asking the pupils what they would like to learn and including those aspects in the teaching is undoubtedly a great way to increase the pupils' motivation. Furthermore, as grammatical and pronunciation errors are the two error types that are most likely to cause embarrassment in the pupils, it would be important to provide them with the kind of help they need in those two areas in order to reduce their feelings of embarrassment when speaking English.

In his article on oral grammar correction, Truscott (1999) argued that error correction is often not useful, as learners may feel resistant towards being corrected. In the light of the findings of the present study, however, that is most likely not the case among Finnish EFL learners. As demonstrated in section 5.3.1, the respondents' attitudes towards the teacher's corrective feedback are generally more positive than negative. This finding is similar to that of Schultz' (1996) study, where 90% of the students wanted the teacher to correct their errors. Truscott's (1999) arguments about the difficulty of the teacher's corrections standing in the way of the effectiveness of the correction may, however, be true, as in the present study the respondents with weaker English skills were less inclined towards corrective feedback than respondents' with higher English skills.

The findings of the present study support previous findings about written error corrections made by Saito (1994) and Lee (2005). In their studies, the students preferred teachers' corrective feedback, particularly explicit identification and correction, to self-

correction, which was also the case in the present study. The fact that the respondents of the present study prefer teacher's corrections to self-correction may be related to Kivelä's (2008) findings about the corrective feedback patterns in Finnish EFL classrooms presented earlier in section 2.3. In her study, the teacher was responsible for correcting 66% of the errors, whereas self-correction was used significantly less (Kivelä 2008: 27). Thus, it is not surprising that the respondents of the present study mostly want the teacher to correct their errors and are less inclined towards self-correction, as people have a tendency to prefer what they are used to.

As far as the relationship between anxiety and corrective feedback is concerned, certain interesting findings were made. Indeed, there seems to be a connection between language anxiety and corrective feedback in the sense that the anxious respondents were less in favor of corrective feedback than the not anxious respondents. This conclusion supports the views presented by both Truscott (1991: 441) and Young (1991: 427) who have stated that teachers' corrective feedback may cause anxiety in learners. Of all the corrective feedback strategies investigated in the present study, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback create the least amount of anxiety in the learners, as they were the most popular strategies among the anxious pupils of the study. As argued by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Surakka (2007) (see section 2.3), explicit correction may not lead to learner uptake as often as some of the others strategies, which may encourage teachers to avoid using it. What should be borne in mind, however, is that a pupil is not likely to benefit from the teacher's corrective feedback, if it causes anxiety in him / her. Thus, when choosing the suitable error correction strategies, teachers should always take into account the individual pupil's affections and perceptions on corrective feedback.

To conclude, the findings of the present study demonstrate that learners have strong positive opinions about the usefulness of teacher's corrective feedback in the classroom. This information does provide motivation for language teachers to continue the practice of corrective feedback, as the learners clearly see it as a benefiting factor in their language learning. However, teachers should be cautious when applying the different error correction strategies, as some of them are more likely to cause anxiety in the learners. Thus, it would seem that rather than spending time on wondering whether they should correct errors, language teachers should focus on determining how to provide

corrective feedback that is tailored for each pupil and takes into account his / her language skills and affections.

In the present study 17 respondents reported that they never feel anxious about their errors in the language classroom, which means that more than four in five do experience error-related anxiety. This should send an alarming message to the language teaching professionals in Finland and necessary actions should be taken in order to reduce the pupils' anxiety, as it can have a negative effect on their learning. However, one should note that, luckily, the feelings of error-related anxiety are rare or occasional for most pupils and the interactive situation in which the pupils communicate can greatly reduce their anxiety. One possibility is to use more pair and group activities, as the respondents of the present study reported less error-related anxiety when speaking English with their peers than they do when speaking English with their teacher. Additionally, specific focus should be on girls, since they are more likely to experience anxiety about making errors than boys, and pupils with lower grades, since they are more likely to experience anxiety than pupils with higher grades. Interestingly, in the present study pupils whose previous English grade was 10 were the second most likely grade group to experience anxiety during English classes. This could be due to the high expectations that teachers and/or parents may have about the strong pupils' performance, which is why it is important to encourage them in a positive manner and not put pressure on them, as that may add to their anxiety. Lastly, the findings of the present study clearly indicate that many pupils in today's school are being laughed at regularly. Being laughed does not seem to add to the learners' anxiety in most cases, but for some individuals such situations may cause unnecessary feelings of anxiety and shame which may, in turn, affect their entire language learning experience.

After inspecting the matter of raising one's hand and answering teacher's questions in class, it is evident that there are noticeable differences in the practices of the anxious and not anxious pupils. It is important that teachers are aware of these individual affective differences and their manifestations, as they often regard being active and raising one's hand as necessary actions for showcasing one's interest in the on-going lesson and even in the language in general. In fact, many teachers feel that pupils cannot be given a very good grade, unless they raise their hand and answer the teachers' questions. However, one must bear in mind that the pupil's quietness and apparent inactiveness may in fact be a manifestation of language anxiety, which, as shown in the

present study, may even be increased due to the teacher's presence and actions, not to mention the other pupils. Thus, it is crucial that teachers are conscious of their pupils' affections, as well as of their own actions and the atmosphere they create in the language classroom. After all, learning a language should be a positive experience for everyone.

There are certain limitations that should be taken into account when considering the findings of the present study. Firstly, one must bear in mind that the number of the respondents was relatively small and thus the findings should not be over-generalized. When the sample is small, analyzing the participants with the help of the background variables may produce biased findings, as there might only be one or two people representing certain group's opinions. In such as case the results can obviously not be said to represent that group of people in general. However, one must note that this was not the case in the present study, as a maximum of one background variable was used at a time, thus ensuring that there was always more than one respondent in each group. Secondly, choosing a scale that measures frequency for the closed questions may have affected the way in which the respondents answered the questionnaire. Never and always are extremely strong expressions and some respondents may have found them too definitive and thus a more neutral scale may have produced different answers. On the other hand, many of the respondents were not afraid to answer never or always, which proved that they had strong opinions about the matters. Thirdly, some of the open questions in the questionnaire could have been defined and divided into more narrow questions, as now some of the pupils' answers were very short and not necessarily informative in the sense that was hoped for. However, too structured and leading questions were avoided on purpose to make sure that the respondents' own voice truly came through in their answers.

One should bear in mind that many of the aspects of the present study have not been studied to this extent before. Thus, the aim has been to provide a general picture of the respondents' opinions on errors, corrective feedback and the connection between these two aspects and anxiety. It is hoped that the findings of the present study will encourage further research on these important matters that unquestionably affect many language learners every single day.

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APPENDIX 1: THE PUPIL QUESTIONNAIRE

Hyvä oppilas,

olen Jyväskylän yliopiston opiskelija ja kerään parhaillaan materiaalia Kielten laitokselle tekemääni Pro Gradu -tutkielmaa varten. Toivoisin sinun vastaavan tähän kyselyyn mahdollisimman huolellisesti ja laajasti omien kokemustesi ja ajatustesi pohjalta. Vastauksesi ovat erittäin tärkeitä tutkimuksen onnistumisen kannalta, joten käytäthän vastaamiseen varatun ajan mahdollisimman hyvin hyödyksesi. Kaikki vastaukset käsitellään **nimettöminä** ja **luottamuksellisesti**, joten voit kertoa mielipiteesi täysin rehellisesti. Lopullisesta tutkimuksesta **ei** tule käymään ilmi koulun nimi tai yksittäisten oppilaiden henkilöllisyys. Kiitokset ajastasi ja vaivannäöstäsi jo etukäteen!

Terveisin,
Katariina Renko
---

1. PERUSTIEDOT

1. Ikä: _____ vuotta

2. Sukupuoli: ☐ nainen ☐ mies

3. Olen opiskellut englantia _____ luokalta lähtien.

4. Englannin kielen arvosana edellisessä todistuksessa: 5 6 7 8 9 10

5. **Kirjoitan** englantia **vapaa-aikanani** (esim. netissä, chatissa):
   ☐ päivittäin ☐ 1-3 kertaa viikossa ☐ 1-3 kertaa kuussa
   ☐ harvemmin kuin kerran kuukaudessa ☐ en koskaan

6. **Puhun** englantia **vapaa-aikanani** (esim. kavereiden kanssa, Skypessä):
   ☐ päivittäin ☐ 1-3 kertaa viikossa ☐ 1-3 kertaa kuussa
   ☐ harvemmin kuin kerran kuukaudessa ☐ en koskaan

7. Arvioi omaa kielitaitoasi eri osa-alueilla asteikolla 1-4

(1 = heikko, 2 = tyydyttävä, 3 = hyvä, 4 = erittäin hyvä)

a. Kuinka hyvin omasta mielestäsi **puhut** englantia?

1 2 3 4

b. Kuinka hyvin omasta mielestäsi **ymmärrät puhuttua** englantia?

1 2 3 4

c. Kuinka hyvin omasta mielestäsi **kirjoitat** englantia?

1 2 3 4

d. Kuinka hyvin omasta mielestäsi **ymmärrät kirjoitettua** englantia?

1 2 3 4

2. TUTKIMUSKYSYMYKSET

Vastatessasi seuraaviin kysymyksiin muistele englannin kielen oppitunteja aina ala-asteelta tähän päivään. Mieti erityisesti niitä tilanteita, joissa sinä tai joku muu oppilas on **tehnyt virheen puhuessaan englantia ääneen tunnilla (= ns. suullinen virhe)**. Pyri vastaamaan kysymyksiin mahdollisimman laajasti. Monivalintakysymyksissä valitse vaihtoehdoista mielestäsi sopivin.

Kielessä esiintyy yleensä neljänlaisia virheitä:

- **kielioppivirheet** (esim. väärä sanajärjestys TAI *do* kun pitäisi olla *does*)
- **ääntämisvirheet** (sana lausutaan väärin)
- **sanastovirheet** (ei muisteta tai tiedetä oikeaa sanaa, ja siksi käytetään väärää sanaa)
- **kielenkäyttövirheet** (esim. ei muisteta sanoa *"please"*, vaikka se on kohteliasta TAI unohdetaan teititellä vanhempaa henkilöä)

1. Mieti ensin **omia** virheitäsi ja numeroi 1-4, kuinka **yleisiä** eri virheet **omassa puheessasi** ovat (1 = yleisin, 2 = toiseksi yleisin, 3 = kolmanneksi yleisin, 4 = neljänneksi yleisin).

Kielioppivirhe ☐ Ääntämisvirhe ☐

Sanastovirhe ☐ Kielenkäyttövirhe ☐

2. Mieti nyt **luokkatovereidesi** virheitä ja numeroi 1-4, kuinka **yleisiä** eri virheet mielestäsi **heidän puheessaan** ovat (1 = yleisin, 2 = toiseksi yleisin, 3 = kolmanneksi yleisin, 4 = neljänneksi yleisin).

☐ ☐

Kielioppivirhe Ääntämisvirhe

Sanastovirhe ☐ Kielenkäyttövirhe ☐

3. Numeroi 1-4, kuinka **noloja** eri virheet mielestäsi ovat (1 = noloin, 2 = toiseksi noloin, 3 = kolmanneksi noloin, 4 = neljänneksi noloin)

Kielioppivirhe ☐ Ääntämisvirhe ☐

Sanastovirhe ☐ Kielenkäyttövirhe ☐

4. Viittaan englannin kielen tunnin (45 min) aikana yleensä

0 kertaa ☐ 1-3 kertaa ☐ 4-6 kertaa ☐

7 kertaa tai useammin ☐

5. Viittaan, vaikka en ole varma, onko vastaukseni oikein.
(1 = aina, 2 = usein, 3 = joskus, 4 = harvoin, 5 = ei koskaan)

1 2 3 4 5

6. a) **Jos vastasit edelliseen kysymykseen (kysymys numero 5) vaihtoehdon 4 tai 5**, vastaa tähän kysymykseen: Miksi et viittaa koskaan tai viittaat harvoin, jos et ole varma vastauksestasi?
b) **Jos vastasit edelliseen kysymykseen (kysymys numero 5) vaihtoehdon 1, 2 tai 3**, vastaa tähän kysymykseen: Miksi viittaat, vaikka et ole varma vastauksestasi?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

7. Mitä englannin kielen tunneilla yleensä tapahtuu, kun joku tekee virheen. Mitä **opettaja** silloin yleensä tekee? Mitä **muut oppilaat** tekevät? **Anna omia esimerkkejä.**

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

8. Muistatko koko kouluajaltasi jotakin erityisen hauskaa, noloa, erikoista tai muuten mieleenpainuvaa tilannetta, jossa **sinä tai joku muu oppilas** teki virheen? Miksi juuri tämä tilanne on jäänyt mieleesi? Mitä tilanteessa tapahtui? Kuvaile tilannetta **omin sanoin**.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

9. Kun puhun **opettajalle** englantia **muiden kuullen**, minua jännittää, että teen virheen. (1 = ei koskaan, 2 = harvoin, 3 = joskus, 4 = usein, 5 = aina)

   1 2 3 4 5

10. Kun puhun **opettajalle** englantia **kahden kesken**, minua jännittää, että teen virheen. (1 = ei koskaan, 2 = harvoin, 3 = joskus, 4 = usein, 5 = aina)

    1 2 3 4 5

11. Kun puhun **paritehtävien** aikana englantia, minua jännittää, että teen virheen. (1 = ei koskaan, 2 = harvoin, 3 = joskus, 4 = usein, 5 = aina)

    1 2 3 4 5

12. Kun puhun **ryhmätehtävien** aikana englantia, minua jännittää, että teen virheen. (1 = ei koskaan, 2 = harvoin, 3 = joskus, 4 = usein, 5 = aina)

    1 2 3 4 5

13. Kerro **omin sanoin** lisää siitä, mikä virheen tekemisessä jännittää?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

14. Jätän tunnilla kokonaan vastaamatta (= en sano mitään) opettajan kysymykseen, koska minua jännittää, että teen virheen. (1 = ei koskaan, 2 = harvoin, 3 = joskus, 4 = usein, 5 = aina)

    1 2 3 4 5

15. Minua jännittää, jos joudun puhumaan tunnilla englantia ilman, että olen etukäteen ehtinyt miettiä, mitä sanon. (1 = ei koskaan, 2 = harvoin, 3 = joskus, 4 = usein, 5 = aina)

    1 2 3 4 5

16. Pelkään, että **muut oppilaat** nauravat minulle, jos teen virheen puhuessani englantia. (1 = ei koskaan, 2 = harvoin, 3 = joskus, 4 = usein, 5 = aina)

    1 2 3 4 5

17. Pelkään, että **opettaja** nauraa minulle, jos teen virheen puhuessani englantia. (1 = ei koskaan, 2 = harvoin, 3 = joskus, 4 = usein, 5 = aina)

    1 2 3 4 5

18. Pelkään, että **opettaja** pilkkaa minua / ilkkuu, jos teen virheen. (1 = ei koskaan, 2 = harvoin, 3 = joskus, 4 = usein, 5 = aina)

    1 2 3 4 5

19. **Muut oppilaat** ovat joskus **nauraneet** minulle, kun olen tehnyt virheen puhuessani englantia.

    Kyllä ☐ Ei ☐

20. **Opettaja** on joskus **nauranut** minulle, kun olen tehnyt virheen puhuessani englantia.

    Kyllä ☐ Ei ☐

21. **Opettaja** on joskus **pilkannut minut /ilkkunut**, kun olen tehnyt virheen puhuessani englantia.

    Kyllä ☐ Ei ☐

    Jos vastasit **Kyllä**, niin miten:

    _____

    _____

    _____

HUOM! LUE VASTAUSVAIHTOEHDOT TARKKAAN, SILLÄ TÄSTÄ ETEENPÄIN NIIDEN JÄRJESTYS ON MUUTTUNUT!

22. Uskon, että voin oppia virheistä, joita teen puhuessani englantia.

Kyllä ☐ Ei ☐

23. a) **Jos vastasit edelliseen kysymykseen (kysymys numero 22) <u>Kyllä</u>, vastaa tähän kysymykseen:** Miten virheet voivat mielestäsi auttaa sinua oppimaan?
b) **Jos vastasit edelliseen kysymykseen (kysymys numero 22) <u>Ei</u>, vastaa tähän kysymykseen:**

Miksi virheet eivät mielestäsi voi auttaa sinua oppimaan?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

24. Jos teen tunnilla virheen puhuessani englantia, haluan että opettaja puuttuu virheeseeni. (1 = aina, 2 = usein, 3 = joskus, 4 = harvoin, 5 = ei koskaan)

1 2 3 4 5

25. Jos teen tunnilla virheen puhuessani englantia, haluan että opettaja sanoo selvästi ääneen, missä tein virheen. (1 = aina, 2 = usein, 3 = joskus, 4 = harvoin, 5 = ei koskaan)

1 2 3 4 5

26. Jos teen tunnilla virheen puhuessani englantia, haluan että opettaja esittää minulle lisäkysymyksiä liittyen virheeseeni. (1 = aina, 2 = usein, 3 = joskus, 4 = harvoin, 5 = ei koskaan)

1 2 3 4 5

27. Jos teen tunnilla virheen puhuessani englantia, haluan että opettaja kertoo suoraan, mikä oikea sana / muoto olisi ollut. (1 = aina, 2 = usein, 3 = joskus, 4 = harvoin, 5 = ei koskaan)

1 2 3 4 5

28. Jos teen tunnilla virheen puhuessani englantia, haluan että **opettaja** auttaa minua korjaamaan virheen. (1 = aina, 2 = usein, 3 = joskus, 4 = harvoin, 5 = ei koskaan)

1 2 3 4 5

29. Jos teen tunnilla virheen puhuessani englantia, haluan **itse** yrittää korjata virheeni. (1 = aina, 2 = usein, 3 = joskus, 4 = harvoin, 5 = ei koskaan)

1 2 3 4 5

30. Miksi tahdot / Miksi et tahdo, että opettaja puuttuu virheisiisi tunnilla?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

31. Kuvittele, että olet puhunut tunnilla englantia ja tehnyt virheen. Opettaja huomaa virheen ja puuttuu siihen. Uskotko, että opettajan puuttumisesta virheeseen on sinulle hyötyä? (1 = aina, 2 = usein, 3 = joskus, 4 = harvoin, 5 = ei koskaan)

1 2 3 4 5

32. a) **Jos vastasit edelliseen kysymykseen (kysymys numero 31) vaihtoehdon 4 tai 5**, vastaa seuraavaan kysymykseen: Miksi et usko opettajan puuttumisesta suulliseen virheeseesi olevan hyötyä sinulle?

b) **Mikäli vastasit edelliseen kysymykseen (kysymys numero 31) vaihtoehdon 1, 2 tai 3**, vastaa seuraavaan kysymykseen: Millaista hyötyä uskot sinulle olevan siitä, että opettaja korjaa tunnilla tekemäsi suullisen virheen?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

33. Miksi **luulet**, että opettaja korjaa oppilaiden tunnilla tekemiä virheitä? Mitä **syitä** voisi olla siihen, että kun oppilas vastaa väärin, opettaja haluaa puuttua siihen?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

34. Mitä uskot, että opettaja ajattelee, kun oppilas tekee virheen?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Kiitos osallistumisestasi!

APPENDIX 2: PARENTAL CONSENT FORM

Hyvät 9.-luokkalaisten huoltajat

Kartoitan Jyväskylän yliopistolle tekemääni Pro Gradu –tutkielmaa varten yhdeksäsluokkalaisten kokemuksia virheiden tekemisestä englannin kielen oppitunneilla. Oppilaat vastaavat kirjalliseen kyselyyn täysin **nimettömästi** ja vastaukset käsitellään **luottamuksellisesti**. Suostumuslomakkeita ei yhdistetä kyselylomakkeisiin, vaan ne jäävät koulun arkistoon.

T. Katariina Renko

Saako lapsenne osallistua tutkimukseen? ☐ Kyllä ☐ Ei

Oppilaan nimi: _____

Huoltajan allekirjoitus: _____