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«Difficulties encountered by Ukrainian pupils in pronouncing English correctly»

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SUMMARY

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In the research deals with types and advice of correcting mistakes of English learning students' speaking in the classroom. The main part is focused on division of mistakes into categories and on studying of the question if to correct or not and in which situations the correction is needed.

The object of our research is the process of speaking English in the classroom as a second language.

The subject of our research work: correcting students errors in pronunciation.

The aim of the research was to identify and analyze the mistakes made by students in the course of speaking English in the classroom; propose a strategy that could solve these errors.

In the research paper we: reported several approaches towards error; presented types of errors and ways to correct errors; to identify students speaking mistakes; to implement storytelling strategy for improve students' knowledge of pronunciation, vocabulary, structure and grammar.

The scientific novelty of the research is in the attempt to systemize and analyze the ways of correcting mistakes in students speech and to present new strategies for correcting mistakes.

We proved that an effective method for improving students speech is the storytelling strategy. This strategy builds vocabulary and comprehension and acquiring new language structures.

Key words: error, to make mistake, learning process, to correct, second language, strategy, to focus on something.

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У дослідженні розглядаються типи та поради з корекції помилок допущених учнями під час усного мовлення на занятті з англійської мови. Основна частина спрямована на вивчення питання щодо необхідності корегування помилок в певних ситуаціях та їх розподілу за категоріями.

Об’єктом дослідження є розмовна англійська мова як друга.

Предмет дослідження: виправлення помилок у вимові учнів.

Метою дослідження було виявити та проаналізувати помилки, зроблені студентами в процесі вивчення англійської мови в класі; запропонувати стратегію, яка могла б вирішити ці помилки.

У дослідженні ми: повідомляли про кілька підходів до помилок; представили типи помилок та способи їх виправлення; виявили помилоки у мовленні учнів; реалізували стратегію оповідання для поліпшення вимови та знань учнів про словниковий запас, структуру та граматику.

Наукова новизна дослідження полягає в спробі систематизувати та проаналізувати шляхи виправлення помилок у мовленні учнів та представити нові стратегії подолання помилок.

Ми довели, що ефективним методом поліпшення мовлення студентів є стратегія оповідання. Ця стратегія будує лексику, розуміння і набуває нових мовних структур.

Ключові слова: помилка, допустити помилку, процес навчання, виправити, друга мова, стратегія, зосередитися на чомусь.

INTRODUCTION

There is nobody who is able to learn a foreign language without making errors during the phases of language acquisition. That is why this field of study deserves a great deal of linguists' attention. Teachers are an essential part of this learning process, as they are usually those who help students to correct their errors and to avoid them in the future. However, in time students also become active participants in their own learning process.

It may seem that error correction is a simple procedure which does not need to be examined, but it is the opposite of the truth. Error correction is a complex procedure which needs to be examined further. It is necessary that teachers were well informed about how students perceive error correction in order to teach effectively.

Generally speaking, there are three types of oral mistakes that need to be corrected during class-discussion. These are: grammatical, vocabulary, and pronunciation mistakes. This leads us to a very important question: should we interrupt our students during discussion or avoid interrupting them as much as we can? To answer this question we need to ask ourselves whether the focus is on accuracy or fluency. In fact, to save our students the embarrassment and in order not to distract them, we can employ less provocative approaches. One way is to make notes of the most common mistakes made by a student to be discussed later. Write them on the board without revealing the name of the student in order not embarrass him/her. Ask the rest of the class to identify these mistakes and correct them. Another way is to raise an eyebrow, or say, "Excuse me?" Or the teacher can ask for repetition without indicating the mistake.

In conclusion, the teacher can decide which is the most beneficial and effective approach to error correction based on the situation itself. It will help students overcome their shyness and play an active role in class discussions without being afraid of making mistakes. In this case, they would acknowledge and accept their mistakes as part of the learning process instead of being offended when they

are corrected by their teacher. An excellent way to correct errors is the storytelling strategy. In my opinion, this method involves correcting all types of errors.

This bachelor thesis deals with the problem of error and error correction in oral practice during English Language Lessons.

The ***object*** of our research is the process of speaking English in the classroom as a second language.

The ***subject*** of our research work: correcting pupils' errors in pronunciation.

The ***aim*** of the research was to identify and analyze the mistakes made by pupils in the course of speaking English in the classroom; propose a strategy that could solve these errors.

The aim foresees such following ***assignments***:

1) To investigate the concept of error and types of errors.
2) To systemize and analyze the ways of correcting errors in pupils' speech.
3) To implement storytelling strategy in 9th grader pupils at school to improve their knowledge of vocabulary, structure and grammar.
4) To increase pupils' speaking skills.

The ***methodological and theoretical*** basis of our research is formed by scientific publications of theory of acquisition of the second language and the occurrence of errors (Krashen, 1982; Doff, 1993; Hendrich et al., 1988; Broughton et al. (2003); error definition and analysis (S. P. Corder, 1981; Chaudron, 1986 (quoted by Allwright and Bailey 1991); Shastri, 2010), typology and ways of categorization of errors (Burt and Krashen, 1982), criteria for dealing with spoken errors (Hendrickson, 1978; James, 1998; Yoshida, 2008; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

The ***scientific novelty*** of the research is in the attempt to systemize and analyze the ways of correcting mistakes in students speech and to present new strategies for correcting mistakes.

The ***theoretical value*** of the research lies in the fact that it is one of the first attempts to investigate all ways of error correction and offer new effective methods correction. We hope that the obtained data will make a contribution into the linguistic studies.

The ***practical value*** of the research is in the opportunity to apply the data to the process of teaching English at the university and school: use new methods error correction in speaking English.

Approbation and implementation of the research results into the practice of general secondary school was carried out through discussion at the pedagogical councils of Alternative school KrOK, town Kropyvnytskyi, meetings of the Department of English Language Practice and Teaching Methodology of Rivne State University of the Humanities, reported at the conferences on modern problems of teaching methods of foreign languages (Rivne, 2024). One article was published:

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CHAPTER 1. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION THEORIES

1.1. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Language, as one of the typically human characteristics, has been subject to great scientific study for over a long time. Already at the time when Latin was the dominant language in Europe theorists studied the language from several perspectives. At that time, however, only receptive skills were studied, as people learned the language through literature and writing only, which was then followed by a detailed study of grammar. In this grammar-translation method, as Lightbound (2005) observes, “the main activity was focused on written translation, and no attention was given to the actual communicative use of the language in question” (p. 64). Later on, when English took over as the most widely used language worldwide; it adopted the same methods for studying and teaching language as Latin. It was assumed that grammar-translation method proved its efficiency through time thanks to its dominant status and thus had to be a high-quality method.

With an increased need for actual communication in English, the 20th century saw the grammar-translation method ceasing to be sufficient and therefore new methods of approaching language learning were needed. As a result, numerous approaches to language acquisition emerged explaining the process of language acquisition and suggesting new methods of learning and teaching. As Christison & Krahnke (1983) point out, perhaps no aspect of language pedagogy has been the subject of more interest than the study of learner error. The fact that sources of error cannot be observed in any way made it a feature of language learning that has gained considerable attention, as each method was trying to come up with a reasonable explanation. This part of the paper presents those approaches to second language learning that deal with error and error correction the most and pay close attention to it. In order not to make it too 10 lengthy, I decided to concentrate on those approaches that were prominent in the mid 20th century and later.

1.2. BEHAVIOURIST THEORY

Teachers are often worried when their pupils make errors, because they believe the students may learn the errors and keep using them. Therefore teachers think they must avoid this happening and make sure that everything students say must be perfect. This belief originally comes from behaviourism – an approach to language learning, which was dominant in the 1950s and 1960s. It was one of the first schools of thought – if not the very first –which dealt with learners' errors in great depth.

Behaviourist theory was the most prominent psychological theory in the 1950s and this theory also made its way to the field of second language (SL) learning. The idea of the theory, based on habits which are included in language learning, is rooted in psychological theory with the notions of stimulus and response being its keystones. Behaviourist theory saw language learning as a strictly mechanical process (Ellis, 1994; Mitchell and Myles, 2004). Therefore, the primary source of language acquisition, according to Behaviourists, is the daily exposure to large quantities of language stimuli in the environment. By repetition of responses to these stimuli we develop language habits. This view suggests that language learning is improved when a learner is actively and repeatedly responding to the stimuli. When repeating these responses over and over, habits are formed by way of an automatic response on a particular stimulus (Skinner, 1957). Basically, this theory implies that language learning should be promoted by periodic repetition of the same structures.

In these circumstances, an occurrence of error meant that applied teaching methods were incorrect or unsuitable. Perfect teaching method would produce no errors at all. Errors, in general, were seen as negative and in lessons they were corrected instantly. In such lessons, there was no place for improvisation, because under such conditions it was not possible to prevent learners from making errors (Corder, 1984). Behaviourists were not utterly wrong in their thinking, as repetitive learning can be useful when one wants to eliminate an error in his learning. However, it is impossible to be achieved just by a single method. Hubbard et al. (1983) point

out in their book for teachers that "the learner is doing his best to sort things out for himself and requires intellectual, as well as mechanical help" (p. 145).

One of the main critics of this theory was Noam Chomsky. According to him, this theory was not suitable for language learning as learners could not master the complexity of language simply by repetition of particular sentences. He was convinced that in order to learn language thoroughly, learners need to know how to create sentences they have never heard before. Language learning is a complex and abstract process that learners are more likely to learn when they study the rules of language instead of repeating individual sentences. Students are not able to understand some of the language structures purely on the basis of language stimuli. Chomsky's criticism led with the greatest probability to the downfall of Behaviourist theory and the rise of a new perspective on the issue of language learning (Chomsky, 1959).

1.3. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

From the 1950s till the early 1970s, Contrastive Analysis (CA) was a widespread method in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). It was used for explaining errors made by language learners. Additionally, the method was trying to say why some language features were more difficult for learners to acquire than others. Many researchers at that time carried out contrastive analyses between pairs of languages (see e.g. MacDonald Lightbound, 2005, p. 65).

The contrastive analysis theory was built on the behaviourist view of language learning as a mechanical process of habit formation. It was believed that the aspects of the target language (L2) which were different from one's mother tongue (L1) were consequently to cause problems in learning, as learners had no habits to follow from. As MacDonald Lightbound (2005) states, the logic was that "when learning a second language a person will tend to use mother tongue structures in second language production, and where L1 structures differ from the L2, mistakes will be made" (p. 66). Finding out the differences and similarities of individual pairs of languages was

thus believed to be enough to handle the problems arising in teaching. Based on that view, it was believed that "contrastive analysis can highlight and predict the difficulties of pupils" (Richards, 1984, p. 172). The method therefore concentrated on predicting places of error before any were actually made.

An extreme claim of Contrastive Analysis stated that all errors in language learning were caused by interference, or transfer, from L1 into L2. "If two languages 13 were similar, positive transfer occurred, if they were different the transfer would be negative" (MacDonald Lightbound, 2005, p. 66). Interference causing learners to make errors was thus negative transfer. The amount of interference in one's language learning was something CA also predicted: "the less of a bilingual the speaker is, the more interference there will be when he attempts to communicate with speakers of the target language" (Dulay & Burt, 1984, p. 104). On the basis of this knowledge, contrastive analysts believed to be able to predict what and how many errors each learner would produce.

These notions about interference were, however, challenged by growing empirical research in the 1970s. Theoretical expectations raised by CA failed to explain all types of error that in reality occurred. As Richards and Sampson (1984) point out, "errors which did not fit systematically into the native language or target language were, for the most part, ignored" (p. 4). It was often the case that teachers were dissatisfied by findings of CA, as it in fact did not tell them much what they did not know from their practice already. Moreover, many errors noted in classroom were not even predicted by the analysis anyway (Nemser, 1984). As Richards and Sampson (1984) stressed, "the second language learner tries to derive the rules behind the data to which he has been exposed, and may develop hypotheses that correspond neither to the mother tongue nor target language" (p. 6). Even more puzzling was the observation that a large number of learners, no matter what their L1 was, tended to make the same errors. As Dušková (1969) indicated, L1 interference explains only some of the errors involved in learner production, and it does not take into account the interference observed between the forms of the

language being learnt, both in grammar and lexis. Therefore it became evident that CA could not embrace all learning problems and places of making errors.

Contrastive analysis often predicted interference errors only. Apart from these, there are also other types of error; these, however, cannot be explained by interference. Richards (1984) calls these intralingual and developmental errors. As he explains, these "reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition. Their origins are found within the structure of English itself, and through reference to the strategy by which a second language is acquired and taught" (p. 173). Such errors can be expected from anyone learning English as their second language, irrespective of their mother tongue.

Another shortcoming of CA is seen in its preoccupation with merely theoretical descriptions, which often did not even reflect reality. Its close attention to the analysis of two grammars is by some linguists (e.g. Richards and Sampson, 1984) even seen as its major defect. A closer study of performance of actual learners would be preferred here. Logically, language instructors are generally more interested in real difficulties rather than those predicted by theory. It was also claimed that "too much attention was being paid to hypothesising about what the learner may do, to the detriment of studying what s/he actually does" (MacDonald Lightbound, 2005, p. 68). Teachers therefore saw CA as impractical and over-theoretical, as it failed to answer questions concerning differing levels of success in individual language learners.

It would, however, be wrong to claim that findings of contrastive analysis are not predictive at all. As Richards (1984) admits, "Studies of SLA, however, have tended to imply that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the level of phonology, and least predictive at the syntactic level" (p. 172). As Warsi (n.d.) notes, it may be due to the "heavy reliance on structuralistic comparison why contrastive analysis fails to predict such mistakes" (p. 11). It may thus be advisable to rely on CA with respect to 15 problems with pronunciation, but not such a good idea in the case of word order, sentence formation and such.

In general, contribution of contrastive analysis to the study of learner language cannot be denied. S. P. Corder (1984) sums it up in his paper on “The Significance of Learners’ Errors”: The major contribution of the linguist to language teaching was seen as an intensive contrastive study of the systems of the second language and the mother tongue of the learner; out of this would come an inventory of the areas of difficulty which the learner would encounter and the value of this inventory would be to direct the teacher’s attention to these areas so that he might devote special care and emphasis in his teaching to the overcoming, or even avoiding, of these predicted difficulties. (p.19)

He also adds that thanks to CA, the emphasis was shifted away from a “preoccupation with teaching towards a study of learning” (p. 20), although this was rather a side effect of CA than an aim. Bartram and Walton (1991) see contrastive analysis beneficial in the way it shed light on the relationship between learners’ L1 and L2. Nevertheless, they seem to interpret the relationship in a more modern way: “the L1 is a resource which the student uses when, for some reason, the L2 form eludes them. Equally, other languages - an L3 - can be called upon, a habit which seems to us to be natural, intelligent and resourceful, and so to be encouraged” (p. 16). However, they still acknowledge that CA was the first method to shift attention of linguists towards this relationship, although with a slightly different explanation.

Today CA is seen as an explanatory method rather than a predictive one. As Shastri (2010) notes, it “helps us to decide the extent of the interference of L1 in L2” (p. 26). Broughton et al. (2003) have come to the same conclusion and subsequently add: 16 “It [L1 interference] is one of the possible causes for error which the teacher must consider, not a basis on which stands all his teaching” (p. 136). Richards and Renandya (2002) in their paper on “Methodology in Language Teaching” observe that CA has recently given way to theories of equivalence classification, which are more sophisticated. In these theories, “learners approach a new sound system by mapping it onto their L1 sound system, using existing categories where similarities exist and create new categories for unfamiliar features” (p. 181). This view of

language learning is more complicated than CA and seems to embrace the complexity of the process more precisely.

1.4. ERROR ANALYSIS

In the late 1960s and early 1970s emphasis was shifted from contrastive analysis to error analysis (EA). One of the main reasons, as mentioned in the previous section, was the fact that CA was unable to explain all errors in language learning, as it is not possible to ascribe them all to differences between L1 and L2. Moreover, some of the predicted errors did not even appear in practice (see e.g. Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Thus there was a need for a new linguistic method, which consequently took form of error analysis. One of the major proponents of error analysis was Stephen Pit Corder.

Error analysis was established as an alternative to contrastive analysis. Both methods explain sources of error, but in different ways. CA sees errors as results of L1 interference only. EA, on the other hand, "accepts many sources of errors such as intralingual interference, overgeneralization, misteaching and the role of the variables of age, attitude, aptitude, motivation etc." (Shastri, 2010, p. 25). An important point that EA made was that many learners often wrongly inferred rules of their L2, which then caused a large number of errors.

It is important to stress that EA not only explored sources of error, but also many other aspects of error and language learning. As Yang (2010) states, Error Analysis is the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language. The novelty of EA, distinguishing it from CA, was that the mother tongue was not supposed to enter the picture. Errors could be fully described in terms of the TL, without the need to refer to the L1 of the learners (p. 1).

The shift of focus from learners' mother tongue onto the target language is the major aspect that distinguishes EA from the preceding methods. Another important

change was that errors were not only predicted, but mainly observed, analysed and classified.

Similarly to contrastive analysis, EA also compares utterances in two "languages" – the learner's language with the target language. In the study of language learning, as Corder (1981) specifies, "we are interested in the relation of what has been taught so far with the learner's knowledge at that same point" (p. 57). These two utterances compared can be regarded as synonymous, or rather as equivalent. Errors are identified by comparing the erroneous utterances with correct utterances in the L2 having the meaning originally intended by the learner. As Corder explains, "We can regard the reconstructed utterances as translations of the learner's utterances into the target language" (p. 37). In this aspect, EA is very much like contrastive analysis.

The process of analysing an error has three stages. According to Shastri (2010), these are identification, reconstruction and description of error. First of all, one needs to identify an utterance as being erroneous (or idiosyncratic as referred to by Corder). Such idiosyncratic utterance is then compared with the L2 and an utterance with the same meaning is reconstructed. The final stage of the analysis is a description of how and why the idiosyncratic utterance occurred (for more detail, see Corder (1984), pp. 166-179).

Error analysts frequently came up with various error typologies. The most widely spread division was between errors (systematic) and mistakes (accidental). From that, error typologies were derived. To illustrate the point, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), in their summary of intralingual errors (those that are not traceable to L1 interference), identified four types: overgeneralization, simplification, communicationbased errors, and induced errors. S. P. Corder (1984) offers a similar typology, although with slight changes. Each of these categories is always clearly defined and distinguished from the others, which makes it easy to categorise all errors. These typologies will be paid closer attention further in the paper in the section on Types of Error.

Despite the "sophisticated" process of analyzing errors, since its very beginning, EA was said to lack methodological rigour and to be limited in its scope (Ellis, 1985). As MacDonald Lightbound (2005) claims, one of the problems was that several researchers "have pointed out the negative attitude reflected in its analysis of 'what is wrong' or deviant in the learners' IL, while ignoring the achievements" (p. 74). Furthermore, the various typologies of error were problematic, too. In theory, it is very simple to distinguish between different kinds of error – not so much in real practice though. It was often impossible for teachers or researchers to find out what kind of error a learner was making. Last but not least, it was impossible to analyse errors such as avoidance of certain forms, which learners used when they needed to get by without an unfamiliar form.

Finally, it is necessary to mention that the transition from CA to prevailing error analysis was not as linear as it might seem. As MacDonald Lightbound (2005) claims,

…until the proponents of two different views come to a mutual agreement that recognizes the importance of taking into account both ends of the pendulum, i.e. L1 interference and intralingual interference, there have been dramatic swings from one extreme to the other, which serve at best, to cause confusion among applied linguists working in the field of SLA. (p. 107-8)

It would thus be misleading to assume that EA globally took over the previous methods. As it seems, it took some time to establish a balance between the two methods (CA and EA), with error analysis gradually dominating the field. MacDonald Lightbound (2005) sees the reasons for its resulting dominance in its greater universality: "EA adopted a more balanced view with regard to the role of the MT in second language learning environments. Intralingual errors are liable to be committed by learners from all around the globe regardless of their L1" (p. 108). Despite its initial struggles, it thus seems that EA prevailed thanks to its more general applicability.

Error analysis was at its peak in the 1970s and 1980s; after that, however, its influence began to fade. Since then, "researchers working more on matters related

to error gravity, and causes of error, in particular, transfer or cross-linguistic influence. In this sense, it has never totally disappeared from the language learning scenario, continuing to be a more widespread practice than it is duly given credit for" (James, 1998, p. 18). Continually, it has given way to the communicative approach, which keeps prevailing still today and is a largely dominant practice overall.

1.5. MONITOR MODEL

Krashen's Monitor Model of Second Language Learning is probably the most discussed and fully-elaborated model of second language (SL) learning. The model is made up of five hypotheses, but only hypotheses relevant for this study will be mentioned.

The first hypothesis, called acquisition-learning hypothesis, observes the difference between language acquisition and language learning. On the basis of this hypothesis, language acquisition happens when, for example, children unintentionally acquire their first language during the early phases of language development. On the other side, language learning takes place when a student intentionally studies the rules of a particular language. (Krashen, 1982) Basically, language acquisition is a daily process of absorbing language from our environment for the purpose of communication, while language learning relates to the action involving studying the rules and structures of language (Diaz-Rico, 2004). Krashen (1984) further states that the process of language acquisition is innate. Error correction might have little or no effect on the process. However, neither he nor anyone else has been able to prove this statement. The third hypothesis of Krashen's model, Monitor Hypothesis, is also relevant to the error correction discussion. It claims that the rules learned by students contribute marginally to their language skills, as the language rules are mainly used to simplify students' language output, whereas comprehensible input is enough for SL acquisition. To put it differently, language rules act as a monitor that is utilized by a SL learner to produce changes to

the output of SL before or after a statement is made. Due to this fact, the language rules might have a minor effect on language formation, because the output formed by a learner is monitored by the acquired language structures. This hypothesis also claims that the rules learned by a learner have a narrow application in communication. Hence, a student who has learned all the rules of language is not able to use these rules to a greater extent and the usefulness of these rules is rather limited. To sum up, monitor hypothesis asserts that error correction has no significant effect on the language acquisition process (Krashen, 1982).

Major (1988) claims in his work that students who ignore the importance of grammatical competence will likely overlook errors completely as long as their writing output is intelligible. As a consequence, learners usually create applicable, but grammatically incorrect sentences. This was proven by Lightbown and Spada's (1990) study, which focused on the effect of written error correction in communicationoriented classrooms that consisted of one hundred adult SL students. It was found out that the learners who scarcely received corrective feedback were less accurate in their writings than those who received corrective feedback regularly. This study has shown that a regular provision of corrective feedback by teaching grammatically correct forms is helpful in the development of communication skills

1.6. COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

Communicative approach is nowadays the most widespread method of language teaching. Rather than a method, it is regarded as a universal approach to teaching. The approach began to gain importance as early as the late 1970s. In those years, customarily used approaches seemed inadequate when the learners were rushed to learn a language or when their natural language skills were not sufficient. There was therefore demand for a new teaching approach which would focus on the interaction and fluency of language.

There are many aspects in communicative language teaching (CLT) that differ from those of the previous methods. The teachers are no more seen as a key aspect

of the learning process. Instead they should appear to be nothing more than participants in communication, which should cause lowering of the tension and remove the barrier between a student and a teacher. A learner is encouraged to be more independent and interaction among all learners in the class is supported. Most importantly, errors are not seen in such a negative way as before and are generally more tolerated. To sum up, the most important features of the approach are the decreased role of a teacher in the class and the increased role of the student's own initiative. (Littlewood, 1994) Another important difference is that CLT predicts that learners are not interested in the complete mastery of language, but more likely in the capability to communicate in a SL without problems. The vast majority of the students want to learn a language in order to use it for communicative purposes. That means that a successful language learner should be one who is able to communicate without problems, rather than someone who has no errors in written exercises. (Bartram and Walton, 1991).

CTL regards an error as something inevitable and natural in the process of language learning. Important factor in deciding whether something is an error is the extent to which it disrupts the flow of communication between subjects, as Hendrich (1988) point out. Doff (1993) have managed to accurately illustrate the positive side of errors in his work. He claims that students' errors are a very useful way of showing what they have and have not learnt. So instead of seeing errors negatively, as a sign of failure, we can see them positively as an indication of what we still need to teach. Obviously, if we try to prevent students from making errors we can never find out what they do not know.

1.7. ERROR AND ERROR CORRECTION IN CLT

It was already suggested that error in language learning has a different place in CLT than it used to have in the earlier methods, such as the grammar-translation one. As Hendrich et al. (1988) observed, the key criterion in the contemporary approach to SLL in deciding whether something is an error or not is the extent of

disruption of communication. Learning anL2 is viewed today as a system of rules that the learner has to acquire, and that "trying out language and making errors are a natural and unavoidable part of this process" (Doff, 1993, p. 187). As Doff adds, this should be far from surprising when we take into account the acquisition of other complex skills, such as mastering chess or learning a musical instrument, where errors are accepted as a natural part of the process. Further on, Doff makes a crucial claim:

Pupils' errors are a very useful way of showing what they have and have not learnt. So instead of seeing errors negatively, as a sign of failure, we can see them positively as an indication of what we still need to teach. Obviously, if we try to prevent students from making errors we can never find out what they do not know (p. 188).

This belief, although pronounced twenty years ago, is still valid today. Errors are generally seen as a sign of learning taking place and students experimenting with language, rather than as signs of their failure or inabilities. Broughton et al. (2003) describe the likely process that goes on in learners' heads when experimenting with their L2 as follows: First of all, the learner makes a guess based on his knowledge of his mother tongue as well as his partial knowledge of the target language. As his competence in the L2 language grows, he keeps refining the originally formulated hypotheses. He thus moves "from ignorance to mastery of the language through transitional stages, and the errors he makes are to be seen as a sign that learning is taking place" (p. 135). It is thus clear that in CLT, errors are seen as an inevitable part of the learning process and that they are far from being viewed as something harmful or negative, which was the case in the earlier approaches to error.

One might ask what implications this new concept of error has for teachers. The main demand on teachers is that they should not correct all errors of their students. As 26 Hubbard et al. (1983) note, "Teachers will also have to allow errors to go uncorrected on many occasions – something which the behaviourist would not feel happy about" (p. 135). This is true of fluency activities mainly, as theory says. At some points, it might even be impossible for teachers to spot all errors, such as

in group or pair work tasks. This, however, might create an internal conflict in some teachers. Their pedagogical role traditionally required from them evaluating learners' performance on the basis of clearly defined criteria. It thus seems that adopting the communicative approach forces the teacher to redefine this traditional role – at least to some extent. This requires teachers to adopt a certain amount of flexibility and open mind. If we, however, want our students to gain confidence, be creative, test out new grammar hypotheses, invent vocabulary, and practise new structures (Bartram & Walton, 1991), then we inevitably need to adopt such approach and let some errors be uncorrected.

This section has introduced the communicative approach towards language learning, which is the prevailing approach used in SLL in general. It has shown its differences from the older approaches and outlined its beneficial aspects. I have pointed out that teachers are regarded as equal to learners, somebody who is a partner in learning to them. Learners are learning more independently and are responsible for their learning more than before. CLT generally aims at being able to communicate freely in a language rather than being perfect. A greater tolerance of error is proposed, too, since errors are understood as a normal and inevitable, sometimes even beneficial part of learning. Hand in hand with this goes the concept of limited error correction – not all errors should be corrected; the key in deciding on error treatment is the level of comprehensibility or, the level of disruption of communication. This is because the process of learning a foreign language is seen as constant hypotheses (re)formulation during which errors work as signs of learning taking place. The next part of the paper will deal with error in language learning and present the various views held on it. I will also describe the differing approaches towards error in learning first and second languages. A short section will be dedicated to errors in native speech, too.

1.8. ERROR DEFINITION

If one wants to engage in the error correction study, he should first define what the term error stands for. Nevertheless, errors are often difficult to recognize, because they always depend on some sort of a norm (van Els et al. 1984). The most applied attitude is to cope with the language students' errors in relation to the native speakers' language and norms. Corder (1967) advocated that the term error ought to refer to a regular pattern in students' utterance that does not consistently correspond with the target language model. Therefore, errors are a component of the actual interlanguage system of a student, and hence not identified as incorrect by the student.

One of the most notable definitions of error is the one created by Lennon (1991), who also included the native speaker norm into the definition. He proposed that an error is a linguistic form that in the same context would not most probably be produced by a native speaker of the language.

Even though there are so many definitions based on the native speaker language norms, it is apparent that the definitions created in such way are problematic. Nowadays, the most of the language teachers are not native speakers of the language they teach. In practice, this means that students are permanently exposed to the nonnative language model, so the language used in the classrooms might be different from the native speaker norm. Moreover, teachers are more focused on students' abilities to communicate the message, rather than a grammatical level of the language (Allwright and Bailey, 1991).

In the classroom context, the error definition faces yet another challenge. It happens from time to time that a teacher does not accept a student's response not because it was somewhat non-native or linguistically incorrect, but rather because the 18 teacher wanted or anticipated different response in that sort of situation. There is an error definition looking at the issue from this perspective and it defines the error as a "form unwanted by the teacher" (George 1972, quoted by Allwright and Bailey 1991, 85). In such cases, it is very complicated to define an error, as it is

exclusively a classroom-related effect instead of the language characteristics. In such situation, a teacher should always clearly state that the form which a student produced was linguistically correct so as to avert additional confusion in the classroom.

There is **a definition of an error** which is the most appropriate for the purpose of this study, since it combines both aspects discussed above. Chaudron (1986, quoted by Allwright and Bailey 1991, 86) suggested that an error is: 1) "linguistic forms or content that differ from native speaker norms or facts, and 2) any other behaviour signalled by the teacher as needing improvement".

1.9. ERROR VERSUS MISTAKE

It is a common practice to regard error and mistake as synonymous terms. SLL theory, however, distinguishes between the two terms, although such distinctions are not identical in all books. In this section, I will thus present definitions of error and mistake in several prominent dictionaries of English language and show how literature on SLL deals with this problem. I will also provide a clear distinction between the two terms, which is used in this paper.

Dictionaries seem to regard mistake as a more general term than error. Cambridge Online Dictionary of British English provides us with a simple definition of error: "error: a mistake" (Cambridge Dictionary Online). Mistake, on the other hand, is explained in more detail: "an action, decision or judgment which produces an unwanted or unintentional result" (Cambridge Dictionary Online). Exactly the same situation occurs in the Oxford Dictionary – error is simply defined as a mistake. A mistake is again given more space and is defined as "an act or judgement that is misguided or wrong" (Oxford Online Dictionary). Not surprisingly, Macmillan Dictionary follows the same pattern and only adds that error is a "mistake, for example in a calculation or a decision" (Macmillan Dictionary). Mistake is then defined as "something that you have not done correctly, or something you say or think that is not correct" (Macmillan Dictionary). From these definitions it is clear

that these dictionaries regard error and mistake as synonymous. The only aspect in which they differ is the precise wording of individual definitions of mistake. At its core, however, all are more or less the same and too vague for our purposes. It is thus necessary to turn to literature on SLA.

It is a commonly acknowledged fact that it was S. P. Corder (1984) who first introduced the error vs. mistake distinction. In his paper The significance of learners' errors he puts down the distinction as follows:

It will be useful therefore hereafter to refer to errors of performance as mistakes, reserving the term error to refer to the systematic errors of the learner from which we are able to reconstruct his knowledge of the language to date, i.e. his transitional competence. (p. 25).

He also adds that the difference between the two lies in the fact that mistakes are of no significance to the language learning process. This distinction between the two is the most commonly used one: Allwright & Bailey (1991), Hubbard et al. (1983), or Bartram & Walton (1991) all adopt Corder's distinction. We thus refer to errors in case that learners lack knowledge about a certain aspect of the target language or by creating wrong hypotheses about it; when they try out something they have not learned yet and get it wrong then we speak about errors. Mistake, on the contrary, are caused by confusions, temporary lapses of memory, slips of the tongue etc. Thus when learners do not put into practice something they have already learned, mistakes occur.

In the distinction between errors and mistakes it is vital not to forget about the criterion of correction, which makes a difference, too. As Allwright & Bailey (1991) point out, "L2 learners can often correct their own mistakes, but the errors they make … are part of their current system of interlanguage rules and hence are not recognisable (to the learners themselves) as wrong" (p. 92). If the learner is inclined or able to selfcorrect, we assume that the deviant utterance is a mistake. When, however, the learner is not able or not inclined to perform self-correction, we shall assume that it is an error. The same criterion of correctability is applied by Carl James (1998) and Hubbard et al. (1983). As James (1998) observes, the test of auto-

correctability is, however, rather problematic to apply in real situations. Determining what is a mistake or an error is a problem of some difficulty and as Corder (1984) noted, it requires a "much more sophisticated study and analysis of errors than is usually accorded them" (p. 25). It is indeed true that teachers cannot carry out any extensive analyses of the pupils' deviant utterances in their lessons. Although we can never be absolutely sure, the autocorrectability test can tell us to a certain extent whether we are dealing with an error or a mistake.

Error and mistake are frequently distinguished on the basis of systematicness, too: when there is a random occurrence of a deviance only, we call it a mistake; when it is of a more systematic nature, then we regard it as an error (MacDonald Lightbound, 2010). This distinction, however, seems to be rather unclear. Already more than fifty years ago, in the sphere of philosophy, Wittgenstein (1958) argued that there is no sharp line between a random mistake and a systematic error. In the case of SLL, it is rather difficult to distinguish the nature of a deviance. According to MacDonald Lightbound (2010), The mere repetition of a particular deviant form does not always mean that it is a systematic error in the learner's IL – it indicates that under certain conditions, where students have to comprehend and produce language at high speed, they may be paying more attention to meaning than to form (p. 81). Under different conditions, learners will behave differently and apply different strategies; as a result, they might be making errors more or less systematically. During an exam, students will try hard not to make any errors; under other conditions, however, such as in a conversation with foreigners outside classroom, they might be making much more errors: in this case, "errors may be due more to the mode of communication (e.g. casual conversation) than to any deficiency in their linguistic competence" (MacDonald Lightbound, 2005, p. 81). The question of systematicness is thus rather problematic, too. To a certain extent, however, it can signal whether we are dealing with an error or a mistake, and thus may be useful after all. When we also consider whether 48 we are dealing with something unknown to learners, or just temporary lapses of memory and putting into practice something learned, we should be more or less able to decide whether we are dealing with errors

or mistakes. This knowledge will then be crucial for deciding on correction and dealing with the deviant utterance as a whole.

1.10. TYPOLOGY AND WAYS OF CATEGORIZING ERRORS

Language scientists have divided errors in many different ways throughout the history. First of them, Burt (1975), divided errors into two categories: local errors and global errors. Local errors influence a single element in the sentence, but most often are not a significant barrier to communication. These are, for example, errors connected to nouns, verbs inflections, articles and auxiliaries. On the other side, global errors are those which have a significant impact on the clarity of communication and are “those that affect overall sentence organization, such as wrong word order, missing, wrong, or misplaced sentence connectors” (p. 56). Burt also claims that the correction of just one global error helps much more to clarify a given statement than the correction of a few local errors. He also points out that errors which are most frequent ought to be the first errors that a teacher points out to a learner.

Another research by Mackey et al. (2000) classified four types of errors while analysing the SL interaction data. These four error types which caused teachers to correct learners were connected to phonology, morphosyntax, lexis and semantics. Phonological error denoted incorrect pronunciation, morphosyntactic error denoted a missing -s in a plural form and a missing preposition in, lexical error stood for an unsuitable lexical item and semantic error denoted a wrong meaning or formulation. Some scientists have also created a category which is applicable only to one target language. For instance, Yoshida (2008), used Mackey’s coding scheme added more categories which included Japanese Kanji errors. Thus, Yoshida divided errors into five types instead.

One of the most elaborated divisions of errors was performed in the book Errors Language Learning and Use by Carl James (1998). He classified four main

categories of errors: substance errors, discourse errors, lexical errors and grammatical errors. Substance errors contain misspellings, e.g. punctuation or typographic errors, and mispronunciations which occur when a learner is trying to speak readily and unprepared. There is another differentiation in the mispronunciation category, whether it is a phonological error - a learner speaks unprepared; or a miscue - a learner reads an extract from a piece of prose aloud. Nevertheless, this distinction is not applicable in this study, because it is focused on errors in language learning and both of those activities are characteristic in the language learning process.

Another category, discourse errors, encompass errors that occur in the language formation (coherence and pragmatics errors), and the reception (misunderstanding and incorrect processing). Pragmatic errors occur when speakers use their linguistic knowledge and the pragmatic force of their statement is inappropriate for what the statement is meant to execute or how significant its rhetorical force ought to be. For instance, in English, the way of pronouncing the word please determines whether it is a command or a polite request.

Lexical errors can be subdivided into formal errors, like misformations or distortions, and semantic errors, like collocational errors. James (1998) asserts that the pupils usually suppose that vocabulary is extremely important in the language learning, occasionally they even think that when they learn the vocabulary they learn the language. Still, lexical errors are the most common error type in many learner groups (p. 143). Native speakers regard them as more disturbing and annoying than any other kind of errors.

Lastly, there are **Grammatical errors** which have two subcategories. One subcategory consists of morphological errors and the other of errors in syntax. A morphological 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 (p. 154). Prepositions are not a part of this definition, as they do not possess any morphology. Into morphological errors category belong, for example, leaving out the third person - s (she know Paul) or using the past tense -ed too often (she

camed here). These types of errors are deemed as quite basic, but persistent among the pupils even on the upper levels. On the other side, syntax errors have an influence on phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraphs with regard to, for instance, phrase structures or inter-sentence cohesion.

The purpose of this study is to survey the students' opinions in relation to errors. That is why the error classification by James (1998) was used. It is quite easily recognizable by grammar school pupils, whose knowledge of the linguistics and the ability to examine their own errors is rather limited. It was vital that the error categories that were included in the pupils' questionnaire were as unambiguous as possible, so that the students would not have difficulties to comprehend the questions. Otherwise, the students would be confused and unable to answer the questions appropriately.

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) claim that there are two basic ways of categorizing learners' errors and that is into either linguistics categories (morphology, phonology, etc.) or surface structure taxonomies (errors of addition, omission, etc.). Corder (1981) argues that the most frequent classification of errors lists errors of omission (where some element is omitted that should actually be present); errors of addition (where some element is present though it should not be there); errors of selection (where a wrong form was selected in place of the right one); and errors of ordering (where the items presented are selected correctly, but placed in a wrong order). According to Corder, however, such classification is too superficial and thus a more adequate one "in terms of systems, such as tense, number, mood, gender, case, and so on" (p. 37) is needed. This belief is in agreement with what Christison & Krahnke (1983) observe when they state that a classification based on linguistic types "is a more familiar way of categorizing error and is possibly of more immediate use to classroom teachers" (p. 635) and thus a more practical one is needed. In this approach, sources of error are ignored in favour of "the part of the linguistic system which is ill-formed" (Christison & Krahnke, 1983, p. 635); examples can be article omission, third person singular verb endings, etc. The authors also explain when such analysis can be to a good use.

Classification by linguistic type can be a useful analytic procedure and can provide a useful basis for instructional intervention as long as the classification is not mistaken for a psychologically real analysis of the process by which the errors are produced or for a hierarchy of the communicative effect of errors (p. 635).

When such conditions are met, then linguistic classifications can be useful not only to linguists, but more importantly to classroom practice, too.

Hubbard et al. (1983) come up with a simple linguistic classification of errors, where they list only two categories – *Grammatical* (She told [them] she was on holiday) and *Lexical* (She told said she was on holiday). Within the lexical category, there are two types: errors in the chain of language (To school should have gone Maria) and errors in choice of individual words or word forms (Mary is knowing the answer). Out of these, as Yang (2010) points out, the lexical errors are considered by native speakers as more disruptive and irritating than the grammatical ones. Others, such as Politzer & Ramírez (1973) include categories of morphology, syntax, and vocabulary, while Green & Hecht (1985) list grammar, vocabulary, spelling and style as categories of errors.

Choděra (2006) lists four categories from the linguistic aspect, too, although he mentions slightly different ones: grammatical, lexical, spelling and phonetic errors. It is interesting to note that all these classifications agree on the group of lexical errors (errors of vocabulary) and otherwise employ differing angles of view and thus different categories. Based on a corpus of spoken language, Chun et al. (1982) distinguished **five categories**:

o ***Discourse errors*** (errors beyond the sentence level and including structural/pragmatic aspects including inappropriate openings and closings, incorrect topic switches, inappropriate refusals, etc.)

o ***Factual errors*** (including those concerning the factual knowledge or truth value of an utterance)

o ***Word choice errors*** (incorrect choice or addition of a noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, etc.)

o ***Syntactic errors*** (tense agreement, morphology, word order, etc.)

o ***Omissions*** (involving the incorrect omission of nouns, verbs, auxiliaries, articles, etc.) (cited in MacDonald Lightbound, 2005, p. 88).

This classification seems to be, as MacDonald Lightbound (2010) observes, a hybrid one, as it is not built up around a single classifying aspect, but rather combines several into a mixed classification (i.e. is not purely linguistic). There are, however, quite a few such classifications that do not consider one single factor only, but rather mix more of them together – Chun et al. are not at all an exception.

A detailed classification comes from Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) who proposed to classify errors based on how they differ from the L2 structures. Similarly to Corder (1981), they state the categories of omission, addition, misordering, and misformation (Corder calls it errors of selection). Besides these, the authors identify blends (also called contamination, or cross-association or hybridization errors) which occur when two alternative grammatical forms are combined to produce an ungrammatical blend, i.e. *according to her opinion. This type of taxonomy is a surface-structure one; as such, it is more useful to immediate use to teachers, since such categories are much easier to recognize (James 1998). Although, as Corder (1981) claims, it might be less academic. On the other hand, it is not a hybrid classification and seems to cover the whole range of possible deviations; as such, it could turn out to be of a good use to classroom practice. James himself uses an even more detailed classification that takes into consideration several factors – but it is far too complicated to be mentioned here.

1.11. DEFINITION OF ERROR CORRECTION

Error treatment is a complex phenomenon and it is important to note that it is not synonymous to error correction. Before I move to individual types of error correction and the various decisions teachers have to make before performing any correction, it is necessary to clearly define what is meant by error correction in general.

As Brown (2007) explains, not all error treatment automatically includes error correction: “Error treatment encompasses a wide range of options, one of which – at the extreme end of a continuum – may be considered to be a correction” (p. 348). Correction is thus only a subcategory of treatment of error. Apart from treatment, some linguists, such as Christison & Krahnke (1983) use the term repair, which they define as “any conversational move which occurs because there is some real or perceived difficulty in the conversation” (p. 633). Like treatment, repair is a more general term than correction; correction is therefore one type of repair. In this paper, we will deal with error correction only.

The term error correction is generally used in SLL in several meanings. Typically, it refers to a corrective activity aimed at elimination of a recognized discrepancy (Kulič, 1971). Jefferson et al. (1977) state that the term usually refers to the “replacement of an 'error' or 'mistake' by what is 'correct'” (p. 363). Carl James (1998) observes that there are three main meanings of the term correction:

1. Informing the learners that there is an error and leaving them to discover it and repair it themselves.

2. Providing treatment or information that leads to the revision and correction of the specific error without aiming to prevent the same error from recurring later. In addition to indicating that the present attempt is wrong, the corrector can specify how and where, suggest an alternative, give a hint.

3. Providing learners with information that allows them to revise or reject the wrong rule they were operating with when they produced the error. Although this three-way definition looks concise, I would object to the first meaning mentioned. When the teacher lets learners to correct themselves and only signals that an error or a mistake has been made, then we cannot talk about error correction, but rather error treatment or feedback in general.

Correction should by no means be understood as criticism or punishment of errors. As Julian Edge (1989) points out, “Correction is a way of reminding students of the forms of Standard English” (p. 20). When correcting, teachers help students become more accurate in their L2 performance. It should not mean “insisting on

everything being absolutely correct" (Edge, 1989, p. 33); on the contrary, correction should be perceived as a means of helping learners on their way to mastering the L2, not as a tool for reaching perfection. For that purpose, Bartram & Walton (1991) prefer the term managing to correcting, as they believe that the outcome of an erroneous utterance 67 should be the same as of a correct one: the students will make progress (Bartram & Walton, 1991).

CHAPTER 2. CRITERIA OF ERROR CORRECTION AND IMPROVING STUDENTS SPEAKING SKILLS

2.1. ERROR CORRECTION STAGES AND CRITERIA FOR DEALING WITH SPOKEN ENGLISH

The process of error correction in oral practice consists of several stages. As MacDonald Lightbound (2005) observes, the simple process of locating an error is much more difficult in oral production than it is in writing. Before analysing individual decisions teachers have to make during corrections, I will thus have a brief look at the individual stages of error correction.

Linguists are not at one in identifying individual stages of working with error. Hendrich et al. (1988) identify three stages: identification (an error has occurred), interpretation (type of the error) and correction (suggesting an acceptable solution). Although Broughton et al. (2003) identify three stages, too, they are slightly different: In the first stage, teachers establish what the error is; subsequently, they establish possible sources of the error in order to be able to work out an effective strategy of dealing with it; in the final stage, teachers decide on the seriousness of the error and decide whether correction should be provided (for more detail, see Broughton et al., 2003, p. 136-7). The most detailed staging of the process of dealing with an error is provided by Choděra (2006), who identifies five separate phases: detection (noting an error has been made), identification (identifying the type of error), interpretation of sources (identifying possible reasons for error), correction (dealing with the error) and finally prevention (remedial teaching, more practice etc.). The last stage is only optional and does not necessarily need to be present; teachers may also decide in the fourth stage against correction. Overall, this classification of stages seems to be the most fitting with respect to the complicated process leading to correction and the correction itself.

According to Corder (1981), locating errors in learners' utterances is logically achieved by comparing what is said with what the teacher believes the learner wanted to say. Corder calls those correct utterances reconstructed utterances (p. 37).

This is done, as Corder explains, by comparing the learner's performance with "the target language's code and identifying the differences" (p. 54). I must, however, partially disagree with Corder on this: we cannot compare learners' utterances with the target language code in general, since then we would have to be correcting not having used present perfect tense even though the learner might not be familiar with the tense yet. More likely, we compare the learner's performance with an ideal model of the learner's interlanguage – that is, we compare the utterance only with the part of the L2 the learner should ideally be familiar with. In doing so, we get a more reliable image of the learner's utterance than by comparing it with the whole L2.

Linguists are still examining the five questions which Hendrickson (1978) put forth:

1. *Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?*

This question is the first one that needs to be answered if one wants to plunge into the error correction field. Most of the learners expect the teachers to correct their errors, because it is generally what the language teachers are supposed to do in their lessons. Nativists have claimed that the negative evidence, which informs the learner what will not work for him in the given language, is in the most effective case unproductive and at the worst case counterproductive in SL learning. However, not all negative feedbacks ought to be considered as a negative feature. Some types of recasts, especially if they are significantly implicit, might be determined as a positive feature. Krashen (1994) argues that the activities during which students feel uncomfortable, for instance, correction feedback and explanation of grammar, are not effective in SL learning. He also points out that corrective feedback (CF) is only beneficial when students are ready to learn. Therefore, the most important question is whether the CF will help students to learn the correct form more easily, or will be pointless until they achieve such stage of interlanguage development that they will be able to use CF to their advantage. The problem is, nonetheless, that if the teacher decides not to correct an error, the other students will probably presume that the

form is not erroneous. This can result in students' internalization of the forms that are incorrect, i.e., fossilization.

There are also those who claim that error correction has a positive influence on SL learning. Hendrickson (1978), for example, claims that when an error of a SL student is corrected, it has a greater impact on his proficiency than when it remains uncorrected. Many other linguists are convinced that error correction feedback is beneficial for language learners. Some of them are presented onwards.

Rauber and Gil (2004) found out in their study that the learners prefer to be corrected rather than not, because according to students' opinions corrective feedback is an essential part of the language learning process. Dekeyeser (1993) is also convinced that the error correction is beneficial to SL learners and he presents the factors that determine whether the benefit is present and to what degree.

Truscott (1999) points out that the inconsistent correction of grammatical errors might be even worse if not equally bad as no error correction at all. He also claims that error feedback inconsistencies are unavoidable, therefore there ought to be no oral grammar correction whatsoever. However, Lyster, Lightbown, and Spada (1999) argue whether such level of consistency in error correction is needed. Furthermore, they consider such consistency level as unattainable and limiting. A study performed by Hendrickson (1978) indicates that it is easier to establish a student-supportive environment when only some learners' errors are corrected rather than all of them.

2. *When Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?*

The second question, when should learner errors be corrected, has been discussed widely among the linguists. Havranek (2002) suggests that the CF should 25 follow after errors which are related to simple rules, for instance, a verb ending and a role of auxiliary do when forming negative statements and questions. She claims that grammatical errors correction rather than correction of lexical rules leads to better results in consequent language testing. When correction of a grammatical error is performed, the learner is instructed or else reminded of the given rule and about its correct application.

Dekeyeser (1993) studied error correction developmental readiness of the learners and his study indicated that CF could possibly deepen the gap between the language development levels of learners when used without deliberation. His findings also indicate that a learner's language proficiency is not the only determining factor of a learner's readiness, but there are other factors like anxiety or motivation. Accomplished learners, who were able to score better in the pretesting, also fared better in the second tests which were distributed after CF of the first tests had been carried out. Learners with the lower anxiety levels also received better scores from the grammar tests which ensued after methodical CF.

Focus on Form, which is a brief focus on grammar during a conversation activity or a lesson that is either planned or spontaneous, is promoted by a lot of studies as the best option for CF during communication activities. In a study by Loewen (2004), it was found that the CF in the case of Focus on Form resulted in an uptake in almost three-quarters of the cases. If the uptake is regarded as a measure that the learners are aware of the CF, and hence it is most probably beneficial for them, then Loewen's (2004) study shows that the CF is highly effective in Focus on Form context. Nevertheless, as Leeser (2004) concluded, students with higher levels of proficiency are more likely to benefit more from Focus on Form approach than those with lower levels of proficiency.

The need for consistency in CF has been questioned many times. Truscott (1999) asserted that a reason for the inconsistency in CF is vindication for a complete termination of CF. Lyster, Lightbown and Spada (1999) were against this extreme opinion. A study by Yoshida (2008), proved the existence of inconsistencies in the correction of oral errors in the language lessons. Teachers showed inconsistencies in how, when and whose errors they corrected in the classroom. As for the reasons for those inconsistencies, the teachers doubted students' ability to comprehend the feedback, and concern that their explicit CF will influence students' self-esteem negatively.

3. *Which Learner Errors Should Be Corrected?*

A study among Japanese students of English by Katayama (2007) showed that the majority of students prefer correction of pragmatic errors and errors disrupting the conversation. Over ninety percent of the students who were questioned in a study by Cathcart and Olsen's (1976) favoured being corrected all the time or most of the time. However, after the practice during which they were corrected every time they erred, the students complained that it was difficult to speak coherently in the second language when being interrupted so often.

Hendrickson (1978) claimed that when the teachers left some errors uncorrected, the students were more relaxed when producing speech than in the situation where teachers corrected all the errors. He came to the conclusion that although the errors ought to be corrected, the correction of all errors is undesirable, or at least not achievable. Havranek (2002) proposes that correction is most beneficial when concerned errors include simple grammar rules, like verb endings and the auxiliary do. It is an example of a study which shows that the type of error can be the most important factor in the decision whether CF is needed. Teachers most likely have their own priorities when deciding which types of errors require CF and these priorities are influenced by the nature of activity in question (Yoshida, 2008). For instance, in communication activities it is indeed important to focus on correction of the errors which disrupt the conversation flow. Hendrickson (1978) asserts that the errors disrupting comprehensibility of a learner's utterance or occur very often should be prioritized in the CF.

4. *How Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?*

Correction can be either oral or written. This study will focus on oral correction. There are two types of oral CF - implicit and explicit. Implicit feedback takes place when a teacher corrects a learner and at the same time does not interrupt the conversation flow. In the case of explicit feedback, a teacher provides corrective feedback openly with emphasis on speech correction. According to Yoshida (2008), implicit feedback is more suitable as it is not that abrupt as explicit feedback and there is also lesser risk of discomfiture and intimidation on the side of the learner. However, the effectiveness of implicit feedback is dependent on the ability of a

student to discern it as the CF and identify the error which has triggered the correction. The student also has to find the correct form to substitute the error.

On the other side, research by Dabaghi (2008) suggests that explicit CF is more effective than implicit CF. His findings based on specifically prepared tests which were distributed eight days after the corrective treatment of students. Furthermore, there is an argument that it is more likely that explicit rather than implicit CF will help the learner to avoid making the error in the future. When uptake, which has been earlier in this thesis, does not follow after the teacher's correction, it does not always mean that the learner is not aware that he erred (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

Another CF distinction was made by Long and Robinson (1998), who divided it into negative and positive feedback. Negative feedback points out to a learner that his speech is faulty in a way. Every feedback which is not negative is positive. Chaudron's (1977) study, which was conducted in French immersion classrooms in Canada, showed that the most successful correction methods are repetition, emphasis and reduction. These methods increased the probability a learner will successfully correct himself to the greatest extent.

The most comprehensible and frequently used CF classification was made by Lyster & Ranta (1997). They divided ***corrective feedback into six types which teachers use to respond to learner errors***:

1. ***Explicit correction*** relates to the straightforward correction of the incorrect form. When the teacher declares the correct form, he clearly indicates that what the student said was erroneous ("You ought to say … instead.").

2. ***Recasts*** happen when the teacher reformulates the statement of the student, however he does not explicitly say where did the error occur.

3. ***Clarification requests*** indicate to learners that either their statement has not been understood by the teacher or it is somehow ill-formed. Therefore, the learner has to repeat or reformulate their statement. Such request includes expressions like "Excuse me?" or similar.

4. ***Metalinguistic feedback*** is focused on providing the learner with comments, information, or questions related to the errors in the learner's statement. However, the teacher does not overtly correct the error, but instead provides the learner with metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, which should help the learner to correct it (For example, "Are you able to identify your error?").

5. ***Elicitation*** is a technique that teachers use to obtain the correction of the error directly from learners. Teachers might either on purpose pause their own statement in order to encourage learners to fill in the rest or ask them to reformulate the statement. Alternatively, teachers might ask questions to students which should help them find the correct answer.

6. ***Repetition***, as the title suggests, is related to the repetition performed by the teacher. This happens in isolation and student's erroneous statement is repeated and usually the teacher uses intonation in order to point out the error.

These six types of errors were adjusted for the purpose of this study, as it must be borne in mind that this study only contains perceptions of SL learners and not any classroom observations or teachers' perceptions. Therefore, only those error correction feedback strategies which learners are able to recognize can be included in the questionnaire used in this study.

5. Who Should Correct Learner Errors?

The answer to this question may seem to be evident, as the overwhelming majority of the respondents would confirm that the teacher is certainly the one capable and authorized to correct the errors. However, there is another group which deserves attention, when it comes to this topic, and those are the students' peers or classmates. Communication exercises in groups or pairs, in which the students can correct each other, should be an essential part of majority of language teaching programmes. Morris and Tarone (2003) conducted a study in which students worked in pairs and corrected each other. The interpersonal struggle among students who considered themselves more proficient and those who considered themselves less proficient, constantly disrupted the CF, because those less proficient frequently failed to realize that they are being corrected. Hence, Morris and Tarone (2003)

asserted that the defensiveness of less proficient students and the frustration of more proficient students have led to a situation where it did not contribute to the CF effectiveness. A study performed by Mackey (2002) showed that when students corrected each other, they noticed the correction in less than half of the cases. Their proficiency level was not taken into account. However, when the native speaker corrected the SL learner, more than three-quarters of corrections were noticed by the learner.

Some of the teachers and learners believe that self-correction is better than correction by the teacher (Yoshida, 2008). However, pointed out in the same study is that learners' capability to correct themselves depends on the error type, given task and learner's proficiency level. It is thought that the self-correction could be beneficial in the language learning, however there is little empirical evidence which could prove this hypothesis (Hendrickson, 1978). James (1998) is also inclined to the opinion that self-correction is beneficial, especially when considering learners' feelings and motivation that are not being damaged by self-correction. He also suggests that teachers should first give their learners some time to correct themselves before they begin to correct them. Moreover, Lyster and Ranta (1997) assert that correction initiated by learners is an important aspect of SL learning as it helps learners to reinforce their knowledge of the second language and rearrange their hypotheses about the second language.

2.2. NEW WAYS OF CORRECTING SPOKEN ERRORS

To save our pupils the embarrassment and in order not to distract them, we can employ less provocative approaches. One way is to make notes of the most common mistakes made by a student to be discussed later. Write them on the board without revealing the name of the student in order not embarrass him/her. Ask the rest of the class to identify these mistakes and correct them. Another way is to raise an eyebrow, or say, "Excuse me?" Or the teacher can ask for repetition without

indicating the mistake. Such methods are not bad, but now there are many new ways of correcting spoken errors.

1. Collect the errors for later

You can then correct them later in the same class (with a game like a grammar auction or just eliciting corrections from the class) or in a future class (for example writing error dictation pairwork worksheets or using the same techniques as can be used in the same class). Make sure you give positive reinforcement as well, e.g. “Someone said this sentence, and that is really good.” (see Appendix 1)

2. Facial expression

For example, raise an eyebrow, tilt your head to one side or give a slight frown. Most people will do this naturally, but there is a slight chance a teacher’s expression will be too critical or too subtle for your students to pick up on, and you can (amusingly) practice facial expressions in a teaching workshop by participants communicating certain typical classroom messages (“move over there to work with this person”, “work in pairs” etc.) using just their heads and faces, including feedback on spoken errors in that list.

3. Body language

The problems with using body language to show errors could also be that it is taken as very serious criticism or that it is too vague. Possibilities include using your hands (rolling a hand from side to side to mean “so-so attempt”; making a circle by moving your index finger to mean “one more time”; or a cross with fingers, open palms or even forearms to show a very clear “no” or “wrong”- probably only suitable for a team game etc where the responsibility is shared), head (tilted to one side to mean “I’m not sure that sounds correct”), or shoulders (hunched to reinforce “I don’t understand what you are saying”). Again, practising this in a teaching workshop can be useful, as can eliciting other body language teachers could have used after an observation.

4. Point at the correct language

If you have something on the correct form easily accessible on the whiteboard, in the textbook or on a poster, just pointing at it can be a subtle but clear way of

prompting students to use the correct language. What you point at could be the name of the tense or word form they are supposed to be using, a verb forms table or the actual correct verb form, a grammatical explanation, or another grammatical hint such as “future”, “prediction” or “polite”.

5. Repeat what they said

This can mean repeating the whole sentence, one section of it including the wrong part, the sentence up to the wrong part, the sentence with the wrong part missed out (with maybe a humming noise to show the gap that should be filled) or just the wrong part. You can illustrate that you are showing them an error and give some hint as to which bit is wrong by using a questioning tone (for everything you say or just for the wrong part). This method is overused by some teachers and can sound patronising if used too often or with the wrong tone of voice, so try to mix up the different versions of it described here and to alternate with methods described in the other tips.

6. Just say the right version

The pupils can then repeat the correct version or tell you what the difference between the two sentences was and why their version was wrong. Because the students don’t do much of the work in this way of being corrected, it might not be as good a way of remembering the correction as methods where you give more subtle clues. Its advantages are that it is quick and suits cultures, classes and students that think of elicitation as shirking by the teacher. It can also be more face-saving than asking them for self-correction, as trying to correct themselves risks making even more mistakes. The “right version” could mean the whole sentence or just the correction of the part that was wrong. In the latter case, you can then ask them to put it into the sentence in the right place and repeat the whole thing.

7. Tell them how many mistakes

This method is only really suitable for controlled speaking practice, but can be a very simple way of giving feedback in that situation. Examples include “Most of the comparatives were right, but you made two mistakes” and “Three words are in the wrong position in the sentence/ are mixed up”. Make sure you only use this

method when students can remember what you are referring to without too much prompting.

Other useful language:

“Very good, but you made just one mistake with the passive”

(For a tongue twister) “Good attempt/ Getting better, but in two places you said /sh/ where it should have been /s/. Can you guess which words?”

8. Use grammatical terminology to identify the mistake

For example, “(You used) the wrong tense”, “Not the Present Perfect”, “You need an adverb, not an adjective” or “Can change that into the passive/ indirect speech?” This method is perhaps overused, and you need to be sure that the grammatical terminology isn’t just going to confuse them more.

Other useful language:

“Because that is the present simple, you need to add the auxiliary (verb) ‘do’”

“Say the same sentence, but with the comparative form”

9. Give the rule

For example, “‘Since’ usually takes the Present Perfect” or “One syllable adjectives make the comparative with –er, not more + adjective” This works best if they already know the rule, and you at least need to make sure that they will quickly understand what you are saying, for example by only using grammatical terminology you have used with them several times before.

10. Give a number of points

This is probably best saved for part of a game, especially one where students work together, but you can give each response a number of points out of 10. The same or other teams can then make another attempt at saying the same thing to see if they can get more points. If you don’t want students to focus on accuracy too much, tell them that the points will also give them credit for good pronunciation, fluency, politeness, persuasiveness and/ or originality of ideas.

Useful language:

"Very good fluency and very interesting, but a few basic mistakes, so I'll give your team a score of (IELTS) 5.5. Practice your script in your team again for 5 minutes and we'll try it one more time"

"You got all the articles right this time, so I'll give you 9 out of 10"

11. Just tell them they are wrong (but nicely)

Positive ways of being negative include "nearly there", "getting closer", "just one mistake", "much better", "good idea, but…","I understand what you mean but…", "you have made a mistake that almost everyone does/ that's a very common mistake", "we haven't studied this yet, but…" and "much better pronunciation, but…" With lower level and new classes, you might have to balance the need to be nice with the need to be clear and not confuse them with feedback language that they don't understand, perhaps by sticking to one or two phrases to give feedback for the first couple of months. It can also be useful to give them translations of this and other classroom language you will use, for example on a worksheet or a poster.

12. Tell them what part they should change

For example, "You need to change the introduction to your presentation" or "Try replacing the third word with something else".

13. Ask partners to spot errors

This is a fairly well-known way of giving feedback in speaking tasks, but it can be a minefield if the person giving feedback has no confidence in their ability to do so or in how well the feedback (i.e. criticism) will be taken, and even more so if the person receiving the feedback will in fact react badly. This method is easier to do and easier to take when they have been told specifically which language to use while speaking and so to look out for when listening, usually meaning controlled speaking practice tasks. The feedback can be made even simpler to give and collect and more neutral with some careful planning, e.g. asking them count how many times their partner uses the target form as well as or instead of looking for when it used incorrectly.

14. Try again!

Sometimes, pupils don't need much help at all but just a chance to do it again. This is likely to be true if you have trained them well in spotting their own errors, if there was some other kind of mental load such as a puzzle to solve that was distracting them from the language, or if they have had a chance to hear someone else doing the same speaking task in the class or on a recording.

Useful language:

"One more time (but think about the grammar more this time/ but concentrating on making less mistakes instead of speaking quickly)"

"Give it another go"

"Do you want one more chance before you get the final score".

15. Remind them when you studied that point

For example, "Nearly right, but you've forgotten the grammar that we studied last week" or "You've made the same mistake as everyone made in the last test".

2.3. ACTION RESEARCH ON IMPROVING PUPILS SPEAKING SKILLS AND ELIMINATING THEIR MISTAKES IN SPEECH

English as an international language plays are more and more important role of our life. English consists of four skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing. To develop these four skills, the English language components of vocabulary, structure, pronunciation, and spelling are taught. One aspect of the English language that many pupils consider very difficult to study is speaking. Speaking is very important because speaking and human being cannot be separated from each other. Speaking is used to express their ideas and to communicate to people in civilized world. But – mistakes... Mistakes are part of our life; we all make mistakes now and then. There is nothing wrong with making mistakes as long as we learn from them and avoid repeating them over and over. Pupils speaking problem can be solved by giving a lot chance to them for practicing English either in the classroom. Practicing speaking English in the classroom should be interested with appropriate technique in order to make pupils speaking skill can be improved and

the process of learning can be enjoyable. One of technique can be used in teaching speaking is storytelling. According to Peck (1989) using the storytelling method learners are exposed to new vocabulary, real context, expressions and pronunciation to be used in oral production. This strategy has been implemented by language teachers all over the world especially in the field of teaching English as a foreign language. This powerful foreign language teaching method empowers teachers to improve students speaking without mistakes.

The aims of the Research

To identify and analyze the mistakes made by pupils in the course of speaking English in the classroom and propose a strategy that could solve these mistakes.

Objectives of the Research

The following objectives were designed to carry out this action research.

1. To identify pupils speaking mistakes.
2. To implement storytelling strategy in 9th form pupils at school to improve their knowledge of vocabulary, structure and grammar.
3. To increase pupils speaking skills.

Problem Identification

I had a pedagogical practice Alternative school KrOK, town Kropyvnytskyi. It’s a school with non-traditional form of studying. I taught English to students in grades 9 (14-year-olds). Class sizes are small (12 pupils). They are intelligent and active children, willing to learn new things and always full of energy. However, even though they would happily do anything I asked them, I noticed that the students at the time of answering the questions admit mistakes in pronunciation and had some vocabulary problems.

My action research study was designed to improve pupils speaking skills by using storytelling strategy. I think, this strategy builds vocabulary and comprehension and acquiring new language structures.

Focusing issue

How can I help my students to speak better?

Action/Intervention

I started the action pre-speaking test. I prepared the questions for speaking test and mistakes detection. Especially, I designed a question for my test: Picture description. I decided to test following types of mistakes:

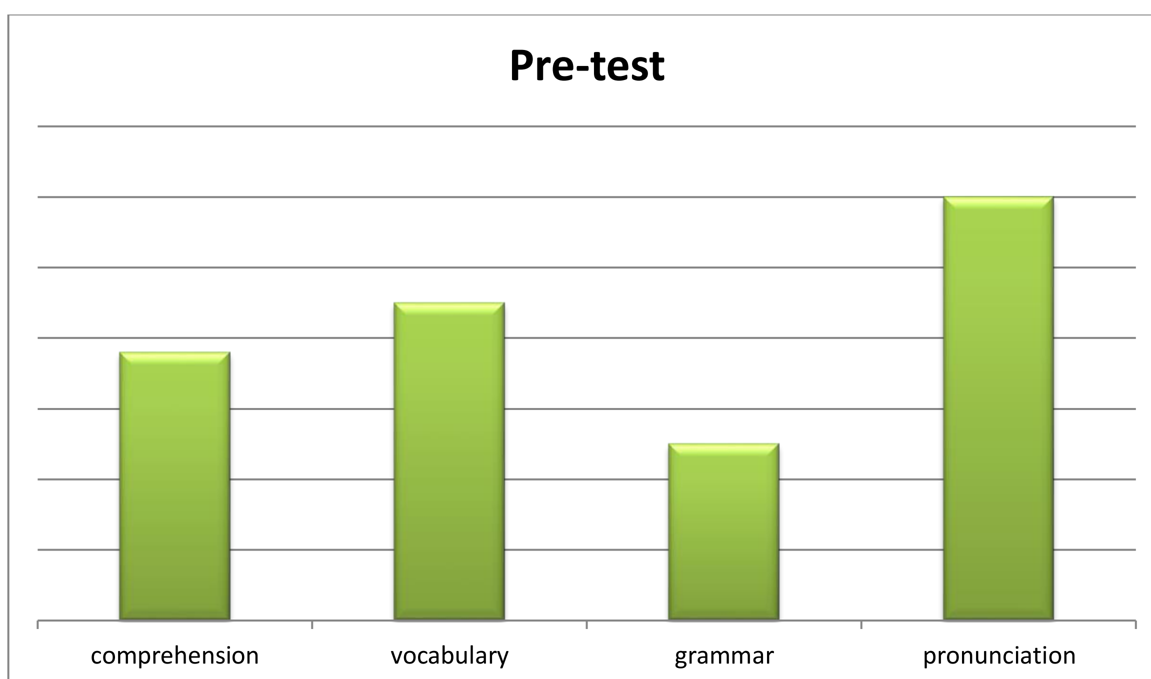
a. Comprehension

b. Vocabulary

c. Grammar

d. Pronunciation

I administered pre-test and analyzed the result of pre-test as follows:



The result showed that my students allow mistakes in pronunciation most of all (72.5% *from 100%*), in vocabulary (59%), in comprehension (50%), in grammar (36%).

Questionnaire

Then, to collect information from my students, I created a Short Student Questionnaire which consisted of three multiple-choice questions:

1. How they feel when they speak English (fine, comfortable or nervous, not confident, insecure)?

The survey results showed that – 38% students feels comfortable, relaxed and fine when they speak English in class. They feel that oral activities in classes will help them to develop accurate speaking skills.

Others – 62% of pupils feel nervous, insecure, and not confident because they do not have a proper or accurate command of the language; its pronunciation and vocabulary. Most of them said they get nervous, lack confidence and feel embarrassed when speaking because they are afraid of making mistakes, and hearing their classmates laugh at their errors.

After the pupils had completed the questionnaires, I also chatted informally with them about the activities they liked or didn't like, and whether they are worried during the speaking.

Implementing the action

I implemented the storytelling technique to improve their speaking without mistakes. First, I divided them into three groups. I presented them a video of a short story. After watching the video, I ask them to tell the same story in groups.

The first group told the beginning of story, the second group told the middle, and the third group told the end of story. They told and retold the story in chain. I presented the video of new story twice a week.

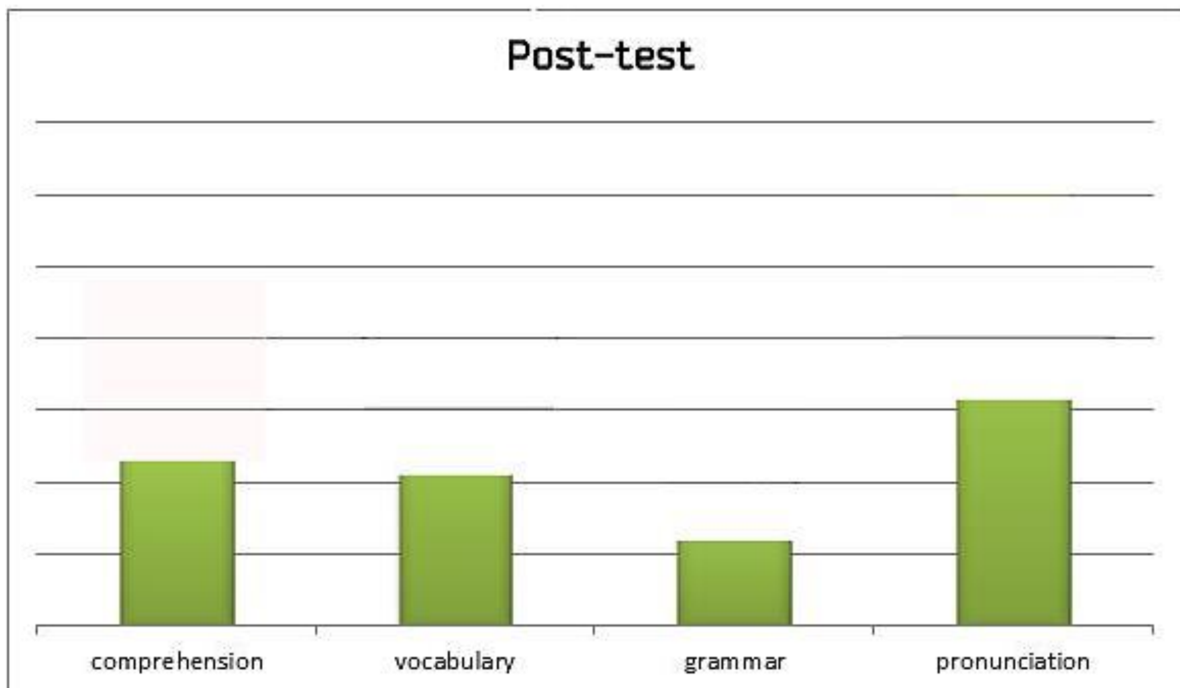
Since the groups consisted of three people, it was possible to easily correct mistakes in the speech of everyone. But I did not interrupt them. If you stop them every time they make mistake, they will never learn to say a full sentence. I corrected the speech mistakes only when the student finished speaking. I always had a positive attitude and correct them in a gentle way.

Observation

After the implementation of the storytelling technique to develop their speaking skills for four weeks, I analyzed the result and found that they improved their speaking. After using this strategy, I found that my students were motivated to speaking English. The shy students also started to speak English better.

On the fourth week was the final storytelling in chain.

I administered pre-test and analyzed the result of pre-test as follows:



The result showed that the students level of mistakes has decreased in comprehension (36.2%), vocabulary (33.3%), grammar (25%), pronunciation (40.3%).

After analyzing the result post-speaking test, I found that storytelling technique helped my students:

1. Feel confident in speaking
2. Learn more new words, enrich vocabulary
3. Improve the pronunciation
4. Construct grammatically correct sentences
5. Improve comprehension by learning new words

6. More talk and do not be afraid to make a mistakes

After analyzing the result obtained in the post speaking test, I found that it helped for improvement, I will continued the techniques and I shared this idea with my fellow teachers and my colleagues in the school.

My aim was achieved and I improved the students speaking skills. As I conducted my research, I found the result as I assumed. In the case of language learning I really do believe the classic saying, ‘you learn from your mistakes’.

CONCLUSIONS

Teachers are often worried when their pupils make errors, because they believe the pupils may learn the errors and keep using them. Therefore teachers think they must avoid this happening and make sure that everything students say must be perfect. This belief originally comes from behaviourism – an approach to language learning, which was dominant in the 1950s and 1960s. It was one of the first schools of thought – if not the very first – which dealt with learners' errors in great depth.

Behaviourist theory was the most prominent psychological theory in the 1950s and this theory also made its way to the field of second language (SL) learning. The idea of the theory, based on habits which are included in language learning, is rooted in psychological theory with the notions of stimulus and response being its keystones. Behaviourist theory saw language learning as a strictly mechanical process. Therefore, the primary source of language acquisition, according to Behaviourists, is the daily exposure to large quantities of language stimuli in the environment. By repetition of responses to these stimuli we develop language habits. This view suggests that language learning is improved when a learner is actively and repeatedly responding to the stimuli. When repeating these responses over and over, habits are formed by way of an automatic response on a particular stimulus. Basically, this theory implies that language learning should be promoted by periodic repetition of the same structures.

From the 1950s till the early 1970s, Contrastive Analysis (CA) was a widespread method in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). It was used for explaining errors made by language learners. Additionally, the method was trying to say why some language features were more difficult for learners to acquire than others. Many researchers at that time carried out contrastive analyses between pairs of languages.

The contrastive analysis theory was built on the behaviourist view of language learning as a mechanical process of habit formation. It was believed that the aspects of the target language (L2) which were different from one's mother tongue (L1) were consequently to cause problems in learning, as learners had no habits to follow from.

As MacDonald Lightbound (2005) states, the logic was that "when learning a second language a person will tend to use mother tongue structures in second language production, and where L1 structures differ from the L2, mistakes will be made" (p. 66). Finding out the differences and similarities of individual pairs of languages was thus believed to be enough to handle the problems arising in teaching. Based on that view, it was believed that "contrastive analysis can highlight and predict the difficulties of pupils" (Richards, 1984, p. 172). The method therefore concentrated on predicting places of error before any were actually made.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s emphasis was shifted from contrastive analysis to error analysis (EA). One of the main reasons, as mentioned in the previous section, was the fact that CA was unable to explain all errors in language learning, as it is not possible to ascribe them all to differences between L1 and L2. Moreover, some of the predicted errors did not even appear in practice. Thus, there was a need for a new linguistic method, which consequently took form of error analysis. One of the major proponents of error analysis was Stephen Pit Corder.

Error analysis was established as an alternative to contrastive analysis. Both methods explain sources of error, but in different ways. CA sees errors as results of L1 interference only. EA, on the other hand, "accepts many sources of errors such as intralingual interference, overgeneralization, misteaching and the role of the variables of age, attitude, aptitude, motivation etc." (Shastri, 2010, p. 25). An important point that EA made was that many learners often wrongly inferred rules of their L2, which then caused a large number of errors.

Krashen's Monitor Model of Second Language Learning is probably the most discussed and fully-elaborated model of second language (SL) learning. The model is made up of five hypotheses, but only hypotheses relevant for this study will be mentioned.

The first hypothesis, called acquisition-learning hypothesis, observes the difference between language acquisition and language learning. On the basis of this hypothesis, language acquisition happens when, for example, children unintentionally acquire their first language during the early phases of language

development. On the other side, language learning takes place when a student intentionally studies the rules of a particular language. Basically, language acquisition is a daily process of absorbing language from our environment for the purpose of communication, while language learning relates to the action involving studying the rules and structures of language. Krashen (1984) further states that the process of language acquisition is innate. Error correction might have little or no effect on the process. However, neither he nor anyone else has been able to prove this statement. The third hypothesis of Krashen's model, Monitor Hypothesis, is also relevant to the error correction discussion. It claims that the rules learned by students contribute marginally to their language skills, as the language rules are mainly used to simplify students' language output, whereas comprehensible input is enough for SL acquisition. To put it differently, language rules act as a monitor that is utilized by a SL learner to produce changes to the output of SL before or after a statement is made. Due to this fact, the language rules might have a minor effect on language formation, because the output formed by a learner is monitored by the acquired language structures. This hypothesis also claims that the rules learned by a learner have a narrow application in communication. Hence, a student who has learned all the rules of language is not able to use these rules to a greater extent and the usefulness of these rules is rather limited. To sum up, monitor hypothesis asserts that error correction has no significant effect on the language acquisition process.

Communicative approach is nowadays the most widespread method of language teaching. Rather than a method, it is regarded as a universal approach to teaching. The approach began to gain importance as early as the late 1970s. In those years, customarily used approaches seemed inadequate when the learners were rushed to learn a language or when their natural language skills were not sufficient. There was therefore demand for a new teaching approach which would focus on the interaction and fluency of language.

There are many aspects in communicative language teaching (CLT) that differ from those of the previous methods. The teachers are no more seen as a key aspect of the learning process. Instead they should appear to be nothing more than

participants in communication, which should cause lowering of the tension and remove the barrier between a pupil and a teacher. A learner is encouraged to be more independent and interaction among all learners in the class is supported. Most importantly, errors are not seen in such a negative way as before and are generally more tolerated. To sum up, the most important features of the approach are the decreased role of a teacher in the class and the increased role of the pupil's own initiative. Another important difference is that CLT predicts that learners are not interested in the complete mastery of language, but more likely in the capability to communicate in a SL without problems. The vast majority of the students want to learn a language in order to use it for communicative purposes. That means that a successful language learner should be one who is able to communicate without problems, rather than someone who has no errors in written exercises.

It was already suggested that error in language learning has a different place in CLT than it used to have in the earlier methods, such as the grammar-translation one. As Hendrich et al. (1988) observed, the key criterion in the contemporary approach to SLL in deciding whether something is an error or not is the extent of disruption of communication. Learning anL2 is viewed today as a system of rules that the learner has to acquire, and that "trying out language and making errors are a natural and unavoidable part of this process" (Doff, 1993, p. 187). As Doff adds, this should be far from surprising when we take into account the acquisition of other complex skills, such as mastering chess or learning a musical instrument, where errors are accepted as a natural part of the process. Further on, Doff makes a crucial claim:

Pupils' errors are a very useful way of showing what they have and have not learnt. So instead of seeing errors negatively, as a sign of failure, we can see them positively as an indication of what we still need to teach. Obviously, if we try to prevent pupils from making errors we can never find out what they do not know.

There is **a definition of an error** which is the most appropriate for the purpose of this study, since it combines both aspects discussed above. Chaudron (1986, quoted by Allwright and Bailey 1991, 86) suggested that an error is: 1) "linguistic

forms or content that differ from native speaker norms or facts, and 2) any other behaviour signalled by the teacher as needing improvement”.

Lexical errors can be subdivided into formal errors, like misformations or distortions, and semantic errors, like collocational errors. James (1998) asserts that the pupils usually suppose that vocabulary is extremely important in the language learning, occasionally they even think that when they learn the vocabulary they learn the language. Still, lexical errors are the most common error type in many learner groups (p. 143). Native speakers regard them as more disturbing and annoying than any other kind of errors.

Lastly, there are **Grammatical errors** which have two subcategories. One subcategory consists of morphological errors and the other of errors in syntax. A morphological 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. Prepositions are not a part of this definition, as they do not possess any morphology. Into morphological errors category belong, for example, leaving out the third person - s (she know Paul) or using the past tense -ed too often (she camed here). These types of errors are deemed as quite basic, but persistent among the students even on the upper levels. On the other side, syntax errors have an influence on phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraphs with regard to, for instance, phrase structures or inter-sentence cohesion.

Choděra (2006) lists four categories from the linguistic aspect, too, although he mentions slightly different ones: grammatical, lexical, spelling and phonetic errors. It is interesting to note that all these classifications agree on the group of lexical errors (errors of vocabulary) and otherwise employ differing angles of view and thus different categories. Based on a corpus of spoken language, Chun et al. (1982) distinguished **five categories**:

o ***Discourse errors*** (errors beyond the sentence level and including structural/pragmatic aspects including inappropriate openings and closings, incorrect topic switches, inappropriate refusals, etc.)

o ***Factual errors*** (including those concerning the factual knowledge or truth value of an utterance)

o ***Word choice errors*** (incorrect choice or addition of a noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, etc.)

o ***Syntactic errors*** (tense agreement, morphology, word order, etc.)

o ***Omissions*** (involving the incorrect omission of nouns, verbs, auxiliaries, articles, etc.) (cited in MacDonald Lightbound, 2005, p. 88).

Linguists are still examining the five questions which Hendrickson (1978) put forth:

6. *Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?*

This question is the first one that needs to be answered if one wants to plunge into the error correction field. Most of the learners expect the teachers to correct their errors, because it is generally what the language teachers are supposed to do in their lessons. Nativists have claimed that the negative evidence, which informs the learner what will not work for him in the given language, is in the most effective case unproductive and at the worst case counterproductive in SL learning. However, not all negative feedbacks ought to be considered as a negative feature. Some types of recasts, especially if they are significantly implicit, might be determined as a positive feature. Krashen (1994) argues that the activities during which students feel uncomfortable, for instance, correction feedback and explanation of grammar, are not effective in SL learning. He also points out that corrective feedback (CF) is only beneficial when students are ready to learn. Therefore, the most important question is whether the CF will help students to learn the correct form more easily, or will be pointless until they achieve such stage of interlanguage development that they will be able to use CF to their advantage. The problem is, nonetheless, that if the teacher decides not to correct an error, the other students will probably presume that the form is not erroneous. This can result in students' internalization of the forms that are incorrect, i.e., fossilization.

There are also those who claim that error correction has a positive influence on SL learning. Hendrickson (1978), for example, claims that when an error of a SL

student is corrected, it has a greater impact on his proficiency than when it remains uncorrected. Many other linguists are convinced that error correction feedback is beneficial for language learners. Some of them are presented onwards.

7. *When Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?*

The second question, when should learner errors be corrected, has been discussed widely among the linguists. Havranek (2002) suggests that the CF should 25 follow after errors which are related to simple rules, for instance, a verb ending and a role of auxiliary do when forming negative statements and questions. She claims that grammatical errors correction rather than correction of lexical rules leads to better results in consequent language testing. When correction of a grammatical error is performed, the learner is instructed or else reminded of the given rule and about its correct application.

8. *Which Learner Errors Should Be Corrected?*

A study among Japanese students of English by Katayama (2007) showed that the majority of students prefer correction of pragmatic errors and errors disrupting the conversation. Over ninety percent of the students who were questioned in a study by Cathcart and Olsen's (1976) favoured being corrected all the time or most of the time. However, after the practice during which they were corrected every time they erred, the students complained that it was difficult to speak coherently in the second language when being interrupted so often.

9. *How Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?*

Correction can be either oral or written. This study will focus on oral correction. There are two types of oral CF - implicit and explicit. Implicit feedback takes place when a teacher corrects a learner and at the same time does not interrupt the conversation flow. In the case of explicit feedback, a teacher provides corrective feedback openly with emphasis on speech correction. According to Yoshida (2008), implicit feedback is more suitable as it is not that abrupt as explicit feedback and there is also lesser risk of discomfiture and intimidation on the side of the learner. However, the effectiveness of implicit feedback is dependent on the ability of a

student to discern it as the CF and identify the error which has triggered the correction. The student also has to find the correct form to substitute the error.

The most comprehensible and frequently used CF classification was made by Lyster & Ranta (1997). They divided ***corrective feedback into six types which teachers use to respond to learner errors***:

1. ***Explicit correction*** relates to the straightforward correction of the incorrect form. When the teacher declares the correct form, he clearly indicates that what the student said was erroneous ("You ought to say … instead.").

2. ***Recasts*** happen when the teacher reformulates the statement of the student, however he does not explicitly say where did the error occur.

3. ***Clarification requests*** indicate to learners that either their statement has not been understood by the teacher or it is somehow ill-formed. Therefore, the learner has to repeat or reformulate their statement. Such request includes expressions like "Excuse me?" or similar.

4. ***Metalinguistic feedback*** is focused on providing the learner with comments, information, or questions related to the errors in the learner's statement. However, the teacher does not overtly correct the error, but instead provides the learner with metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, which should help the learner to correct it (For example, "Are you able to identify your error?").

5. ***Elicitation*** is a technique that teachers use to obtain the correction of the error directly from learners. Teachers might either on purpose pause their own statement in order to encourage learners to fill in the rest or ask them to reformulate the statement. Alternatively, teachers might ask questions to students which should help them find the correct answer.

6. ***Repetition***, as the title suggests, is related to the repetition performed by the teacher. This happens in isolation and student's erroneous statement is repeated and usually the teacher uses intonation in order to point out the error.

These six types of errors were adjusted for the purpose of this study, as it must be borne in mind that this study only contains perceptions of SL learners and not any classroom observations or teachers' perceptions. Therefore, only those error

correction feedback strategies which learners are able to recognize can be included in the questionnaire used in this study.

10. Who Should Correct Learner Errors?

The answer to this question may seem to be evident, as the overwhelming majority of the respondents would confirm that the teacher is certainly the one capable and authorized to correct the errors. However, there is another group which deserves attention, when it comes to this topic, and those are the students' peers or classmates. Communication exercises in groups or pairs, in which the students can correct each other, should be an essential part of majority of language teaching programmes. Morris and Tarone (2003) conducted a study in which students worked in pairs and corrected each other. The interpersonal struggle among students who considered themselves more proficient and those who considered themselves less proficient, constantly disrupted the CF, because those less proficient frequently failed to realize that they are being corrected. Hence, Morris and Tarone (2003) asserted that the defensiveness of less proficient students and the frustration of more proficient students have led to a situation where it did not contribute to the CF effectiveness. A study performed by Mackey (2002) showed that when students corrected each other, they noticed the correction in less than half of the cases. Their proficiency level was not taken into account. However, when the native speaker corrected the SL learner, more than three-quarters of corrections were noticed by the learner.

To save our pupils the embarrassment and in order not to distract them, we can employ less provocative approaches. One way is to make notes of the most common mistakes made by a student to be discussed later. Write them on the board without revealing the name of the student in order not embarrass him/her. Ask the rest of the class to identify these mistakes and correct them. Another way is to raise an eyebrow, or say, "Excuse me?" Or the teacher can ask for repetition without indicating the mistake. Such methods are not bad, but now there are many new ways of correcting spoken errors.

1. Collect the errors for later

You can then correct them later in the same class (with a game like a grammar auction or just eliciting corrections from the class) or in a future class (for example writing error dictation pairwork worksheets or using the same techniques as can be used in the same class). Make sure you give positive reinforcement as well, e.g. “Someone said this sentence, and that is really good.” (see Appendix 1)

2. Facial expression

For example, raise an eyebrow, tilt your head to one side or give a slight frown. Most people will do this naturally, but there is a slight chance a teacher’s expression will be too critical or too subtle for your students to pick up on, and you can (amusingly) practice facial expressions in a teaching workshop by participants communicating certain typical classroom messages (“move over there to work with this person”, “work in pairs” etc.) using just their heads and faces, including feedback on spoken errors in that list.

3. Body language

The problems with using body language to show errors could also be that it is taken as very serious criticism or that it is too vague. Possibilities include using your hands (rolling a hand from side to side to mean “so-so attempt”; making a circle by moving your index finger to mean “one more time”; or a cross with fingers, open palms or even forearms to show a very clear “no” or “wrong”- probably only suitable for a team game etc where the responsibility is shared), head (tilted to one side to mean “I’m not sure that sounds correct”), or shoulders (hunched to reinforce “I don’t understand what you are saying”). Again, practising this in a teaching workshop can be useful, as can eliciting other body language teachers could have used after an observation.

4. Point at the correct language

If you have something on the correct form easily accessible on the whiteboard, in the textbook or on a poster, just pointing at it can be a subtle but clear way of prompting students to use the correct language. What you point at could be the name of the tense or word form they are supposed to be using, a verb forms table or the

actual correct verb form, a grammatical explanation, or another grammatical hint such as “future”, “prediction” or “polite”.

5. Repeat what they said

This can mean repeating the whole sentence, one section of it including the wrong part, the sentence up to the wrong part, the sentence with the wrong part missed out (with maybe a humming noise to show the gap that should be filled) or just the wrong part. You can illustrate that you are showing them an error and give some hint as to which bit is wrong by using a questioning tone (for everything you say or just for the wrong part). This method is overused by some teachers and can sound patronising if used too often or with the wrong tone of voice, so try to mix up the different versions of it described here and to alternate with methods described in the other tips.

6. Just say the right version

The pupils can then repeat the correct version or tell you what the difference between the two sentences was and why their version was wrong. Because the students don’t do much of the work in this way of being corrected, it might not be as good a way of remembering the correction as methods where you give more subtle clues. Its advantages are that it is quick and suits cultures, classes and students that think of elicitation as shirking by the teacher. It can also be more face-saving than asking them for self-correction, as trying to correct themselves risks making even more mistakes. The “right version” could mean the whole sentence or just the correction of the part that was wrong. In the latter case, you can then ask them to put it into the sentence in the right place and repeat the whole thing.

7. Tell them how many mistakes

This method is only really suitable for controlled speaking practice, but can be a very simple way of giving feedback in that situation. Examples include “Most of the comparatives were right, but you made two mistakes” and “Three words are in the wrong position in the sentence/ are mixed up”. Make sure you only use this method when students can remember what you are referring to without too much prompting.

Other useful language:

“Very good, but you made just one mistake with the passive”

(For a tongue twister) “Good attempt/ Getting better, but in two places you said /sh/ where it should have been /s/. Can you guess which words?”

8. Use grammatical terminology to identify the mistake

For example, “(You used) the wrong tense”, “Not the Present Perfect”, “You need an adverb, not an adjective” or “Can change that into the passive/ indirect speech?” This method is perhaps overused, and you need to be sure that the grammatical terminology isn’t just going to confuse them more.

Other useful language:

“Because that is the present simple, you need to add the auxiliary (verb) ‘do’”

“Say the same sentence, but with the comparative form”

9. Give the rule

For example, “‘Since’ usually takes the Present Perfect” or “One syllable adjectives make the comparative with –er, not more + adjective” This works best if they already know the rule, and you at least need to make sure that they will quickly understand what you are saying, for example by only using grammatical terminology you have used with them several times before.

10. Give a number of points

This is probably best saved for part of a game, especially one where students work together, but you can give each response a number of points out of 10. The same or other teams can then make another attempt at saying the same thing to see if they can get more points. If you don’t want students to focus on accuracy too much, tell them that the points will also give them credit for good pronunciation, fluency, politeness, persuasiveness and/ or originality of ideas.

Useful language:

“Very good fluency and very interesting, but a few basic mistakes, so I’ll give your team a score of (IELTS) 5.5. Practice your script in your team again for 5 minutes and we’ll try it one more time”

“You got all the articles right this time, so I’ll give you 9 out of 10”

11. Just tell them they are wrong (but nicely)

Positive ways of being negative include “nearly there”, “getting closer”, “just one mistake”, “much better”, “good idea, but…”,”I understand what you mean but…”, “you have made a mistake that almost everyone does/ that’s a very common mistake”, “we haven’t studied this yet, but…” and “much better pronunciation, but…” With lower level and new classes, you might have to balance the need to be nice with the need to be clear and not confuse them with feedback language that they don’t understand, perhaps by sticking to one or two phrases to give feedback for the first couple of months. It can also be useful to give them translations of this and other classroom language you will use, for example on a worksheet or a poster.

12. Tell them what part they should change

For example, “You need to change the introduction to your presentation” or “Try replacing the third word with something else”.

13. Ask partners to spot errors

This is a fairly well-known way of giving feedback in speaking tasks, but it can be a minefield if the person giving feedback has no confidence in their ability to do so or in how well the feedback (i.e. criticism) will be taken, and even more so if the person receiving the feedback will in fact react badly. This method is easier to do and easier to take when they have been told specifically which language to use while speaking and so to look out for when listening, usually meaning controlled speaking practice tasks. The feedback can be made even simpler to give and collect and more neutral with some careful planning, e.g. asking them count how many times their partner uses the target form as well as or instead of looking for when it used incorrectly.

14. Try again!

Sometimes, pupils don’t need much help at all but just a chance to do it again. This is likely to be true if you have trained them well in spotting their own errors, if there was some other kind of mental load such as a puzzle to solve that was distracting them from the language, or if they have had a chance to hear someone else doing the same speaking task in the class or on a recording.

Useful language:

"One more time (but think about the grammar more this time/ but concentrating on making less mistakes instead of speaking quickly)"

"Give it another go"

"Do you want one more chance before you get the final score".

15. Remind them when you studied that point

For example, "Nearly right, but you've forgotten the grammar that we studied last week" or "You've made the same mistake as everyone made in the last test".

So, it has been shown that each dominant methodological approach since the mid 20th century had a different perspective on error and correction. Overall, the notion of error gradually changed from efforts to completely repress and eradicate error by behaviourists, over theoretical predictions by contrastive analysts and error analysts, to finally accepting error as an inseparable part of learners' interlanguage development by the communicative language approach.

Although a vast majority of teachers would agree that error correction is necessary for learners' development of interlanguage, they would most probably disagree on many aspects of correction – when to correct, what types of error to correct, who should be correcting, what technique to use and how to indicate that an error has occurred. The process of correction is not straightforward, although it might seem so at first sight. Teachers have to consider several factors influencing it and decide on many partial steps leading towards correction.

Therefore, there was an attempt to analyze the five questions which Hendrickson (1978) put forth:

1. Should learner errors be corrected?

2. When should learner errors be corrected?

3. Which learner errors should be corrected?

4. How should learner errors be corrected?

5. Who should correct learner errors?

And also offer new effective ways of correcting spoken errors, in particular, the practical application of storytelling strategy.

Bachelor thesis is devoted to error and error correction in oral practice during English language lessons. The aim of thesis was to identify and analyze the mistakes made by pupils in the course of speaking English in the classroom and propose a strategy that could solve these errors. The aim was achieved and we improved the pupils' speaking skills.

In the research paper we: to investigate the concept of error and types of errors; to systemize and analyze the ways of correcting errors in students speech; to implement storytelling strategy in 9th grader pupils at school to improve their knowledge of vocabulary, structure and grammar; to increase pupils speaking skills.

In the case of language learning I really do believe the classic saying, "you learn from your mistakes".

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