

The Relationship between Oral Corrective Feedback and Learners' Motivation in EFL

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J. J. Strossmayer University of Osijek

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences

Study Programme: Double Major MA Study Programme in English Language
and Literature – Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Philosophy

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Supervisor: prof. dr. sc. Višnja Pavičić Takač

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U Osijeku, 11. rujna 2020.

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Abstract

Corrective feedback refers to corrections teachers provide to learners in formal teaching when they produce erroneous utterances. Since English lessons are often communicative in nature, and there are a lot of speaking activities, teachers use oral corrective feedback. It is assumed that oral corrective feedback can affect learners' motivation to participate in oral activities in EFL classrooms. This study sought to find if there is a relationship between motivation and learners' attitudes to oral correction. The research included 244 learners from a grammar school in Vinkovci, Croatia. The results of this study showed a negative relationship between being corrected and motivation for participation in speaking activities. Learners preferred those types of corrective feedback that enabled them to come up with a correct form themselves with teacher's guidance. The least preferred types of corrective feedback were those where a correct solution was immediately provided to learners or where there was no guidance. No difference was found regarding attitudes towards corrective feedback between male and female learners, but the results show that less proficient learners found CF more useful than more proficient learners.

Key terms: corrective feedback, motivation, attitudes, EFL

Sažetak

Ispravljanje pogrešaka odnosi se na ispravke koje učitelji u formalnom obrazovanju daju učenicima kada izreknu netočne rečenice. Učitelji se često koriste usmenim ispravljanjem pogrešaka jer je nastava engleskoga često komunikacijske naravi i obuhvaća mnogo govornih aktivnosti. Pretpostavlja se da usmeno ispravljanje pogrešaka može utjecati na motivaciju učenika za sudjelovanje u govornim aktivnostima u učionicama engleskoga kao stranoga jezika. Ovim se radom pokušalo odgovoriti na pitanje postoji li odnos između motivacije i učeničkih stavova prema usmenom ispravljanju pogrešaka. Istraživanje je obuhvatilo 244 učenika iz gimnazije u Vinkovcima u Hrvatskoj. Rezultati su pokazali negativan odnos između ispravljanja i motiviranosti za sudjelovanje u govornim aktivnostima. Učenici su preferirali one oblike ispravljanja pogrešaka koji im omogućavaju da sami dođu do točnog oblika uz učiteljevo usmjeravanje. Najmanje preferirani oblici ispravljanja pogrešaka bili su oni gdje je učenicima odmah dano točno rješenje ili oni bez usmjeravanja. Nije pronađena razlika u stavovima muških i ženskih učenika prema ispravljanju pogrešaka, ali rezultati

pokazuju da su učenici koji slabije vladaju engleskim jezikom smatrali ispravljanje pogrešaka korisnijim od učenika koji bolje vladaju engleskim jezikom.

Ključne riječi: ispravljanje pogrešaka, motivacija, stavovi, engleski kao strani jezik

1. Introduction

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a field with many aspects changing in practice with new findings in research. Corrective feedback (CF) and motivation are among the most prominent of these aspects. It is next to impossible for second language (L2) learners to acquire language and to make progress without making errors. Even in mother tongue, children first commit errors before they are able to produce error-free speech. In formal L2 learning, teachers have to choose when and how to correct the errors, which is not always an easy task. Even if a teacher found an effective method of correcting the learners, the same method could not be as effective with other learners. There is a growing body of literature on CF, showing that the area is of great interest to researchers. But researchers are not unanimous when it comes to recommending the best way to provide CF, or even if teachers should provide CF at all. Some authors (Gass, 1997; Lyster and Ranta, 1997, Sato, 2017) claim that CF aids L2 uptake, some (Krashen, 1981; Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1996) claim that it should be avoided, and both sides have found evidence to support their claims. Nevertheless, since English as a foreign language (EFL) classes are usually based on communication and interaction between a teacher and learners, oral corrective feedback (OCF) is often used as a signal that an error has been committed.

Similarly, motivation has undergone various understandings throughout the history of SLA research. Motivation is such a broad term that researchers have not been able to create an all-encompassing motivational theory. Within SLA, there have been different views on the role of motivation in L2 learning and its different aspects, but it has become an important element in L2 classrooms. Moreover, views on motivation in EFL have also changed due to the role English has played in the process of globalization, which may influence learners' motives for learning not only English but also other foreign languages. There are numerous studies which examine the function of motivation in SLA, types of motivation and factors that affect it. As motivation is first of all an abstract phenomenon, there is a difficulty of measuring and examining it. However, motivation is such an impactful element in L2 learning that some researchers argue that it can make up for the lack of a learner's aptitude or learning conditions (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005).

The purpose of this study is to examine if there is a relationship between CF and motivation, the two elements always present in L2 classes. The paper first summarizes the most important theoretical aspects of each of these variables and provides an overview of important studies and corresponding criticisms. Then the study on the relationship between motivation and

OCF is described. Learners' attitudes towards OCF are explored and the question whether CF has a positive or negative (if any) effect on learners' motivation for participating in speaking activities in class is investigated. Next, the roles of learners' gender and proficiency in attitudes towards OCF are explored. The study also tries to examine learners' attitudes towards different types of OCF. Finally, the results are presented and discussed.

2. Corrective feedback

Like any other process of learning, the process of language learning inevitably involves errors and mistakes. As English language is usually taught through communication in classrooms, a lot of errors are expected to take place. Teachers can choose whether and how to correct their students. As errors are a constant occurrence in L2 classrooms, errors and error correction are well researched topics. Throughout the history of language learning research, there have been different views on correcting students.

In linguistics, errors and mistakes are usually differentiated. Corder (1967) defined errors as deviations caused by deficiency in the language knowledge, and mistakes as deviations caused by performance factors, such as memory lapses, physical states, tiredness or emotions. Nassaji (2018) explains that errors are systematic and persistent, while mistakes are unsystematic and do not reflect a lack of knowledge. Corder (1967) states that people frequently commit mistakes in their native language, are immediately aware of them and can correct them, so he argues that it is unreasonable to expect L2 learners not to commit mistakes as well. Errors are significant for language learning, as opposed to mistakes, which Corder deems insignificant. He claims that errors are significant in three ways. First, the teacher can observe errors to see how far towards the goal the learner has advanced and what the learner still has to learn. Second, researchers can use information on errors to see how a language is learned or acquired. The third way concerns the learners themselves; learners use errors to learn and to test their hypotheses about the language they are learning.

In practice, it can be difficult to distinguish between errors and mistakes in oral communication, especially in EFL classrooms where oral communication is dynamic and can get fast-paced. Due to the said difficulty in differentiation, and since errors are often considered to be a wider term than mistakes, the term ‘error’ is used in this paper to provide terminology consistency.

2.1 Types of corrective feedback

There have been changes in attitudes towards errors throughout the history of L2 teaching. In the 1960s, for example, it was claimed that “like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected” (Brooks, 1960, as cited in Hendrickson, 1978: 387). Tafani (2009) reports that in the 1960s errors had to be avoided at all costs, but today

the attitude towards errors has shifted because errors are recognised as an integral part of language learning.

Since errors are so frequently present in EFL classes, CF is an important part of EFL classrooms. Sarandi describes CF as “an indication that all or part of language that learners produce is deviant” (2016: 236). And because EFL classes involve speaking, teachers often use OCF. According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), there are six types of CF: explicit correction, recasts, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. In one other study, Lyster et al. (2013) also recognize paralinguistic signal (non-verbal signal) as a type of CF.

In what follows types of CF are listed and corresponding definitions and explanations provided.

Explicit correction (Lyster and Ranta, 1997): explicit provision of the correct form by clearly indicating that something in student’s production was incorrect by saying e.g. “You should say X”. In a study comparing the effects of explicit correction and recasts, Yilmaz (2012) stresses that even though explicit correction is an effective method, more effective than recasts, it can impede the flow of conversation more than recasts because it is more obtrusive.

Recasts (Lyster and Ranta, 1997): teacher’s reformulation of a student’s utterance without the error, “repetition with change” (Chaudron, 1977, as cited in Lyster and Ranta, 1997: 46). According to Lyster (1998), the problem with using recasts too often is that that learners do not correct themselves because the correct form is already provided, and because of that he suggests that teachers use techniques which lead to learner-generated repair: elicitation, linguistic cues, clarification requests and repetition of error.

Clarification request (Spada and Fröhlich, 1995, as cited in Lyster and Ranta, 1997): “indicating that a student’s utterance was misunderstood or ill-formed”. Lyster and Ranta add to the previous definition that a clarification request includes phrases such as “Pardon me” or “What do you mean by X?”

Metalinguistic feedback (Lyster and Ranta, 1997): comments or questions on a student’s utterance, relating to grammatical metalanguage or a word in case of lexical errors, without providing the correct form, e.g. “No, not X”, “It’s Past Simple”. Metalinguistic feedback is used for providing the nature of the error and for eliciting the information from the student.

Elicitation (Lyster and Ranta, 1997): the authors name three elicitation techniques. The first one is elicit completion, in which teachers elicit the information from the students by allowing them to fill in the blank, e.g. “No, not that. It’s a...”. The second form is asking questions (excluding yes/no questions), e.g. “How do we say X?”. The third one is asking students to reformulate their utterances.

Repetition (Lyster and Ranta, 1997): the teacher’s repetition of the incorrect utterance, usually with changing intonation to highlight the error. Lyster (1998) found that repetition is effective when combined with other feedback types and results in a high rate of uptake.

Paralinguistic signal (non-verbal signal) (Lyster et al., 2013): an attempt of eliciting the correct form non-verbally. That can be achieved with movements of the hands, arms or head or with nodding, eye contact, facial expressions and various body movements (Wang and Loewen, 2015). In their study, Wang and Loewen (2015) found that teachers usually use facial expressions to show that they have a problem understanding a learner’s utterance.

Peer corrective feedback (Pica et al., 1996): learners’ signals which alert other learners of comprehensibility and morphosyntactic correctness of their utterance in L2. These signals can appear in the form of repeating segments of prior utterances in conformity with L2 morphosyntax, modifying isolated words or phrases, or paraphrasing. According to Sato (2017) and Pica et al. (1996), peer corrective feedback can be useful in L2 learning process. However, Pica et al. (1996) suggest that other than optimism towards peer corrective feedback, there should also be caution because learners are a limited source of modified input. Her study has also found that after being provided with a modification by a peer, learners tend to simply acknowledge it instead of further modifying their utterance.

As the goal of L2 learning is to become proficient in target language (LT), studies were conducted with a focus on effect of CF on LT uptake. Gass (1997) claims that in the process of learning, there are positive and negative evidence. She defines positive evidence as a set of well-formed sentences to which learners are exposed, and negative evidence as a type of information provided to learners about the incorrectness of an utterance. Here, negative evidence corresponds to the concept of CF. Negative evidence is useful in that it draws a learner’s attention to the gaps in utterances which would otherwise go unnoticed, and it enables learners to correct an error after noticing it. She claims that relying on positive evidence is insufficient for language development as positive evidence can lead to faulty conclusions. Pica (1988) found that learners learning English as a L2 have successfully

managed to adjust their utterances after the signals of incomprehension. Lyster and Ranta (1997) also claim that CF aids L2 uptake, especially CF types in which the correct form is not provided to learners. In exploring CF and learner uptake, Sheen's (2004) study was focused on recasts, because recasts were used the most frequently. It was found that recasts generated repair when students were oriented towards linguistic form, rather than meaning. Sato (2017) claims that peer corrective feedback can aid L2 uptake as well.

2.2 Impact of CF on learners' attitudes

Since motivation to participate in class and CF are phenomena that are inevitably found in EFL classrooms, researchers have explored if there is a connection between them. It should be noted that the body of research on the relationship between CF and motivation is smaller than for example on the relationship of CF and LT uptake. As Kern (1995) claims, understanding learners' and teachers' beliefs is important for understanding language learning in institutional settings. He claims that understanding learners' beliefs may help in preventing student frustration, anxiety, lack of motivation or even ending learning of the foreign language.

While exploring learners' preference of CF types, Yoshida (2008) found that learners are receptive to feedback and find it useful for improving their language skills. The learners from her study preferred to be given time to think about correction instead of being provided with the correct form immediately. She claims that self-correction may increase learners' sense of achievement and confidence. However, Yoshida also recognizes that it can be difficult for teachers to know if a learner is able to self-correct, and that teachers usually have to resort to recasts due to time restrictions. Lee (2005) has also found that learners want their teachers to mark and correct learners' errors. In a study conducted by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005), students stated their preference for not being corrected constantly, but they also stated that that did not mean that they did not wish to be corrected at all. The authors reported that students wanted a short correction of minor mistakes, and extended correction of errors which stem from incomplete knowledge. However, Lasagabaster and Sierra warn that learners' preferences for error correction may not always be reliable, and they suggest that teachers adjust error corrections to differing needs of the students. Kalebić Čurković (2009) researched Croatian learners' attitudes towards CF. She found that learners understood the benefits of CF and had positive attitudes towards it. The participants of her study preferred to be given time for self-correction before the teacher corrects them or interrupts them. Systematic analysis of errors can provide insight into the process of acquiring language but

not all errors should be corrected, because learners often feel more confident in L2 if only some of their errors are corrected Hendrickson (1978). Hendrickson suggests five questions teachers need to consider before correcting learners:

- “1. Should learner errors be corrected?
2. When should learners be corrected?
3. Which learner errors should be corrected?
4. How should learner errors be corrected?
5. Who should correct learner errors?.” (1978: 389)

In brief, he claims that learners usually want to be corrected because they are not able to recognize their errors, and he argues that correcting errors of L2 learners improves their proficiency. Regarding correction timing, Hendrickson believes that it is difficult to determine when to correct an error and when to ignore it. The solution he proposes is to reserve immediate correction for grammar practice, and when it comes to communicative practice, he suggests that teachers tolerate some mistakes in order to instil a feeling of success in learners. Furthermore, errors which should be corrected first are those that interfere with the meaning of a message. Errors that are becoming permanent should be corrected as well. He also states that other researchers claim that errors which occur frequently should be among the first to be corrected. When it comes to methods of providing correction, Hendrickson claims that there are many ways of correcting learners, but there is no conclusive evidence that one method is better than others for facilitating L2 proficiency. He therefore agrees with the suggestion of other researchers that teachers should avoid using CF strategies that might embarrass or frustrate learners (Holley and King, 1971, as cited in Hendrickson, 1978) and claims that teachers should adjust their CF to individual learners. For increasing learners’ motivation for completing a certain task, it is important that learners interpret feedback as informational rather than controlling (Williams and Burden, 1997). That way, by being provided with helpful information, learners will be able to complete the current and the following tasks more independently. Finally, Hendrickson states that even though teachers have an active role in correcting errors and they frequently provide CF, it could be beneficial to incorporate some other methods of correction. For example, peer correction and self-correction with teacher guidance could be incorporated into a L2 class. To conclude, according to Hendrickson (1978), CF is useful for improving learners’ L2 proficiency, but it

is important to create a supportive environment in which learners would feel confident and in which CF would not cause feelings of threat and embarrassment.

On the other hand, there are authors who are doubtful about CF and its effect on learners. For example, DeKeyser (1993) emphasizes that the effect of error correction (EC) during oral communicative activities varies depending on individual difference variables. In his research, he found that students with low extrinsic motivation did better on oral accuracy and fluency after EC, and those with high extrinsic motivation did better without EC. Krashen (1981) claims that placing emphasis on correctness makes learners defensive, and the state of anxiety makes them less than ideal for language acquisition. Krashen's theory is in agreement with Schwartz (1993), who claims that correcting learners cannot aid uptake, but rather, only positive data can lead to knowledge gain. Schwartz argues that when we learn our first language, we acquire knowledge on the basis of positive data only. According to her, language learners have to be exposed to exemplars of a LT to develop their language knowledge. She therefore disagrees with the idea that corrections are necessary in L2 learning and claims that only positive data can give rise to knowledge. Truscott (1996) argues that correcting grammar in learners' writing is not effective, claiming that it is unhelpful, counterproductive, and that it even has harmful effects. Moreover, Truscott (1999) also suggests that language teachers abandon oral grammar correction altogether.

2.3 Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis

Krashen's (1981) opposition to using CF in L2 classroom is based on a hypothesis regarding L2 learner's emotional state and the connection of the state to L2 acquisition. The hypothesis is pertinent to this paper because both the present study and Krashen's hypothesis deal with learners' attitudes and motivation. For understanding Krashen's hypothesis, a distinction between input and intake first has to be made. According to Corder (1967), when a learner is presented with a certain linguistic form, that does not mean that the learner will acquire everything presented. Rather than that, the learner is the one who controls the input, i.e. *what goes in*, and what subsequently becomes the intake. Therefore, it can be concluded that input is what is available for learners to utilize for SLA, and intake is part of the input comprehended by learners. Corder claims that in learning mother tongue, the data available as input is vast, but the child selects what will become the input. Corder's distinction between input and intake became pivotal in Krashen's theory of SLA (Pennington, 1996).

Krashen's (1982) SLA Theory consists of five hypotheses: the acquisition-learning distinction, the natural order hypothesis, the Monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis and the

Affective Filter hypothesis. To outline the Affective Filter hypothesis, a brief description of other hypotheses is in order. The acquisition-learning distinction states that acquisition is a subconscious process; learners are usually not aware that they are acquiring a language, but they can use the language for communication. On the other hand, learning is a conscious process of knowing the grammar rules and being aware of them. The natural order hypothesis states that acquisition of grammatical structures happens in a predictable order. In Krashen's view, the order of acquisition of L2 is not the same as for L1, but there are similarities. The monitor hypothesis states that only acquired language can lead to utterance production in L2, and learning has a sole function: to act as a Monitor and edit the utterances produced by the acquired system. Since language acquisition develops with comprehensible input (understanding messages) in low anxiety, pressure-free situations, the input hypothesis postulates that "we acquire ... only when we understand the language that contains structure that is 'a little beyond' where we are now" (Krashen, 1982: 21). This hypothesis incorporates the first hypothesis in that that in concerns language acquisition rather than learning, and the second one by questioning how learners move from one stage to another. Krashen thus suggests using formula $i + 1$, where i represents current competence, and $+ 1$ the next level, i.e. "a little beyond". If teachers use this formula in L2 teaching, the learners should progress along the natural order. The input hypothesis is comparable to Corder's input/intake distinction because in both cases, the learner uses their linguistic competence to achieve language acquisition. Corder (1967) emphasises that for something to be acquired, it first needs to become available to the learner, just like Krashen (1982) claims that if learner understands the input and if there is enough of comprehensible input, $i + 1$ will automatically be provided.

However, according to Krashen, one more condition has to be satisfied for acquisition to take place, and that element is the Affective Filter. The concept of the Affective Filter was first proposed by Dulay and Burt (1977, as cited in Krashen, 1982). The Affective Filter is a barrier to acquiring a language caused by negative emotions, such as anxiety. Self-consciousness, feelings of vulnerability and lowered self-image lead to an increased affective filter which lowers the ability to acquire L2 (Krashen, 1981). In other words, it filters the input. If a learner's motivations and attitudes are less than optimal, they may prevent some aspects of the input and they are no longer available to the learner as intake (Krashen, 1981). Dulay and Burt (1977, as cited in Krashen, 1982) have provided a diagram of the affective filter, as shown in Figure 1.

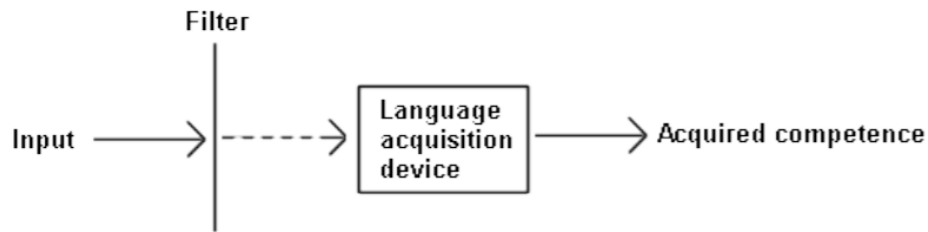


Figure 1. Operation of the Affective filter (source: Krashen, 1982: 32)

The Affective Filter hypothesis “states how affective factors relate to the second language acquisition process” (Krashen, 1982: 30). Krashen (1982) claims that even if there is plenty of comprehensive input, if learners understand the message, but if they have negative feelings regarding motivation, self-confidence or anxiety, they will have a high Affective Filter and the input will not reach the language acquisition device (part of the brain responsible for language acquisition). Of course, if learners feel confident and motivated enough to participate in L2 class, if they acquire language and they produce speech, some errors are still to be expected. However, creating an atmosphere where learners want to talk is more important than error-free speech (Chastain, 1971, as cited in Hendrickson 1978). And as Krashen (1982) claims, for L2 acquisition to take place, their Affective Filter should be low and they should feel motivated and confident.

3. Motivation in SLA

Every human action stems from motivation. Williams and Burden (1997) see motivation as “a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, a state which leads to a conscious decision to act and gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort” (p. 120). Their definition shows that actions are not inadvertent, but they are determined by one’s deliberate decision to act. As motivation is studied in many areas, there is no standardised definition that is universally appropriate. Even in EFL, different studies use different conceptualizations of motivation. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) recognize the complexity of motivation and claim that it would be unrealistic to expect a comprehensive motivational theory which would account for all types of possible motives to exist. However, they did isolate two things most researchers would agree on. Motivation concerns direction and magnitude of human behavior, i.e. “the *choice* of particular action, the *persistence* with it, the *effort* expended on it” (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 4). Motivation is responsible for “why people decide to do something, how long are they willing to sustain the activity, how hard they are going to pursue it” (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 4).

Even though the conceptualizations of motivation in EFL may vary, a positive relationship between motivation and L2 achievement and other indices of learning is often found (Bernaus and Gardner, 2008). Different people have different amounts, kinds and orientations of motivation. Orientation of motivation includes underlying attitudes and goals which cause action; it explains the *why* of actions (Ryan and Deci, 2000). In SLA, motivation can be related to why a learner is learning a new, second language.

Motivation research in SLA has its roots in 1959, when Gardner and Lambert published their paper *Motivational variables in second-language acquisition* which marked the onset of the social psychological period (Al-Hoorie, 2017). The significance of their paper lies in the way it examines the capability for language learning. The authors argue that linguistic aptitude is not the sole most important factor in acquiring a language. According to Gardner and Lambert (1959), motivational factor is equally important, and they argue that the attitudes of a person who is acquiring a second language towards the cultural group whose language they are acquiring will determine their success in learning that language. Such a view reflects the stance of the social psychological period in SLA: in addition to learning the rules of L2, a learner has to immerse themselves in the culture of the L2, be open to the L2 group and willing to adopt features from it (Al-Hoorie, 2017).

The social psychological period was followed by the cognitive-situated period in 1990s (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). In 1994, Ushioda published a paper in which she discussed a major limitation of the research on motivation: the quantitative approach. She claims that examining motivation in terms of assigned mathematical indices may not be as useful as exploring it in terms of quality. Instead, Ushioda suggests exploring motivation in L2 as a qualitative construct through the focus on the role of motivational thought processes in L2 learning.

According to Pavičić Takač and Berka (2014), the focus of cognitive-situated period shifted to exploring motives related to immediate classroom environment and its impact on learners and their motivation. In this period, researchers approached language acquisition in a manner that could be useful to teachers in classrooms, and they did so by means of some theories which were not strictly related to language learning. For example, in 2004, Williams and her colleagues (2004) conducted a study of learners' perceptions of their successes and failures in foreign language learning. Informed by Weiner's attribution theory, a theory from the field of social psychology, they explored how secondary students perceive and to what they attribute their successes and failures in foreign language learning. They found that effort was the number one attribution for success. Effort, i.e. lack thereof, was also the number one attribution for not doing well, followed by perceived lack of ability. The authors suggested that the findings could be useful for language teachers to better understand the ways their students are perceiving their educational experiences (Williams et al., 2004). Whereas the social psychological period aimed to describe the processes behind language learning, and cognitive-situated period made use of cognitive theories to explore language learning in classroom environment.

Following the cognitive-situated period, motivation was explored in the process-oriented period. Dörnyei (2005) argues that motivation in L2 is prone to changing, and that a motivational theory needs to "account for the daily ups and downs of motivation to learn, that is, the ongoing changes of motivation over time" (p. 83). He describes the motivational process in three phases, in each of which there is a change in motivation and the perception of it. It can be concluded that the key feature of the process-oriented period is observing motivation as a dynamic process.

According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), the process-oriented period has evolved into the current, socio-dynamic period. One of the main characteristics of the period is the concept of

L2 Motivational Self System. The system consists of three components: Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self and L2 Learning Experience. The Ideal L2 Self encompasses learner's idea of the desired L2 level. Dörnyei states that the Ideal L2 Self can be a powerful motivator because it shows discrepancies between our actual and ideal selves. The following component, the Ought-to Self, includes things that learner needs to do in order to become the Ideal L2 Self and to avoid possible negative outcomes. The first two components are about a learner herself or himself, while the third component, the L2 Learning Experience, encompasses external influences which could affect learners' motivation, such as the teacher, the curriculum, learners' peers etc. The L2 Learning Experience is similar to notions of the cognitive-situated period in that that it provides guidelines to L2 teachers for understanding the effect of the educational process on learners' motivation.

The purpose of listing all periods and the corresponding seminal works and ideas was to show that motivation is not a strictly defined phenomenon. Rather than that, motivation in L2 is seen as an evolving phenomenon. The reason why so many researchers have studied motivation may lay in its significance in L2 learning and its influence on L2 uptake. Dörnyei describes its importance in SLA by saying:

It [motivation] provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish longterm goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement. On the other hand, high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions. (Dörnyei, 2005: 65)

3.1 Teachers' role in learner motivation

Learning a foreign language is not like learning other subjects. According to Williams and Burden (1997), it involves far more than learning skills or a system of rules: learning a foreign language has an impact on the social nature of a learner. Our self-esteem is shaped by the people around us, and in L2 learning, teachers play a great role in reinforcing learners' self-image (Dörnyei, 2001). There are many factors which impact motivation of L2 learners. Teacher feedback is certainly one of them. Dörnyei (2001) lists three aspects of effective motivational feedback. First, feedback can have gratifying function and increase learner satisfaction and the learning spirit. It can promote positive self-concept and self-confidence in learners. Finally, feedback can serve as a tool for learners to see which areas they need to

improve to increase the effectiveness of learning. However, not all feedback is a good feedback. For feedback to have a motivational effect on learners, it has to provide them with descriptive information on their strengths, achievements and progress. It is also important to provide learners with feedback focused on their own achievement. For example, instead of comparing a learner's low test score to the average score of the class, it would be better to compare the score to the learner's previous achievement and help her or him identify good areas and areas that require improvement (Dörnyei, 2001).

The topic of developing and maintaining motivation in learners is well researched, and different authors suggest their methods for establishing and maintaining motivation. By examining English teachers' attitudes, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) composed a list of ten strategies for motivating language learners. They suggest the following to teachers: to set a personal example with own behaviour, to create a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom, to present the tasks properly, to develop a good relationship with learners, to increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence, to make the language classes interesting, to promote learner autonomy, to personalize the learning process, to increase the learners' goal-orientedness and to familiarize learners with the target language culture (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998: 215).

Williams and Burden (1997) have also explored motivation in the context of language learning and teaching, and they propose a multitude of factors for teachers to consider in motivating learners. They have summarized them and provided twelve comprehensive suggestions. They suggest that teachers acknowledge the complexity of motivation and try to use different approaches for motivating learners. The authors then warn that after initiating motivation successfully, it should be sustained. The third suggestion includes direct communication with learners: the authors advise discussing the reasons for carrying out activities and how the activities help learners in reaching their goals. It is also recommended to involve learners in making decisions about learning and setting language learning goals. In addition to educational factors, Williams and Burden (1997) also consider psychological ones. They suggest recognizing learners as individuals, helping them believe in themselves and developing their own beliefs to put them in control of their actions. They advise directing learners towards constant improvement. An important suggestion concerns enhancing learners' intrinsic motivation, i.e. helping them see the value of doing certain activities for their own sake, not because of external reasons. Like some other researchers (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998; Krashen, 1982; Hendrickson, 1978), Williams and Burden emphasise the

importance of building a supportive learning environment. Finally, in their last suggestion for motivating learners, they touch upon the topic of providing feedback to learners. They state that “teachers need to be aware of the dangers of an over-reliance on praise, and of the negative effects of punishments and reprimands” (Williams and Burden, 1997: 142).

All of the stated strategies require significant effort from teachers, and teachers may need to adjust their strategies to meet the needs of each particular group of learners. It is important to remember that it is not enough only to create a motivational environment for learners, but also to strive to maintain it.

4 Exploring the relationship between OCF and learners' motivation in EFL

4.1 Aims and research questions

The present study explores a connection between OCF and learners' motivation to participate in English class. It investigates learners' attitudes towards different types of OCF. Individual differences of learners, such as proficiency in English and gender are taken into consideration. The purpose of the study is to investigate learners' attitudes towards being corrected during English lessons, to examine if they find corrections useful or if corrections discourage them from further participation. The assumption is that learners will be receptive towards OCF and find it useful, and that their motivation for participating will not decrease due to OCF. Such assumptions are in accordance with some previously mentioned studies (Yoshida 2008, Lee 2005, Lasagabaster and Sierra 2005, Kaleb Čurković 2009). There is also an assumption that more proficient learners will be more receptive towards OCF.

This paper aims to answer the following research questions:

- 1) Does being corrected discourage learners from participating in class?
- 2) Is there a difference between male and female learners in their attitudes towards OCF?
- 3) Is there a difference between proficient and less proficient learners in their attitudes towards OCF?
- 4) Is there a relationship between attitudes towards being corrected and motivation for participating in class?
- 5) What are learners' attitudes towards different types of OCF?

4.2 Participants

The participants of this research were 244 third and fourth grade learners at Grammar School in Vinkovci, who had been learning English for 11 years on average. 161 participants (66%) were female and 83 (34%) were male. Learners' final grades were taken as indicators of their proficiency in English. Learners whose grades were 4 (very good) and 5 (excellent) were considered to be more proficient, and learners with grades 2 (sufficient) and 3 (good) were considered less proficient. 188 (77%) learners were more proficient, and 55 (23%) learners were less proficient.

4.3 Instrument

A questionnaire (see Appendix) was used as an instrument to gain insight into learners' opinions. The questionnaire was designed by the author of the paper. To avoid possible problems with understanding and to accommodate learners possibly less proficient in English, the questionnaire was written in Croatian. It consisted of two parts. The first part was used to collect demographic data: gender, age, number of years of learning English, and the last English final grade. The second part consisted of 44 items concerning different types of OCF and learners' motivation for participating in EFL class. Items 1 – 21 measured motivation, and items 22 – 44 measured OCF. Attitudes towards types of OCF were measured through the following items: recast: items 23 and 41, repetition: items 22 and 26, metalinguistic feedback: item 38, explicit correction: item 24, clarification request: item 39, non-verbal signal: items 37 and 44.

Each item was followed by a five-point Likert scale: 1 – “strongly disagree”, 2 – “disagree”, 3 – “undecided”, 4 – “agree”, 5 – “strongly agree”.

When reliability of the instrument was measured by Cronbach's alpha, it initially had a reliability of .654. After eight items were deleted (items no. 4, 6, 8, 25, 28, 30, 32 and 36), leaving 36 items, reliability rose to .758.

4.4 Procedure

Data were collected in Grammar School M. A. Reljković in Vinkovci, during learners' English lessons. To encourage honesty in answering, the participants were informed that the questionnaire would be anonymous. The obtained data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (IBM SPSS). Some statements from the questionnaire were formed as affirmative, and some as negative sentences. Because of that, prior to data analysis, values of several variables were reversed. The reversed items were items no. 2, 7, 15 and 29. Statistical tests that were used are independent samples t-test and Pearson correlation coefficient. Descriptive statistics were calculated as well.

4.5 Results

Table 1 shows descriptive results of learners' attitudes towards OCF in general and how they feel after being corrected, thus answering the first research question. Due to some items in the questionnaire being formatted as positive, and some as negative sentences, the values of all negatively formatted items used for creating the three following variables regarding students' feelings after OCF used for this table were reversed.

Table 1: Students' feelings after being corrected

| | Min | Max | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|--|-----|-----|------|----------------|
| Motivation lowered after being corrected due to fear of repeating an error | 1 | 5 | 3.83 | 1.18 |
| Stopping participating after being corrected several times | 1 | 5 | 3.46 | 1.29 |
| Feeling motivated for participation despite being repeatedly corrected | 1 | 5 | 2.96 | 1.17 |

The mean value of first two items is larger than three, which shows that learners react to OCF with caution and may feel discouraged to continue participating in speaking activities. The lower mean value of the third item shows that learners lean slightly towards not being motivated to take part in class activities after multiple instances of OCF. Other items were not used because they measured attitudes towards OCF in general, not specific types of OCF.

To answer the second research question, three new variables were computed from the relevant items, and an independent samples t-test was run.

Table 2: Independent t-test (learners' gender and attitudes towards CF)

| | Gender | M | SD | t | df | Sig. |
|---------------------------|--------|------|------|--------|--------|-------|
| Perceived benefit from CF | F | 3.57 | .99 | -.090 | 230 | .835 |
| | M | 3.58 | .98 | | | |
| Demotivation after CF | F | 3.63 | 1.19 | -1.141 | 240 | .814 |
| | M | 3.81 | 1.03 | | | |
| Finding peer CF useful | F | 3.47 | .85 | -1.362 | 97.779 | .044* |
| | M | 3.77 | 1.91 | | | |

*p< 0.05 level (2-tailed)

There is no significant difference between female and male learners regarding finding CF useful. The same applies to feeling demotivated after being corrected. However, the difference between female and male learners in opinions on peer CF's usefulness is statistically significant. Male learners find peer CF more useful than female learners do.

An independent t-test was also run to answer the third research question, to explore if there was a difference in attitudes towards CF between more and less proficient learners. Statistical significance (p=.003**) was found only in perceived benefit from CF. Less proficient learners (<4) find CF more beneficial than more proficient learners (≥4) do.

Table 3: Independent t-test (learners' proficiency and attitudes towards CF)

| | Grade | M | SD | t | df | Sig. |
|---------------------------|-------|------|------|--------|---------|--------|
| Perceived benefit from CF | ≥4 | 3.54 | 1.04 | -1.039 | 111.446 | .003** |
| | <4 | 3.68 | .78 | | | |
| Demotivation after CF | ≥4 | 3.78 | 1.17 | 2.172 | 239 | .913 |
| | <4 | 3.40 | .97 | | | |
| Finding peer CF useful | ≥4 | 3.53 | .91 | -.748 | 238 | 1.753 |
| | <4 | 3.69 | 2.23 | | | |

To answer the fourth research question a Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated (Table 4).

Table 4: Correlation between being corrected and feeling motivated

| | Being corrected |
|------------------------------|-----------------|
| Motivation for participating | -.254** |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

There is a negative correlation between motivation for participating and being corrected. The correlation is significant, and its strength is medium. This indicates that learners' motivation for participating in English class decreases when they are being corrected.

The fifth research question concerns learners' OCF preferences. Table 5 shows learners' attitudes towards different types of OCF. The participants were not presented with the names of CF types, and the results were computed from questionnaire items that deal with respective CF types.

Table 5: Attitude towards different types of OCF

| Type of OCF | Min | Max | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|-------------------------|-----|-----|------|----------------|
| Recast | 1 | 5 | 3.33 | 1.25 |
| Repetition | 1 | 5 | 3.62 | 1.10 |
| Metalinguistic feedback | 1 | 5 | 3.87 | 1.21 |

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|---|---|------|------|
| Explicit correction | 1 | 5 | 3.57 | 1.10 |
| Clarification request | 1 | 5 | 3.78 | 1.16 |
| Non-verbal signal | 1 | 5 | 2.84 | 1.27 |

The type of OCF with the highest mean value is metalinguistic feedback. That shows that learners preferred not to receive the correct form from the teacher immediately, but to find it themselves, using the directions of their teacher. Metalinguistic feedback was followed by clarification request, repetition, explicit correction and recast. In accordance with metalinguistic feedback being the most preferred type of OCF, the type of CF that the learners have the least positive attitude towards is a type of CF that provides learners with minimal guidance, non-verbal signal. The mean scores in Table 5 were tested for statistical significance using a pair-samples t-test. There was a significant difference in the scores for recast and clarification request ($t(236) = -3.906, p < 0.001$), recast and repetition ($t(241) = 2.804, p = 0.005$), recast and metalinguistic feedback ($t(242) = 6.140, p < 0.001$), and recast and explicit correction ($t(242) = 0.435, p = 0.014$). A significant difference was also found between non-verbal signal and clarification request ($t(237) = -8.284, p < 0.001$), non-verbal signal and repetition ($t(242) = -7.070, p < 0.001$), and non-verbal signal and metalinguistic feedback ($t(243) = -8.786, p < 0.001$).

5. Discussion

The present study was designed to gain insight into learners' motivation for participating in speaking activities during English classes and their attitudes towards OCF. The assumption that learners would not get discouraged after OCF was not confirmed. The results are not consistent with previous findings (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2005; Kalebić Čurković, 2009). The finding that OCF may lead to lack of motivation and to learners refraining from participation may point to the conclusion that learners do not feel confident or that their classroom environment is not supportive enough.

The inconsistency between the findings of the present study and literature could also be a result of the difference between learners' self-reported levels of motivation and their actual levels of motivation while in class. It is often hard to predict or recall one's true level of motivation when answering a questionnaire.

When it comes to gender and attitudes towards OCF, it seems that the attitudes are not influenced by gender, other than in terms of peer OCF. Male learners have a more positive view of peer CF.

However, language proficiency may play a role in on attitudes towards OCF. The results show that less proficient learners find CF more useful than more proficient learners. This finding was opposite to the assumption. Such results may be explained by the fact that since proficient learners make fewer errors, they have greater confidence and tend to underestimate the role of OCF in their progress in L2.

As a negative correlation was found between motivation for participating in class and being corrected, it may be concluded that the motivation for participating decreases after OCF. Such conclusion would be in accordance with Krashen's (1981, 1982) theory which puts great emphasis on creating a motivating and supportive environment in classroom, and according to which correcting learners is detrimental to learners' motivation and produces negative attitudes. If Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis is true, teachers in classes where learners have attitudes towards OCF similar to learners in the present study could facilitate L2 acquisition of their learners by examining and adjusting the ways in which they use OCF.

Finally, the analysis of attitudes towards different types of OCF produced findings similar to those of other researchers (Yoshida 2008, Kalebić Čurković 2009): learners prefer coming up

with the correct form themselves with teacher guidance and metalinguistic clues, rather than being provided with the correct form immediately. This is visible from the lower mean of learners' attitudes towards recast when compared to other types of OCF. The differences between recast and other types of OCF were significant. Since the majority of participants (77%) were more proficient, this finding is not surprising. Learners proficient in English have a better understanding of language and can recognize teacher's clues and follow them. Accordingly, learners did not have a positive attitude towards non-verbal signal, with significant differences between non-verbal signal and other types of OCF. This again confirms that learners like having a guidance or an explanation on the way to error repair. Non-verbal signal only shows learners that an error was committed, and that may lead to frustration if they are not aware where or what part of their utterance was erroneous.

On the whole, regardless of the fact that the results of the present study mostly do not coincide with the results of other studies, they may offer a different perspective on OCF and motivation. The results showed that learners did not have a very positive attitude towards OCF, and in turn, their motivation for participating suffered. Several factors could have been the reason for that. For example, this study did not observe the ways in which the teacher provided OCF during class, and OCF may have been provided too frequently or in a manner which intimidated learners. Other than that, it is possible that learners who received OCF may not have experienced the expected progress in L2 and because of that, they started to doubt the usefulness of OCF.

The purpose of this study was to explore learners' attitude towards OCF and motivation, and the results it has yielded may be useful to L2 teachers. Being aware of learners' attitudes is useful for teachers to create an atmosphere where learners feel confident and are willing to take risks in speaking activities, and thus improve their language speaking skills. If learners have a low motivation for participating in speaking activities, teachers could examine the way in which they provide OCF and try to find some methods which would work for both sides for reaching the goal of L2 learning. The present study also suggests that teachers should examine how their learners of different proficiency levels feel about OCF because it is always difficult to find a universally appropriate method. By answering Hendrickson's five questions (1978) or adjusting OCF styles, teachers could make use of CF, a powerful tool in language teaching, to establish a classroom in which learners actively participate.

6. Conclusion

Due to its communicative nature, EFL education is usually based on interaction between learners and teachers. Teachers are tasked with keeping learners motivated. That can be a difficult task because every learner has their own background and varying motives for learning. Learners' motivation is partially affected by teachers' teaching processes, which inevitably include corrective feedback. Corrective feedback is an important aspect of teaching that has many areas worth investigating. As L2 teaching is constantly changing, especially with the development of technology and its presence in L2 classes, it may be expected that there will be some changes in the ways in which teachers correct or do not correct their learners.

The present study set out to explore the relationship between oral corrective feedback and learners' motivation and to inspect learners' attitudes towards OCF. The results showed that using OCF too often discourages students from further participation in class. The difference in attitude towards OCF of learners of different genders was not found, but the results showed that less proficient learners were more acceptant of CF. The study also found that learners prefer to have the chance to correct themselves with the help of their teacher, rather than being told the correct version, or not being told anything at all.

It is important to note that this study did not try to offer definitive answers, and the results are not universally applicable. Each teacher should decide why, when, and how to correct learners' utterances. As results of this study can only be seen as contingent, and because corrective feedback and motivation are complex fields, further research on the topic is needed. This study had some limitations which could have impacted the results. First, all participants were learners from the same school. It would be worthwhile to investigate attitudes of learners from different schools and different classroom environments. Furthermore, the study could be complemented by observing speaking activities in classes and investigating the examples of OCF which occurred, investigating how frequently certain types of OCF occur, and learners' feelings during and after OCF. It would also be useful to investigate the difference in providing OCF between classes oriented towards communication and classes focusing on grammar. Finally, since teachers are the ones who have the responsibility of providing CF and the choice how to do that, it would be useful to investigate their attitudes and explanations why and how they decide on a certain CF type. All of these

are possibilities for further research. Hopefully, the findings will lead to constant optimization of L2 teaching processes.

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Appendix

Research Questionnaire

1. Opća pitanja

Dob _____

Razred _____

Spol _____

Materinski jezik _____

Koliko godina učite engleski? _____

Zadnja zaključna ocjena iz engleskog _____

Sviđa li Vam se govoriti engleski na satu engleskog jezika? (zaokružite broj)

- 1 Uopće mi se ne sviđa
- 2 Ne sviđa mi se
- 3 Niti mi se sviđa niti mi se ne sviđa
- 4 Sviđa mi se
- 5 Jako mi se sviđa

Koliko se često javljate na satu engleskoga? (zaokružite broj)

- 5 Više puta na svakom satu
- 4 Gotovo svaki sat
- 3 Povremeno
- 2 Rijetko
- 1 Nikada ili gotovo nikada

Koju ocjenu u prosjeku dobivate na usmenim provjerama znanja iz engleskog? (zaokružiti)

1 2 3 4

2. U ovome dijelu upitnika nalaze se tvrdnje koje se odnose na ispravljanje pogrešaka u govoru i na Vašu motivaciju za sudjelovanje u radu na satu engleskoga jezika. Pažljivo pročitajte svaku tvrdnju i zaokružite broj koji prema Vašoj procjeni označava u kojoj se mjeri izjava odnosi na Vas.

| | | | | |
|------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|
| 1 – uopće se ne slažem | 2 – ne slažem se | 3 – niti se slažem niti ne slažem | 4 – slažem se | 5- u potpunosti se slažem |
|------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Nastavnik mi često ispravlja pogreške dok govorim ili nakon što sam govorio/la engleski na satu. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Nakon što me nastavnik ispravi, osjećam se manje motivirano za sudjelovanje na nastavi jer se bojim da ću opet pogriješiti u govoru. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Mislim da me nastavnik opravdano ispravlja. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Nastavnik me ispravlja češće nego što ispravlja moje kolege. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Nastavnikovi ispravci mi pomažu naučiti engleski. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Nekada kada napravim pogrešku u govoru nastavnik me ne ispravi. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Osjećam se loše kada me nastavnik ispravi. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Kada nastavnik postavi pitanje, a nisam siguran/sigurna kako se točno nešto kaže, radije šutim nego da napravim grešku u govoru. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Nekada kolege u razredu isprave moju pogrešku. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Većinom mi je jasno zbog koje me pogreške nastavnik ispravlja. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Slušam kada nastavnik ispravlja druge učenike. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Kada netko napravi pogrešku u govoru, ispravim ih prije nastavnika. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Bude mi korisno kada me kolege isprave. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Ne smeta mi kada me nastavnik ispravlja jer tako učim na svojim pogreškama. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Ako me nastavnik ispravi više puta na satu, prestanem se javljati. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Korisno mi je kada me nastavnik ispravi. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Nakon ispravka, shvatim gdje je bila moja pogreška u govoru i nastojim je više ne činiti. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Više volim kada me isprave kolege nego nastavnik. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Više volim kada me ispravi nastavnik. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Ako me nastavnik ispravi, a i dalje ne shvatim što sam krivo rekao/rekla, pitam za pojašnjenje. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Mislim da mogu naučiti iz pogrešaka svojih kolega kada ih nastavnik ispravi. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

2.1 U ovome dijelu upitnika nalaze se tvrdnje koje se odnose na različite načine ispravljanja pogrešaka u govoru na satu engleskoga jezika. Pažljivo pročitajte svaku tvrdnju i zaokružite broj koji prema Vašoj procjeni označava u kojoj se mjeri izjava odnosi na Vas.

| 1 – uopće se ne slažem | 2 – ne slažem se | 3 – niti se slažem niti ne slažem | 4 – slažem se | 5- u potpunosti se slažem |
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| 22. Kada napravim pogrešku u govoru i nastavnik ponovi cijelu moju rečenicu zajedno s pogreškom, mogu prepoznati gdje je bila pogreška. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. Kada napravim pogrešku u govoru i nastavnik ponovi moju rečenicu, ali u ispravnom obliku, osjećam frustraciju jer ne znam što je i zašto ispravljeno. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. Bolje naučim ako mi nastavnik da točan ispravak moje rečenice nego kad moram sam/sama doći do točnog rješenja. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. Kada mi nastavnik na moju rečenicu na engleskom odgovori da ne razumije ili traži da pojasnim, često mislim da je moja rečenica ipak bila točno izrečena. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. Kada napravim pogrešku u govoru i nastavnik ponovi cijelu moju rečenicu zajedno s pogreškom, znam ispraviti svoju pogrešku. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. Ako mi nastavnik dok govorim uputi neverbalni znak (npr. dizanje obrve), znam da sam pogriješio/la u govoru. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. Kada mi nastavnik na moju rečenicu na engleskom odgovori da ne razumije ili traži da pojasnim, znam koji dio trebam popraviti. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. Kada me nastavnik često ispravlja to negativno utječe na moje samopouzdanje na nastavi engleskoga jezika. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. Kada napravim pogrešku u govoru i nastavnik ponovi cijelu moju rečenicu zajedno s pogreškom, osjećam frustraciju ako ne znam gdje sam pogriješio/la. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. Više volim kad mi nastavnik nakon moje pogreške objasni i gramatičko pravilo i kaže točnu verziju rečenice. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. Kada mi nastavnik detaljno objašnjava moju pogrešku, a ja je znam sam/sama ispraviti, osjećam se kao da podcjenjuje moje znanje. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. Kada napravim pogrešku u govoru i nastavnik ponovi moju rečenicu, ali u ispravnom obliku, znam zašto je rekao rečenicu u tom obliku. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. Osjećam se motivirano za javljanje na nastavi i nakon što me nastavnik ispravi nekoliko puta. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. Više volim sam/a ispravljati svoje pogreške nego da me nastavnik ispravi. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

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|------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|
| 1 – uopće se ne slažem | 2 – ne slažem se | 3 – niti se slažem niti ne slažem | 4 – slažem se | 5- u potpunosti se slažem |
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| 36. Kada mi nastavnik na moju rečenicu na engleskom odgovori da ne razumije ili traži da pojasnim, često ne znam što mu nije jasno. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 37. Ako mi nastavnik dok govorim uputi neverbalni znak (npr. dizanje obrve), većinom znam gdje mi je bila pogreška i odmah se ispravim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 38. Kada mi nastavnik na moju rečenicu ukaže na to gdje je bio problem (npr. „Kako tvorimo Past Continuous?“), znam se prisjetiti pravila i ispraviti se. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 39. Kada mi nastavnik na moju rečenicu na engleskom odgovori da ne razumije ili traži da pojasnim, osjećam ljutnju što ne razumije. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 40. Ako napravim pogrešku u govoru a nastavnik mi ne kaže ništa, svejedno znam da je došlo do pogreške i ispravim se. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 41. Kada napravim pogrešku u govoru i nastavnik ponovi moju rečenicu, ali u ispravnom obliku, mogu uočiti gdje je bila pogreška. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 42. Ako mi nastavnik kaže da imam pogrešku a ja ne znam na što misli, pitam za pojašnjenje. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 43. Kada nastavnik nakon moje rečenice s pogreškom kaže točnu verziju riječi u kojoj je bila pogreška, znam kako je došao do točne riječi. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 44. Više volim kad mi nastavnik daje neverbalni znak nego kad me ispravlja riječima. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |