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Performing in an Acquired Language among Finnish Ninth-Graders
Immersion versus Non-Immersion

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ABSTRACT

Työssäni olen tutkinut peruskoulun päätävien äidinkielenään suomea puhuvien yhdeksäsluokkalaisten oppilaiden kirjoittamista englannin kielellä. Tutkimukseni osallistui yksi englannin kielisen kielikylvyn käynyt luokka- ja yksi tavallisen suomenkielisen ohjelman käynyt luokka. Oppilaille annettiin tehtäväksi kirjoittaa ajatuksiaan sosiaalisen median ja elektronisten laitteiden käytön määrästä englanniksi, ja tehtävässä oli Eric Pickersgillin valokuvia jotka toimivat visuaalisena apuna. Tavoitteeni oli selvittää millainen vaikutus englannin kielisen kielikylvyn käymisellä englanninkielisen tekstin tuottamiseen.


KEYWORDS: immersion, word-classes, productivity, attitudes, language acquisition
1 INTRODUCTION

English language has a strong presence in Finland. It can be heard in everyday television, in the news and on the radio. Dubbing is highly unusual and the only programs that are dubbed are mostly cartoons or programs aimed at children. A national survey on the Finns’ use and attitude towards English confirms that English is the most used and studied language, and that the majority of people assess their English skills as relatively good. English is not considered a threat to Finnish language and culture, in fact, quite the opposite it is considered an essential part of the multicultural and globalizing world. (Leppänen, Pitkänen-Huhta, Nikula, Kytölä, Törmäkangas, Nissinen, Kääntä, Virkkula, Laitinen, Pahta, Koskela, Lähdesmäki & Jousmäki 2009: 9)

Studying English in the Finnish primary school starts early, usually during the third grade when the pupils are approximately ten years old, whereas in immersion programs studying the second language starts already in kindergarten. English is considered the most popular A1 language, meaning it is the most common compulsory language taught in primary schools, in addition to the pupils’ mother tongue Finnish or in some cases Swedish. Since the year 2000, studying English even before the third grade has increased, which can be in some cases explained by the fact that it has been the only language possible for the school to offer as the A1 language. (Kangasvieri, Miettinen, Kukkokovi & Härmälä 2011: 9–10)

According to a survey done in 2011, foreign languages are taught differently across Finland. Hours taught per week and contents can vary, yet immersion programs are considered to have the most consistent guidelines when compared to other non-immersion curricula. In Finland, early immersion can begin in kindergarten, yet not before the child turns three. In this early teaching method, all activities and talking takes place in the immersion language, which the child does not have to learn beforehand. (Kangasvieri, Miettinen, Palviainen, Saarinen & Ala-Vähälä 2012: 9, 21) The first immersion program in Finland was started in Vaasa, in the autumn of 1987. (Laurén 1994: 7) It was a Swedish early total immersion program, and according to Laurén, the motive for establishing it was both intranational and international. (1994: 7) The first English immersion began in
1996 in Kokkola. (Laitinen 1999: 6) Various studies and surveys have been done in order to map out the Swedish immersion program for example by Martina Buss and Karita Mård in 1999, yet very few on English immersions.

The overall aim of this study is to find out the differences in written production of English between pupils attending the English Immersion program and pupils attending the Finnish program, at the age between fifteen and sixteen. A similar study has been conducted by Teija Kuorikoski and Hanna Laakkonen in 1999, but from a different angle. In their research, Kuorikoski and Laakkonen examined gender differences in written production through visual stimuli and their focus was only on the English Immersion pupils in elementary school, from third to fifth grades. (Kuorikoski & Laakkonen 1999: 4) My study will not focus on gender differences, it is conducted with the help of both immersion and non-immersion groups and the pupils are older. Also, Anu Lainas and Eeva Nurmi (2002) studied spoken differences between an immersion group and non-immersion group. In their study, all of the pupils were given the same verbal task, to tell a story with the help of pictures from Disney’s Hiawatha comics which was recorded. The groups’ vocabulary was measured through the lexical density and variation and then compared the result among the immersion and non-immersion group. (Lainas & Nurmi 2002: 1) The reason I chose to research English immersion is because I have attended it myself and I believe it is important to study immersion more to find out how well does it work in Finland.

The main research question of my study was to examine how does attending English immersion effect English language production, from a different angle than the previous studies. By using visual stimuli, I studied the written production of two classes from two different educational programs, to see how the written productions differed between the immersion and non-immersion group. I examined productivity and the different word classes the pupils used – nouns, adjectives, verbs, and possible idioms – since I believed these factors would show the differences amongst the groups most efficiently. Also, I took a look at the vocabulary through a frequency band check, which gives out information on how frequent a certain word is in the English language. My initial hypothesis was that written production in English would not cause any difficulties in
neither of the classes since the English language has a strong presence in Finland, but that
the immersion pupils would produce texts with richer vocabulary and fluency than the
non-immersion pupils since they have been subjected to it on a daily basis since
kindergarten.

As my second research question, I wanted to find out what attitudes do the pupils have
towards English language in Finnish society and their thoughts on Social Media. In my
study I applied the questionnaire form originally used in a National Survey of Finns’
attitudes done by a group of researchers from the University of Jyväskylä, in order to
compare the result with my results of the ninth graders answers, to see to what extent will
the answers differ, of will they differ at all.

1.1 Material

The material analyzed in this thesis consisted of the written productions of the pupils of
an English immersion class and a Finnish non-immersion class. There were 13 pupils
participating from each class, so that gave me 26 texts in total. The pupils were in the
ninth grade, aged from fifteen to sixteen and attended Länsipuisto School in Kokkola, a
Central Ostrobothnia town in Finland. The material also included the responses to the two
questionnaires that the above mentioned pupils filled in. The main written task was in
English, but the two question forms were in Finnish, because the aim of the question
forms was to find out their attitudes and not writing skills.

The first form examined their usage of English in everyday life and the second form
inquired on their attitude towards English language in the Finnish society. The most
important data for my case study was the pupils’ productions of writing with the help of
visual stimuli and questions. I conducted my study on the 24th of May 2016, after the
pupils were done with their national exams all Finnish pupils finishing comprehensive
school take at the end of the semester.
As the stimulus pictures I used three photos from an American photographer Eric Pickersgills’ “Removed” project (Appendix 1). Pickersgill removed all smartphones and tablets from every day scenarios, aiming to show how addicted our society is to technology (Pickersgill 2016). The idea to choose these photos came from our discussions in our thesis seminar, and since technology is a tremendous part of any teenager’s life and it seems to always stir some kind of debate, I thought it would be an appropriate subject for the pupils to write about and give them an opportunity to write about their own opinion on the matter. The pupils were given a lined paper to write their story on, with a few helping questions on top of the paper. I explained the task to them in both English and Finnish, and I encouraged them to ask if they did not understand something. To make the research as reliable as possible, the pupils were not allowed to use any dictionaries or other sources of information such as the internet or course books. The pupils were well aware that their writing and the whole task was only for my use and that it would not affect their grades in any way.

In addition to the questionnaire on the attitude towards English (Appendix 2), the classes filled in a questionnaire about their use of English in everyday life. They also filled in a questionnaire (Appendix 3) in which they were asked in what language they mostly listen to music, watch television and read and in what kind of situations they use English the most. The main point of this questionnaire was to see if there is any positive correlation between the pupils’ attitude toward English and the degree to which they use English in their free time. Both questionnaires were designed and prepared by me.

1.2 Method

The core method of this study was comparison. The main aim of this thesis was to find out what kind of impact attending an immersion program has on the pupils’ written production in comparison with non-immersion pupils. Immersion students are exposed to English from a much younger age than non-immersion pupils – their exposure begins in kindergarten from the age three to five, whereas non-immersion pupils' exposure to English, in school, does not begin before the third grade at the age of nine. That is why it
was assumed that the immersion pupils’ texts would be more fluent and have a broader vocabulary. In order to test this assumption, fluency, productivity (word count), the use of different word classes, and vocabulary were analyzed from a qualitative angle and the resulting data from two groups were compared. As an additional qualitative method, a frequency band check was done in order to see how general the vocabulary used by the pupils. This method will give me information on how general or how unusual vocabulary do the pupils use in their texts so I can examine the possible differences occurring in the word frequency ranges of the two groups compared. The frequency check was conducted through the online version of Oxford English Dictionary and will be explained in more detail in section 3.7.

As mentioned before, I used Eric Pickersgills’ photos as visual stimuli. The guidelines for my analysis were taken from Kuorikoski and Laakkonens’ (1999) thesis, yet I applied it in a simplified form. In their analysis, they looked at productivity, lexical density and variations as well as quantity and quality of nouns, adjectives and verbs, and in addition counted and categorized all the vocabulary the pupils’ produced in their stories. Kuorikoski and Laakkonen wrote their thesis together, which made it possible for them to conduct such a broad study and a very detailed analysis. The analysis for their thesis was adapted from Martina Buss’s Licentiate Thesis on a similar piece of research done with Swedish immersion pupils. (Kuorikoski & Laakkonen 1999: 22)

The classes had exactly two hours to complete all forms and write their texts. I stated that this task had nothing to do with their grading, and that it is solely for the purpose of my thesis and that it would be important to do the task to the best of their ability. I explained the task first in Finnish and then in English. In any case of misunderstanding I requested the pupils to let me know and raise their hand but none of them did. Even though they had two hours to complete everything, I had all of the data in my hands within an hour of starting. The data was collected separately from each class, first from 9E and secondly from 9A. 9E consisted of 13 pupils, 9 boys and 4 girls. 9A had the same number of pupils, 8 boys and 5 girls. The mother tongue of the pupils of both of the classes was Finnish. There were some absent pupils in both classes which was unfortunate, but I still managed to get a decent amount of data from both classes. There were more boys than girls in both
classes, but since my analysis does not focus on gender differences, that did not matter. After establishing the overall aim and main research questions, material and methods used in this study, I will move on to discuss the background and attitudes towards the English language in Finland and the academic background information of my immersion and non-immersion groups participating in my research.
2 ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION AND ATTITUDES IN FINLAND

In the following sections, the Finnish curriculum of English immersion and the curriculum for non-immersion pupils participating in my study will be introduced. Contents and aims of language teaching of both classes attending different programs will be explained in detail. In addition, the history of immersion teaching will be briefly introduced. The Finnish National Board of Education – referred to as FNBE in the rest of the thesis – discusses several ways of teaching second languages, yet I will discuss only the immersion program which the immersion pupils in my research have attended. The way second language A1 is taught in Finland can vary between schools, so I have contacted the two teachers who teach English to the classes I am focusing on to give me specific information about the curricula they have followed. Also, I will discuss the outcome of the National survey on the attitude of Finns’ towards English language and its use in everyday life. I will discuss and compare the outcome of the same survey filled in by my groups with the National survey later on in the thesis.

2.1 Survey on the Attitudes of Finns’ towards the English Language and its use

In this section, I will discuss Leppänen and Nikulas’ (2008) thoughts and conclusions on the attitudes of Finns’ towards English language and then present some results of a National Survey conducted by researchers from University of Jyväskylä as mentioned in the previous section.

Language is closely related to how we identify ourselves, so it is to no surprise that the spreading of the English language as the lingua franca of our world and the effects it has on our Finnish society has brought up some conversation. To no surprise, the spreading and increase of English language use has brought out some concerns to whether or not it is a threat to other languages and cultures. In addition to that, many believe it is merely a way Americans try to influence the world economically and culturally. Then there are those who are concerned that the lack of English language skills will create a socioeconomic division between those who know it and those who do not. In Finland,
English language has been debated through both pros and cons. On one hand, it has caused some concern on taking over our education, business life and research, yet on the other hand it is seen a key component in enhancing international relations and communication, and made many aspects of our society such as politics, business and everyday life much easier. (Leppänen & Nikula 2008: 9–10)

After processing various studies and articles and the matter, Leppänen and Nikula (2008) came to the conclusion that English has become an everyday tool for the Finnish people. English is not just one phenomenon but it gets a different meaning in different contexts. There are instances where English is the only language to communicate with people who do not master Finnish, and in education English has become the language to learn which has made it less strange over the past decade. English has also become an everyday recourse for Finns through informational technology, using internet pages and networking though international websites has opened a completely new platform, which most of the time works in English. (Leppänen & Nikula 2008: 421, 423)

All in all, the research done on Finns attitudes and usage of English has shown that English has become more of a second language than foreign language for many these days. Despite of the comments on English introducing sociological inequality, it can be said that English does not bring any threat to Finnish language, quite on the contrary it has been used as a resource alongside Finnish. (Leppänen & Nikula 2008: 426–427)

In the autumn of 2007, a group of researchers from the University of Jyväskylä conducted a national survey on the attitude and perception of the Finns’ toward the English language in the 2000’s when English became more significant and present in everyday life and globalizing world. The data was collected through questionnaires and consisted of 1,495 responses, collected by random sampling. In the following sections I will briefly discuss the respondents’ backgrounds and examine the outcome of this survey, focusing on the attitudes toward English. (Leppänen et al. 2009: 5)
From the 1,495 respondents, half were male and half were female. The age of the respondents varied from 15 to 79, 15% being 15–24 years old, 35% being 25–44 years old, 38% being 45–64 years old and 12% were 65–79 years old. Almost half, 640 of the respondents lived in a city larger than 50 thousand in population and the rest lived in smaller cities or in the country. 30% of the participants work in a field of expertise, 27% work in offices and customer service, 6% work in management positions and 7% in the healthcare field. The rest work in other field or have left this question blank. (Leppänen et al. 2009: 24–26)

The personal importance of English was measured with a five scale opinion questionnaire, (very important, important, not that important, not important at all or cannot say) the youngest respondents, almost 80%, felt that English was important or very important, whereas the older respondents, over 60%, and the ones living in the country areas felt English was not so important. 73% of respondents living in larger cities said English to either important or very important. (Leppänen et al. 2009: 48)

To find out more about the attitudes towards English, the respondents were asked to answer the following statements with a similar five-scale opinion questionnaire mentioned above. I have translated the following statements from the original survey conducted in Finnish (APPENDIX 5). (Leppänen et. al. 2009: 65) (completely agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree, completely disagree or cannot say):

a) young people should know English  
b) working people should know English  
c) elderly people should know English  
d) the spreading of English in Finland is a threat to the national languages  
e) the spreading of English in Finland is a threat to the Finnish culture  
f) Finnish people travelling abroad should know English  
g) a Finn can be international without knowing English  
h) it would be important that everyone in Finland would know English, for the sake of the development of the multicultural society in Finland
i) in addition to English, Finns should learn other foreign languages
j) the mother tongue is more useful to Finns than English
k) the English language is more useful for Finnish speaking Finns than Swedish
l) the English language enriches the national languages
m) English speaking is overrated
n) social services such as health care, should be provided in English
o) all companies in Finland should offer services in English

After examining all responses, following discoveries were made: The majority of respondents agreed that a) young people (97%) and b) working people (80%) should know the English language, yet c) elderly people (only 23% agreed) do not have to know it. The majority of respondents strongly agreed that f) Finnish people travelling abroad should know English and i) in addition to English, Finns should learn other foreign languages. Most of the respondents seemed to have a neutral and practical attitude toward English, and agreed that apart from elderly people, everyone else should know English. (Leppänen et al. 2009: 64)

Opinions were split between agreement and disagreement in the following statements: h) it would be important that everyone in Finland would know English, for the sake of the development of the multicultural society in Finland and g) a Finn can be international without knowing English. Only under a fifth of the respondents thought the spreading of English to be a threat to d) mother tongues (18%) or e) to the Finnish culture. (17%). A slight majority (53%) agreed that the mother tongue was more useful to Finns than English, yet even more of the responses (81%) agreed that the mother tongue is more useful than English, but English is more useful to a Finn than Swedish (82%). 59% thought that social services should be offered in English as well to Finnish, but only 39% agreed that all companies should offer services in English. (Leppänen et al. 2009: 65)
These results show that the majority of the respondents do not think that English could replace Finnish or Swedish and corrupt our national culture. The fact that over a half of the respondents thought that the effect of English on the Finnish language, is only positive and enriches it, is interesting. According to the results, the belief in the national languages and culture seems to be so strong that the Finnish language can only benefit from the positive effect of English. (Leppänen et al. 2009: 65)

As mentioned in the introduction, I presented the same questionnaire to the ninth graders. I will discuss the outcome and compare their answers and attitudes with the results shown above later on in the thesis. The attitude towards and opinion on the English language these pupils have, might have a connection with the pupils’ motivation and interest to learn English. Therefore, I believe the survey on attitudes my groups filled out might have a correlation with the outcomes of the written task they produced. It will also be interesting to examine the possible differences in the opinions teenagers and adults have on using English.

2.2 Immersion Language Teaching Guidelines in Finland and English Immersion Class

The idea of immersion teaching emerged during the 1960’s, in Canada, where a group of Canadian parents began to fell disappointed with their children’s French language skills, the level of communication skills in particular. Most parents believed that these skills were necessary if their children were to have successful prospects of employment in the future. A series of trial projects were set up to examine different ways of teaching French as a second language. By 1965, a French immersion program had been developed in Montreal, in which students began kindergarten and were immersed in a completely French environment. (Colburn 1998: 11)

The point of bilingual teaching is to obtain diverse language skills in both teaching languages. The long term aim of immersion is to create skills for lifetime language learning and teach how to appreciate the cultural diversity within the language. Pupils
must be taught in authentic surroundings. In addition to teaching the pupils literature in their mother tongue and immersion language, other subjects must be taught in both languages and also utilized in everyday life situations outside of the classroom. Bilingual teaching has to focus on communication, interaction and active use of language. The teaching language and the immersion language form an entity that is supported together with the teachers and pupils’ parents. The planning and execution of the curriculum needs careful co-operation with all teachers and staff of the school and kindergarten. Teaching various subjects in the immersion language requires solid language skills in the immersion language from the teacher. The responsibility of planning the schedules and teaching is mostly up to every school and kindergarten itself, yet certain guidelines need to be followed. (The Finnish National Board of Education 2014: 89–90)

Early immersion is for children that do not speak the immersion language as their mother tongue. Early immersion can begin earliest at the age of three and latest in preschool. The total amount of teaching in the immersion language in early immersion is at least 50%, so, that in preschool and kindergarten it is almost 100%, in grades 1–2 around 90%, in grades 3–4 around 70%, and in the grades 5–9 on average 50%. The amount is calculated from each classes total teaching hours. (The Finnish National Board of Education 2014: 90–91)

All subjects should be taught in both immersion and the school’s teaching language throughout comprehensive school, yet separately. The teachers act as individual linguistic role models in both languages, so when the teaching language switches, so should the teacher. The teaching material is in the same language as is taught, and it is important that the pupils maintain decent language skills in both languages to achieve their goals in different subjects. The pupils’ native and international cultural identity must be enhanced with the combination of the native language and immersion language. This way the cultural encounters are strengthened and pupils develop a multilayered cultural identity in a positive and constructing manner. (The Finnish National Board of Education 2014: 91)
The class 9E has attended this early immersion program, attending elementary school in Hollihaka, as all English immersion pupils do in Kokkola. After elementary school they carried on to Länsipuisto middle school to finish their immersion. In middle school, they no longer study any other subjects than English, in English, and they have the same amount of lessons of English as do the non-immersion classes. Naturally, the content of their lessons vary from the non-immersion classes, focusing more on reading and learning more complex vocabulary. A teacher in Länsipuisto school, Raija Luhtio, who is familiar with both of the classes’ English teaching, provided me with the information on both of the classes. In the following section I will introduce the curricula of the non-immersion class 9A.

2.3 Language and English Teaching Guidelines for Non-Immersion Pupils in Secondary School in Finland and Non-Immersion Class 9A

FNBE provides guidelines for language teaching, yet teachers are responsible for the timetables. Each municipality must offer language teaching within the best possible conditions they can offer. In the following section I will explain the guidelines of language teaching and English teaching in as much detail as possible. The following two paragraphs and learning aims listed are from the Finnish version of FNBE’s guidelines that I have paraphrased and then translated.

Language is a condition to learning and thinking and it is involved in all school activities in which every teacher acts as a language teacher. Studying languages develops mental skills and helps to form a multilingual and multicultural identity and appreciation. Interaction develops through the increase of vocabulary and structure learning. Learning languages prepares the pupils to a structural and creative environment in different social groups, which creates readiness for the pupils to connect and keep in touch with people all over the world. Teaching must enhance the self-confidence of the pupils own skills and encourage them to bravely use them in different situations. Teaching is organized in way that every pupil can progress individually and get remedial instructions if needed,
and pupils progressing faster than others or know the language already can move forward faster. (The Finnish National Board of Education 2014: 127)

In grades one and two, pupils are familiarized with foreign languages by singing, playing and other activities. This kind of method is called the language shower. Further on, in Finnish elementary and middle schools' language teaching (grades three to nine) is divided into collective (compulsory) and elective (voluntary) languages. The A1 language is collective and usually begins in the third grade, as well as the collective B1 language, which begins in the seventh grade. In addition, municipalities can offer an A2 language as elective which usually begins latest by the fifth grade, and a possible elective B2 language beginning in the eighth grade. (Kangasvieri et al. 2011: 8)

I have translated and paraphrased the following aims that FNBE has given for English A1 language teaching for pupils attending grades seven to nine. (The Finnish National Board of Education 2014: 349; my translation)

- **Growth in cultural diversity and language awareness.** Aim 1: Develop the pupils’ skills to reflect on the status and variants connected to the phenomena and values of English, and guide pupils to readiness in developing cultural communications. Aim 2: Encouraging the pupil to find interesting English contents and working environments, which broaden the idea of the globalizing world and the possibilities acting in it. Aim 3: Guide the pupil to see the consistencies in the English language and how the same issues are expressed in other languages, and how these language concepts can be utilized to support learning.

- **Language learning skills.** Aim 4: Encourage the pupil to set goals, utilize the versatile ways of learning English and to evaluate his/hers learning independently and in cooperation. Also, guide the pupil to positive interaction, emphasizing communication skills. Aim 5: Improve the pupils’ independence in creatively adapting language skills and lifetime learning readiness.

- **Improving language skills, the skill to interact.** Aim 6: Encourage the pupil to take part in discussions aimed at different age groups and subjects that also
include discussing opinions. Aim 7: Support the pupils’ initiative in communication, offset means and meaning negotiation. Aim 8: Assist the pupil to detect the cultural aspects of communication and support the pupils’ constructive intercultural communication.

- **Improving language skills, the skill to interpret texts.** Aim 9: Expose the pupil to speech and reading in various contexts which can be interpreted using different strategies.

- **Improving language skills, the skill to produce texts.** Aim 10: Guide the pupil to produce spoken and written texts for different purposes on subjects that are general and meaningful for themselves, taking grammatical issues and proper pronunciation into account.

In Länsipuisto school, the class of 9A has followed the curriculum discussed above which entails a great deal of skills to learn. The group’s teacher Raija Luhtio mentioned that both 9A and 9E classes had the same amount of English throughout middle school, having eight credits (1 credit = 38 lessons) in total. In the 7th and 8th grade they had 2.5 credits (95 lessons) per academic year and in the 9th grade they had 3 credits (114 lessons) per academic year, one lesson being 45 minutes long. In elementary school, 9A had 8 credits of English throughout grades 3 to 6, so on average 2 credits per year. This means, the non-immersion class 9A has had around three or less lessons (just over two hours) of English language teaching a week, per academic year since 3rd grade of elementary school up to the last grade of middle school, the 9th grade.

It is important to remember, that prior to middle school, immersion class 9E had most or at least half of their subjects taught in English throughout elementary school, so the difference in the amount and exposure of English they had since a young age compared to non-immersion class 9A is substantial. The next chapter will discuss various factors influencing language learning, how and in what age children learn to speak, differences in speech and writing and differences between language acquisition and language learning. Also, processing word classes and the frequency band check will be briefly explained.
3 THEORIES ON SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

In the following sections, I will discuss the process of acquiring a language and what factors affect it. I will also deal with the question of what it means to acquire a language and how written production differs from oral production. Although my study focuses only on written production, it is important to see what kind of variables affect the pupils’ writing and performance in the specific task they were asked to do in the data collection phase of this study. Motivation, individual differences, anxiety and attending an immersion program have a significant effect on people’s learning which then affects the outcome of my study. I will introduce how children learn to speak and briefly talk about the process and the role of lexicon and word classes in language learning. In addition, I will introduce the concept of frequency bands and what are they since they are going to be examined in the case of each word contained in the material.

3.1 Language Learning versus Acquiring a Language

Humans are able to acquire one or more second languages (L2) in addition to their mother tongue. First, the term *acquisition* has to be defined, since this thesis focuses on second language production. There is a difference between *language learning* and *language acquisition* and Stephen Krashen (1987: 10) defines language acquisition being something than happens unconsciously, that language learners are not aware of the rules of language they possess. In contrast, language learning is something conscious and happens through learning linguistic rules. According to Loraine Obler (1989: 142) for most the processes of learning happen simultaneously: conscious learning and subconscious acquiring of the language. People acquire languages in various ways, and it is difficult to define what actually happens in our brains during the process. Researchers have come a long way yet many questions are still unsolved and cannot be explained scientifically. (Lightbown and Spada 1993: 38)
Without a doubt we can state that having competence in a language means proficiency in all aspects of the language: writing, reading, listening, understanding and speaking. When students take higher-level courses in a foreign language they already know well, one of the main directions in which their proficiency is expected to develop is towards improving writing skills. Better writing involves different subskills among which improve correctness, style, wider vocabulary, effective cohesion, logical and coherent structure. It is relatively easy to assess the level of these skills at a certain point, yet to understand how they are acquired, longitudinal studies are necessary (Shaw 1998: 143) According to Håkan Ringbom (1990: 139) comprehension and production are, of course, closely related in the sense that they are both concerned with the study of performance, especially its underlying processes, whereas learning and acquisition are concerned with changes in the learner’s competence and the processes leading to such changes. What changes occur in competence is difficult to study directly, they have to be studied through performance.

According to Pienemann’s Processability Theory (1998) acquiring a language proceeds through certain stages in a hierarchical order. The reason for this theory – that there is a hierarchical order in processing procedure for second language acquisition (SLA) – is his assumption that language acquisition actually means acquiring the procedural skills needed for processing the language, which he calls producing structural options. Pienemann explains the hierarchical progress of the procedures with the fact that mastering each lower level is the condition for the functioning of the higher level. So, in order to acquire new information, the learner has to have some previous knowledge about it on which the new knowledge can be based on. The ultimate benefit from explaining the hierarchy of processing procedures is that there is an analogy between the processing procedures and the target language acquisition. (Pienemann 1998: 1,7,9) After establishing the differences in learning versus acquiring a language, we can move on to examine the individual differences and the effect of motivation that occur in individual learning.
3.2 Factors Influencing Language Learning

Next, I will briefly examine what factors influence language learning and especially second language learning. Motivation and individual differences were key elements in the outcome of my study, since the pupils were told it had no effect on their grades so it was solely in their control how much effort they were willing to put in their texts. In other words, they had no external motivation besides me, a student needing to graduate, so I could only hope for their best efforts.

3.2.1 Individual Differences

Language learning and learning in general entail various factors which all influence the learner from one perspective or another. Personality, intelligence, anxiety, motivation and even social factors are all somehow intertwined with the learner and have a direct effect on the outcome of lifelong learning. McLaughlin (1984: 151) points out that many researchers have found out that there is significant variation amongst individual children and that there is no reason to doubt that individuals acquire information in a somewhat different speed and different way. Lightbown and Spada (1993: 36–37) write that several researchers are convinced that there is a definite connection between intelligence and second language learning and that intelligence levels can clearly predict the success in second language learning. However, some more recent studies claim that intelligence has an effect on certain second language abilities more than others, proposing, for example, that intelligence has a bigger influence on the more formal language skill development such as reading, writing, analysis and vocabulary than on oral communication skills. (Ellis 1985: 111)

According to Lightbown and Spada (1993: 38) a number of personality characteristics also have an influence on second language learning, even though it is not easy to demonstrate this influence directly. McLaughlin (1984: 175) explains that the reason why studying the personalities effect on second language learning may cause difficulties, is because other factors such as self-confidence, social background, learning style etc. have
to be taken into consideration in order to examine and find out the proportion of the personality factor. There are studies that find extrovert, adventurous and assertive individuals successful in language learning yet there also other studies claiming not all great language learners are extroverts. (Lightbown & Spada 1993: 38) Another factor that is difficult to scientifically pinpoint, yet has proven to have an impact on the learner, is anxiety. All of us have experienced anxiety at some point or another and there are vast differences in the way we react to situations that cause anxiety. Spolsky (1989: 113) states that numerous studies have proven that an anxious learner will be a poor learner. Anxiety has a poor influence on concentration, memory and it does not encourage the individual to practice, which is crucial in acquiring new information.

In my study, it is difficult to show how the pupils’ personalities and anxiety level have influenced their second language learning. I did not consider the factors MacLaughlin (1984: 175) stated above, so my study is not sufficient enough in that case of the matter. When considering anxiety, I believe the non-immersion class has more anxiety in L2 learning than the immersion class. The immersion class has been exposed to English since such a young age, so producing such a short text in English should not cause them much anxiety. For the other class on the other hand, anxiety or simply the lack of motivation could have had an influence on their English production. The next section will discuss the role of motivation in language learning.

3.2.2 Motivation

Motivation is highly recognized as a variable of importance in human learning, reflected in goals and directions pursued, levels of effort, levels of engagement and degree of persistence in learning. In the field of L2 learning research, these features have been the core analysis of motivation. Frameworks for theorizing L2 motivation have evolved over the past fifty years, they seek to describe and analyze why do people want to, or do not want to, learn a language, and how far do they persist to reach their goal. Reasons and goals are crucial for providing a motivational rationale for engagement in L2 learning, while short-term targets, effort, persistence and motivational control are important in
Reasons why people learn particular languages in the first place have been classified as instrumental or integrative orientations, reflecting either on their pragmatic goals such as employment, or cultural and social goals. The future of L2 motivation is now increasingly theorized in terms of the pursuit of social, professional, global and cultural identities that are accessible only through the proficiency of a certain language. Yet when thinking about motivation on the micro temporal level, without a personal long-term objective, it may be difficult to sustain interest in L2 learning. Thus, pupils without interest and who do not see any point in L2 learning are most likely to quit the first chance they get. The most important way to sustain motivation for any L2 learner is to have personal goals and objectives outside the externally imposed and regulated by other and the curriculum. (Ushioda 2014: 34–35)

Even for sufficient L2 learners who have clear learning aspirations, setting long-term goals may not be sufficient enough to sustain motivation. Another important forward-looking dimension of motivation is setting interim short-term goals and targets, which can be achieved during the following days, weeks or months. These short-term settings help regulate motivation by accomplishing successful and structured progression along the way to the long-term goal. If learners themselves are involved in the process of setting these meaningful goals or what Bandura and Schunk (1981: 595) have called “proximal self-motivators” this engages them in self-evaluation which thus helps develop their metacognitive awareness of their developing language skills and knowledge. (Ushioda 2015: 36)

The process of sustaining motivation does not only entail the focus on progressing and developing one’s skills and competence, but also entails the ability to respond effectively on demand. A capacity to deal with unmotivating aspects of L2 learning and L2 related experience, such as failed test, boring tasks, or difficulty to understand or produce a text is extremely important. For some, poor outcomes drive them towards working harder, yet for some it has the opposite effect. (Ushioda 2014: 38) Now that we have established
general factors influencing language learning and the difference between language learning and acquiring a language, we can move on to discuss the main goals and methods of language acquisition through immersion.

3.3 Language Acquisition through Immersion

Language immersion programs are school programs where the subject content is taught in a foreign language. Language immersion is an effective method of teaching a L2 language when compared to other programs teaching foreign languages. When explaining the principles of immersion Colburn (1999: 11) discusses the meaning of the term “to immerse”. She describes immersion as “gently immersing children into water until they feel happy and comfortable enough to dive in themselves”, which describes the core idea of immersion.

Snow (1990: 113) defines the goals of immersion in the following way: Firstly, immersion pupils will follow the standard elementary school curriculum. Secondly, learning through an immersion program will not interfere with the pupils’ first language development. Thirdly, the pupils will be able to speak, listen, read, and write in the foreign language. Also, the pupils’ attitude towards learning the foreign language and maintaining their first language will stay positive. He states that ‘students learn the regular school subjects that all youngsters must study in elementary school while “incidentally” learning a second language.’

The immersion language is the language used to teach the concepts and curriculum and the lessons focus on the subject content, taught through meaningful teacher input, not only on the components of the language. This is connected to the way the children learn their mother tongue, through meaningful interaction with other mother tongue speakers. The first language of the pupil has to be the dominant language outside school, this is required in order to make sure their mother tongue does not completely deteriorate. (Colburn 1999: 12)
The teachers involved in immersion programs have to use the same language with the pupils whether they teach with their mother tongue or second language. This makes sure that the pupils relate the language to the teacher, whenever and wherever they meet and give the learner a feeling of security. It also ensures that the two languages are separated for teaching without any translation from one language to another and not repeating the same material in both languages. (Colburn 1999: 12)

When the pupils begin their immersion program, the teachers encourage them to use the second language and avoid demanding only correct linguistic usage. The teacher has a crucial role especially in the early stage of the immersion program, acting as a linguistic model to the children. When linguistic mistakes are made, the teachers do not correct these mistakes straight away, but reply by modeling the correct usage to the pupil. The teachers are well aware of each of the pupils’ linguistic ability, and the pupils are never forbidden to use their mother tongue in any cases if linguistic insecurity of misunderstanding. (Colburn 1999: 12)

It is extremely important that the pupils understand the teacher and the immersion teachers have a wide variety of techniques to ensure this. In the early stage of immersion, teachers use shorter and grammatically simple sentences, repeat them daily with gestures, mimes and facial expression as daily routine to enhance the meaning. Later on new vocabulary, objects, concepts and new visual material are introduced to help understanding. As the pupils grow, the teachers use certain checking points to make sure that a certain level of understanding has occurred for each pupil. (Colburn 1999: 12)

3.4 Differences between Speech and Writing

Research indicates that the only way to learn writing is to write. Whilst other ways of using language, mostly reading, can affect writing ability, there is no substitute for extensive experience of writing itself. One sense of “writing to learn” means that through writing one is learning to write and the second sense of “writing to learn” is that writing can be means for learning. Both of these views of writing depend on a nontraditional view
on learning: it is not a process of ingesting the teacher’s information, or developing and acquiring skills, but a personally engaging transaction through which the learner makes her own connections and builds her own meanings. (Lester, Mayher & Pradl 1983: 1)

Writing involves a purpose and an audience, even if it only an assignment given to a pupil from a teacher. Good writers learn to make even the most boring assignment their own. During this act, they will discover what they want to say. Until then, no one can say or evaluate has the writer said what they have to say adequate or inadequate. (Mayher, Lester & Pradl 1982: 2) Since this thesis focuses solely on the written production, let us briefly examine the differences of speech and writing.

According to Perera (1984: 150) speech consists of sounds that produced in a sequence of time whereas writing consists of marks made on a surface such as paper, in an arrangement in space. The spatial arrangement is two-dimensional: some writing systems progress across the page, others from top to bottom, but all involve both horizontal and vertical movements. The time on the other hand, is necessarily uni-dimensional. Speech is heard, writing seen. It can be said that a person can normally read twice as fast as they speak, speed varies of course, according to mood, situation and purpose but on average we can read 300 words per minute and speak 150 words per minute.

A piece of writing is durable, it can be read and re-read, it can be reproduced and carried about. Once written, it can permanently exist without an author, read across the globe and throughout centuries without knowing the identity of the author. Speech on the other hand is impermanent, local and personal. Before mobile phones and tape recorders, speech could not be recorder, replayed, and rarely carried out further than the speakers own voice. Perera (1984: 164–165) discusses the functional differences of speech and writing in addition to the physical and situational differences. Even though speech can be written down and read aloud which links these two forms closely together, they have different functions. If speech would perform all required functions that society needs, there would be no need for slow and elaborate writing at all.
The advantage that lies in writing is the possibility to write about ones’ ideas and thoughts in private, without fear of interruption or disagreement. It is a means of extending ideas and clarifying ideas. When a controversial topic occurs, there is a tendency for opinions to polarize; if someone tries to express more than one opinion, he will be forced to choose the one true opinion, which might make him defend a point of view he does not really believe in. In writing this is perfectly avoidable by doing research, develop a line of thinking, it is possible to take an ‘on one hand, on the other hand’ stance since there is time to check facts, find more information, to weigh opposing arguments and so on. So writing is a vital intellectual tool not only because it allows for information to be stored yet also enables different ways of thinking to take place. (Perera 1984: 165)

Even though speech and writing fulfill different functions they have certain features in common and differ in other aspects. Both of them are needed and have their particular characteristics, possibilities and requirements. Even though we can say speaking and writing have a number of different features, neither can be said to be a unified phenomenon. There is a continuum for informal conversation to academic writing. These two modes have a wide variety of styles and tend to be used for different purposes and in complementary situations. (Biber 1988: 9)

Written language has a great influence on vocabulary, which can be seen among children when they start to read (Crystal 1995: 179) Through reading, children pick up new words through which their vocabulary expands rapidly. Written sources are the best and most important source for the growth of vocabulary of teens and adults as well. In the next section I will briefly describe the processes on how does a child begin to learn to speak, learn words and how does our brain process words into word classes.

3.5 English Language Learning – The Mean Length Utterance Theory

Crain and Lillo-Martin (1999:28) refer to a study conducted by Roger Brown (1973), who shows that it is more appropriate to talk about language development in terms of stages rather than age, which was also Pienemann’s (1998) outlook on learning, as mentioned
earlier. This is because children differ enormously in the time they begin to achieve various levels of linguistic mastery. For a long time, monitoring children of the same age hid the fact the developmental sequence in almost invariant, even though some children reach some stages faster than others.

Brown’s study on learning English discovered that the stages correlate highly with the length of a child’s utterance. What is correlated is not the maximum length of any utterance a child might make, because a child can produce a sentence that is longer than her normal performance. But if we examine the average or mean length of the child’s spontaneous utterances, we can differentiate such stages. This measure is called Mean Length of Utterance (MLU). MLU is determined by recording a large number of speech samples from a child, writing down the utterances, and finding out the average number of proper words that appear in the utterances. Brown has found five clear stages of development of a child’s MLU, which are presented in Table 1 below. In other words, MLU is a measure of a child’s computational capacity – how far their memory and attention spans have developed. (Crain & Lillo-Martin 1999: 28)

Table 1. Stages of Mean Length Utterance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>MLU</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>&lt;2</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1900</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At around two years old the child reaches Stage I in development. At this stage, the child’s vocabulary reaches 400 words, and an MLU of 1.75. The child starts producing many single-word utterances, such as naming objects, as well as two to three word “sentences” such as “Daddy sit chair.” The word order consistently follows adult word order, but grammatical words such as “is” and “the” are not used. At the age of two, children reach Stage II. At this stage their MLU is about 2.25, and their vocabulary grows up to 900 words. At this stage, the child obtains some grammatical devices, such as determiners,
pronouns, the progressive ending “-ing” and the past tense. They can talk about absent objects and past events and ask questions about matters around them. At the approximate age of three, children reach Stage III. The MLU hits 2.75 and their vocabulary consists of around 1,200 words. Children start acquiring auxiliary verbs, prepositions, and other grammatical morphemes. Also, they begin to use the WH- questions to form yes/no questions and answers. At the age of three and a half years, children move into Stage IV (MLU = 3.50, vocabulary approximately 1,500 words). At this stage, children begin to use multi-clause sentences, such as relative clauses, complement clauses, and conjoined clauses. Still, they over regularize many irregular forms of verbs. (Crain & Lillo-Martin 1999: 29–30)

At around four to five years, children enter Stage V (MLU = 4.0, vocabulary 1,900 words). During this stage children produce more conjunctions, including subordinate clauses with temporal terms such as “before” and “after”. They start engaging in conversations with peers and begin to learn some metalinguistic abilities such as defining words, and correcting their own grammatical errors. These abilities are called metalinguistic, because they involve the conscious self-awareness of the aspect of language. After the child has reached Stage V, it is difficult to explain language acquisition in terms of stages of the MLU. The issue is that children’s sentences continue to show more complexity, without becoming longer. So much of the grammar is learned by the age of five, it is difficult to show areas of improvement. During the age of five to ten, vocabulary continues to increase, though more slowly. (Crain & Lillo-Martin 1999: 31)

Brown has been able to describe what happens in the development of a child’s vocabulary learning, and it is safe to say children begin to develop grammatical skills and structural knowledge as soon as their word capacity reaches its critical amount. However, the actual development has not been able to describe in detail, since there has not been enough and versatile data to examine the language development in detail: how does the child progress from storing vocabulary to a grammatical system and how do the quality and resources of the language increase. As the child begins to construct their preliminary grammar, the focus begins on the basic form of the words. Children usually learn words in a particular
form in everyday activities and routine such as play time, dinner time and bath time. Therefore, learning words for a child is basically labeling (e.g. \textit{mommy, table, chair, spoon}) and as soon as the word capacity reaches a sufficient level, the child can begin associating words in their different contexts. (Laalo 2010: 12)

Aitchison (1994: 169) refers to the human brain and word-store as a \textit{mental lexicon}. Children are like magnets when it comes to learning words, they can learn up to ten words a day after learning how to speak. On average, a two-year-old actively uses around five hundred words, a three-year old over one thousand and a five-year old up to three thousand words. Finding out how do children build up their mental lexicon is not a simple task.

3.6 Processing Word Classes

Languages divide words up into parts of speech, word classes which are usually given a label such as noun, verb or adjective and so on, each having its own role in the sentence. The philosopher Wittgenstein suggested to think about the word classes as a tool box with hammer, plier, a ruler, glue, nail and screws: The functions of these words are as diverse as the functions of these objects. Many think that the content words are the ones constructing the proper lexicon and the content words are nouns, verbs and adjectives that form the major building blocks of English. (Aitchison 1994: 99–100)

Aitchison (1994: 100–101) points out that when people pick a word in mistake for another, the errors almost always keep the word class of the target, whether they are based on meaning, sound, or both. Nouns change places with nouns, verbs with verbs etc. for example “I looked in the calendar (catalogue)” or “It’s a good way to contemplate (compensate)”. This kind of characteristics have been noticed by the vast majority of the researchers on the topic. This finding that word selection errors preserve their part of the speech suggests that the latter is an integral part of the word, and firmly attached to it. This phenomenon cannot be accidental, nor can it be solely due to syntactic selection processes.
Word class categorization is not coincidental, and originally arose out of semantic categories. Prototypical nouns are usually people and things, and prototypical verbs tend to be actions. This connection seems to be universal even though the connection between a certain word and its part of speech prototype can be quite obscure: for example, verbs such as exist, know, believe do not describe obvious actions. Semantics and syntax overlap, and linguists spend a great deal of time arguing where the boundary between them should exist. From the point of view of the mental lexicon, this implies that we should not understand meaning and word class as separate parts that need to be connected, but as integrated. (Aitchison 1994: 101)

So how can we then separate the word classes within the parts of speech? Swarms of bees, shoals of fish and flocks of sheep all cohere but in various ways, and the same occurs in parts of speech. Nouns relate to nouns differently from adjectives to adjectives and so on. Potential layered structure is a key characteristic of nouns: A Shetland pony is also a pony, a horse, a mammal, an equid, a herbivore, an odd-toed ungulate, a mammal, a vertebrate, an animal, an organism and an entity – eleven levels. These tiers are potential rather than inevitable and can be tested by a kind of test: A Shetland pony is a kind of a pony, a pony is a kind of a horse, and so on. The information is probably repeated at each level in the mental lexicon rather than assuming an ‘inheritance’ system in which the low-level layer (such as the Shetland pony) ‘inherits’ the properties of the higher level. (Aitchison 1994: 103)

Meronymy or partonomy (parts of things) is an important relationship for nouns. When quizzed about basic-level objects, people tend to list the component parts. They mentioned that a body has a head, a trunk, legs and arms. And the parts themselves have parts. These parts form a conceptual entity from appearance to behavior as the following Figure 1 illustrates.
Figure 1. Meronomy: parts of a whole (Aitchison 1994: 103)

The area covered by meronymy is unclear. A strict view adopts a test of “The parts of this thing include X Y Z.” This strict view includes members of collections “A fish is part of a shoal” and portions of a whole “A slice is a part of a cake.” But is a month part of a year? Is a punch line part of a joke? Many researchers think meronomy should entail these things. We can say meronomy in an important relationship of nouns, yet one whose properties are still being explored. (Aitchison 1994: 104)

Nouns not only include parts: A dog has a nose and tail, but also attributes: A dog is black, is soft, and functions: a dog barks, eats meat, can run – though how these all are connected in unclear, and leads us back to discussion of prototypes. Nouns therefore are characterized above all by potential layers, and inside the basic level, layers of parts. Adjectives are quite different, they are less independent and often rely for their interpretation for the noun to which they are attached: a rich cake is rather different than a rich businessman. (Aitchison 1994: 104)

There are two types of adjectives, the heavy suitcase type and the mathematical genius type. The first describes the value as heavy to a noun such as suitcase, so it can be called an ‘ascriptive adjective’. These kinds of adjectives can be graded, so heavy here means heavy in relation to the normal weight of a suitcase. Heavy-type adjectives almost always
have an opposite, though this may vary depending on the noun, *heavy* versus *light* for a suitcase, versus *slight* for a cold, versus *calm* for the sea. Other types of adjectives can be minimized by the phrase ‘pertaining to’ and these have been labelled as ‘pertainyms’, so a *mathematical genius* is a genius in the field of mathematics and a *musical cat* is a cat which likes music. Figure 2 below illustrates *ascriptive* and *pertainym* types of adjectives.

**Figure 2.** Types of adjectives (Aitchison 1994: 104)

![Diagram of types of adjectives]

Verbs are often double-layered: a hyponym and superordinate, though the relationship is not the same as in layered nouns. The lower-level verb carries out the action of the superordinate in a distinctive way: to *lisp* or to *stutter* is to ‘talk in a particular way’, to *limp* or *amble* is to ‘walk in a particular way, to *munch* or *chew* is to ‘eat in a particular way’. This has been called troponymy (Figure 3), even though not all verbs fit into this pattern. Bodily function words for instance, such as *snore, faint, shiver* are difficult to process. Is to *snore* to breathe in a particular way? Or *faint* to fall in a certain way? Or *shiver* to tremble in a particular way? (Aitchison 1994: 104)
Figure 3. Troponomy: acting in a particular way (Aitchison 1995: 105)

So now we can see the different characteristic organization of nouns, verbs and adjectives within word classes, supporting the conclusion that word classes are fairly separate in the mental lexicon. (Aitchison 1994: 105) In the next section I will briefly explain what is frequency band checking and how I will use it in my data analysis.

3.7 Frequency Band Checking

As promised, as a part of the qualitative analysis I will conduct a frequency check for all of the basic forms of the words with the help of the OED webpage. In other words, this frequency check will show how often a specific word occurs in modern English from 1970 till the present day. I will use this frequency band check to show how general or unusual words do the pupils produce in their texts. Since the frequency check works only for each word individually, terms such as social media, social and media will be checked separately. The frequency band of each word is shown in the Oxford English Dictionary online version simply after typing in each word.
The words are assigned to a frequency band based on its overall frequency score. The scale for these bands runs from 8 (very high-frequency word) to 1 (very low-frequency word). The scale is logarithmic: words in 8 eight are ten times more frequent than 7 and so forth. In other words, the lower the band the more unusual and rarely used word. The following Table 2 shows the frequency range of each word.

**Table 2. Frequency Band range**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BAND</th>
<th>Frequency per million words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>&gt;1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>100 – 999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>10 – 99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1 – 9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.1 – 0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.01 – 0.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&lt;0.0099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Word in band 8 are used more than 1000 times per million words in normal modern day English. Words belonging to band 7 occur between 100 and 1000 times per million words and include the main semantic words which form the substance of ordinary, everyday speech and writing: Nouns including basic terms for people (*man, woman, people*), body parts (*hand, eye*), measurements of time (*year, day*), general terms for common aspects of the immediate world (*animal, food, room*) and basic vocabulary for referring to the world in abstract terms (*thing, object, place*). Adjectives such as adjectives of number (*third, four*) of size duration (*large, old, young*) and value and judgement (*good, true, right*). Band 6 contains a wide range of descriptive vocabulary such as nouns referring to specific objects, entities, processes and ideas (*cat, mouse, ship, mile, machine, assessment, career, explosion, desert, and headache*). A wide range of adjectives of certain qualities, states of affairs or people’s actions in certain contexts, (*traditional, professional, successful*) all the basic colors are in this band and adjectives and nouns relating to nationality and geographic origin (*Finnish, Asian*). Major religions
(Christianity, Jewish, Muslim) and political and economic ideologies (democracy, communist, socialist) are also in band 6.

Vocabulary in band 5 tends to be restricted in literate vocabulary associated with educated discourse although some words might still be familiar within this context of discourse. The difference in everyday language found in bands 8–6 in distinct in nouns, (surveillance, tumult, paraphrase) adjectives, (radioactive, conditional, authorized) verbs (gravitate, comprehend, jeopardize) and adverbs (functionally, empirically, exponentially). Most words which would be seen distinctively educated while not being technical or jargon are found in this band.

Band 4 contains words of greater specificity, wider range of register, regionality and subject domain than in those found in bands 8–5. However, most words are recognizable by English speakers and are likely to be used in fiction or journalism. Examples of nouns include: life support, nutshell, rewrite, candlestick. Adjectives: astrological, insolent, methylated. Verbs: galvanize, plop, intern and adverbs: satirically, productively, unproblematically.

Vocabulary in band 3 is found commonly in general text types such as novels and newspapers but at the same time they are not overly obscure. Examples of nouns include ebullition and merengue, in adjectives amortizable, quantized and contumacious. Also, adjectives include a marked number of colloquial words as cutesy, dirt-cheap and badass. Verbs tend to be either technical or colloquial, such as emote, mosey and recapitalize.

Words in band 2 and 1 are almost all exclusive terms that are not part of normal discourse or modern texts and would not be familiar to most people. These include technical terms from specialized fields or terms restricted to occasional historical use. After getting familiarized with word class processing, how do children learn to speak and what do frequency bands mean, I will move on to my analysis chapter of the thesis.
4 ANALYSIS & DISCUSSION

As mentioned before, I will look at the productivity (word count) of the texts, and examine the differences between the immersion and non-immersion classes – with regard to main word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and other) and other findings in the rest of the word classes such as prepositions, articles, adverbs etc. The word count of each pupil and an overall word count and percentage division for the main word classes: nouns, verbs and adjectives will be presented with diagrams and charts. I did not see the need to list the percentage division among the word classes of each pupil individually, since the average percentage of each individual was similar to the overall calculated amount.

The qualitative analysis will include findings on the rest of the vocabulary used, how they are used and how fluently the pupils have produced the text. Also, a frequency word check for the nouns, verbs and adjectives and the unusual expressions and words from the rest of the word classes will be conducted. I did not want to focus on grammatical errors in detail, however, I will discuss some of the grammatical features that occurred and I will take a look at the general level of grammar among the classes. I have counted the words and divided them into word classes myself and used Microsoft Excel 2010 to help calculate statistics and create tables and figures. I have transcribed the pupils’ handwritten texts with Word to make it easier for me to conduct findings and word counting (Appendix 4). Since I have done all the counting myself and even though I have done the calculations a number of times, it is important to take into account the possible margin of error that exists in the numbers and calculations. I have relied on the online version of Oxford English Dictionary for help in instances of doubt, yet the word class and context of each word has to be determined by myself, since there is no reliable database to do so for me.

I will also analyze the responses to the attitude questionnaire filled out by the pupils and compare them to the answers given by the adults participating in the original study conducted by a group of researchers from the University of Jyväskylä and examine the thoughts and opinions of the written task regarding the stimuli photos and social media.
Lastly, I will briefly examine the questionnaire regarding the use of English language in their free time and see is there any correlation to the quality of their written production.

4.1 Productivity

The simplest way to examine the productivity of each pupil is by doing a simple word count. Since the texts produced by the pupils were no longer than one page, I was able to do the counting first by hand and then check with the help of Word. The immersion pupils’ average word count was 98 words, whereas non-immersion pupils’ average was 69. I counted the average of boys and girls separately just out of interest, and I noticed quite a difference in the length of their texts. On average, the immersion girls produced 134 words, whereas the boys wrote 81 words. Similarly, the girls in the non-immersion class produced more words than the boys with an average of 85 words, the boys’ word count averaging at 51 words.

The variation in the length of the texts among these two classes was significant. The longest text produced by a pupil in the immersion class was 214 words and in the non-immersion class it was 198 words. The shortest text from the immersion class was 34 words and in the non-immersion it was 8. However, this was an exception since the second-shortest text in the non-immersion class was 38 words. Even though the difference between the shortest and longest texts looks similar at first glance, most of the pupils of the non-immersion class did not produce more than 70 words. Only two pupils wrote over 100 words, whereas the rest varied between 38 to 75, one writing 8 words. The text length among the immersion class varied mostly between 80 to 214, from which four pupils wrote over 100 words and one over 200. Only three pupils wrote under 80 words. On the next page, the word counts of each class are demonstrated with the help of Diagram 1.
As established, there are numerous factors influencing the production of the texts. First of all, the pupils knew they were not graded so that automatically affects motivation. Second of all, producing text in English comes with far more ease for the immersion pupils, since they have practiced it their whole childhood. Having attended English immersion school myself I know there is a certain pride immersion pupils have in circumstances like these, tests, exams and any situation where one can “show off” the ability to produce text and speech in English. Lastly, it is difficult to verify if the reason the non-immersion class produced less text was because of their lack of interest and motivation towards the task given by me, or did they genuinely do it to the best of their ability. It took both groups under half an hour to write their text, which indicates that they wrote what came to their mind first without putting too much thought into it. After taking a look at the productivity and length of the pupils’ text, I will begin looking through the content of the texts and see what kind of differences I will find among the immersion and non-immersion pupils.
4.2 Overview on the Word Classes Used

I wanted to examine the distribution and usage of word classes and take a look at the word and style choices of the pupils, since they give out a great deal of information about the English writing skills of each pupil as discussed in section 3.6. It is the most effective way to compare these two classes coming from two different backgrounds of studying English. As mentioned in the previous section, nouns and verbs are the first and most important word classes. After taking a look at the main word classes I will look at the rest of the vocabulary and examine the smaller details and various ways the pupils use the minor word classes such as articles, prepositions and any other finding.

In the next section I will give an overview of the percentages and calculations of the main word classes used before going into more detailed discussion on the various vocabulary used by the immersion and non-immersion classes. I have counted the words in the following way: Nouns including pronouns, verbs in every form, for example if the pupil has written doesn’t or isn’t which are shortenings of does not and is not, I have counted them as verbs. Adjectives, including some words such as their and your which can be considered pronouns in some cases, are considered adjectives in the context of the pupils’ texts in ways such as your phone, their time. In general, all of the words have been categorized into each word class according to the context they have been used in. Under the category other I have included the rest of the word classes: Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, exclamations and determiners. The following Diagrams 2 and 3 show the overall percentages of the three main word classes and other word classes used in the immersion and non-immersion classes.
As we can see from the diagrams, the overall percentages of the main word classes used are similar, nevertheless, the most significant difference is in the *other* word classes used. In the following sections I will examine the vocabulary of each word class in more detail to find out how in what ways the texts produced by the two classes actually differ from each other.
4.2.1 Nouns & Pronouns

The most interesting feature was that the most used proper nouns in both of the groups were identical. The top three most used nouns were: People, phones and time. All of these words were used up to five times in one pupils' text. Also, the nouns friends, family, (social) media and kids were expressed often in both groups. These noun choices make sense, since the stimuli pictures include a couple, a group of boys and a family.

Otherwise the use of nouns varied to some extent, yet still maintaining the same context in both of the classes. Even though the non-immersion class had a bigger proportion of nouns than the immersion class, they had less variety in the vocabulary. Same nouns were often repeated. In the following mind maps, I will show the variety of nouns used by each class by organizing the nouns (excluding pronouns) in a meronomous matter according to Aitchison (1994) discussed in section 3.6, instead of just listing the words used.

In Figures 4 and 5 on the next page, I have begun constructing the mind maps by using the term social media, since it is the core idea for the text assignment of the pupils. From there, I continued to compile the nouns in the order I thought were closest to the concept of (social) media, such as picture, people or (electronic) devices and the nouns mostly used by both classes were highlighted in grey. As it can be seen, all of the nouns used had the certain meronomy Aitchison (1994) talks about and form a conceptual entity. The nouns were all closely related to the given assignment, which was to express their opinion on social media and using electronic devices.
Figure 4. Meronomy of nouns immersion class 9E

Figure 5. Meronomy nouns by non-immersion class 9A
The use of pronouns such as I, we, they, you, them, it, me, this, that was similar in both of the groups. The expressions I think or I don’t think was expressed at least once or more in almost all of the pupils’ texts. Only three out of the 26 pupils did not have them. The pronouns were generally used correctly, however, the non-immersion pupils often misspelled I not writing it as s capital letter, whereas the immersion pupils had no such instances. The frequency band for most of the pronouns was 8 – meaning it is a word in frequent use in everyday English. Nothing and everything was used by two pupils of the immersion class and the frequency band for nothing was 7 and 6 for everything.

Most of the nouns in both groups belonged to bands 7 or 6, with the exceptions of tablets, emails, imagination, popularity, surge, addict and youngster which belonged to band 5. The word youngster used by a pupil in the non-immersion class caught my eye since there are not many words with the –ster suffix in use in modern day English. This word was used in the concept youngster culture which would be more familiarly expressed as youth culture. Perhaps this expression was picked up from an old movie or other popular culture.

Only two nouns from the texts were from lower bands than 5. Media, which was repeatedly used in both classes, either by itself or as social media, belonged to band 3 and brother used by one pupil in the immersion class to express her thought on how she thought her brother spent too much time on his smart phone. Another pupil wrote a clause using a rare expression the surge. According to the OED surge can be meant as a fountain, a source of a river or a high sweep of water. It can also refer to something rising, in this case the phenomena of the popularity of smart phones and other devices “[…] the surge of popularity in owning multiple electronic devices […]”. In the next section, I will examine the use of verbs.
1.2.2 Verbs

The vocabulary in this word class varied among the classes more than nouns. The assignment for the pupils was to express their opinion so it came as no surprise I think or I don’t think was the most common verb used in both groups. The next most used verbs were various forms of being (be, is, are, isn’t) do or don’t, use and spend. All of these verbs belong to band 7 or 8, except for is, which is used less frequently and belongs to band 3. All of these verbs cooperate well with the most used nouns (social) media, people, family, kids, friends, time and phones. The verbs are presented in Tables 3 and 4 below. The words presented in brackets show in what context were the –ing suffixed verbs used in and the numbers presented in brackets show the frequency band of each verb. The words are shown alphabetically row by row.
### Table 3. Verbs of immersion class 9E

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(are) allowing (7)</th>
<th>access (5)</th>
<th>are (7)</th>
<th>(are) becoming (8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be (8)</td>
<td>been (8)</td>
<td>care (6)</td>
<td>check (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(be) climbing (6)</td>
<td>communicate (6)</td>
<td>concentrate (6)</td>
<td>connect (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contact (6)</td>
<td>crush (6)</td>
<td>demonize (4)</td>
<td>depends (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(were) doing (8)</td>
<td>eat (6)</td>
<td>find (7)</td>
<td>(be) focusing (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forget (6)</td>
<td>generate (6)</td>
<td>giving (attention) (7)</td>
<td>going (on) (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hanging (out) (5)</td>
<td>(without) having (8)</td>
<td>have (8)</td>
<td>help (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(it’s) helping (7)</td>
<td>impact (5)</td>
<td>is (3)</td>
<td>do (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>know (7)</td>
<td>live (7)</td>
<td>look (7)</td>
<td>made (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>makes (8)</td>
<td>(without) noticing (6)</td>
<td>(in) owning (7)</td>
<td>paying (attention) (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>play (7)</td>
<td>(are) playing (7)</td>
<td>(people) reading (7)</td>
<td>receiving (a call) (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(then) removing (7)</td>
<td>scares (5)</td>
<td>searching (info.) (6)</td>
<td>show (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sits (7)</td>
<td>(are) socializing (5)</td>
<td>(are) spending (5)</td>
<td>spend (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suffers (6)</td>
<td>staring (at) (3)</td>
<td>start (7)</td>
<td>(are) stripping (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(by) taking (8)</td>
<td>(was) talking (7)</td>
<td>think (7)</td>
<td>try (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trying (to) (5)</td>
<td>understand (7)</td>
<td>use (8)</td>
<td>using (your), (a) (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(are) waiting (6)</td>
<td>want (6)</td>
<td>wanting (to) (6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Verbs of non-immersion class 9A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) am (5)</th>
<th>are (8)</th>
<th>be (8)</th>
<th>(are) calling (7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>can (8)</td>
<td>chat (5)</td>
<td>do (8)</td>
<td>does (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(are) doing (8)</td>
<td>(when) driving (6)</td>
<td>(are) eating (6)</td>
<td>feel (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get (bored) (7)</td>
<td>goes (7)</td>
<td>going (out) (7)</td>
<td>(I) got (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grab (6)</td>
<td>grow (7)</td>
<td>growing (up) (7)</td>
<td>have (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(are) ignoring (6)</td>
<td>is (3)</td>
<td>know (7)</td>
<td>last (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>looking (at) (7)</td>
<td>lose (7)</td>
<td>play (7)</td>
<td>playing (football) (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>put (7)</td>
<td>(are) putting (7)</td>
<td>remember (7)</td>
<td>see (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleep (6)</td>
<td>(be) sleeping (6)</td>
<td>spend (7)</td>
<td>start (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take (8)</td>
<td>(be) taking (8)</td>
<td>talk (7)</td>
<td>talked (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(be) talking (7)</td>
<td>think (7)</td>
<td>use (8)</td>
<td>used (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>using (them) (8)</td>
<td>wander (6)</td>
<td>was (8)</td>
<td>were (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I am) writing (7)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of verbs in the progressive –ing form was double in the immersion class, which indicates it is a tense that is easier and more natural to use for the immersion pupils (30 in the immersion class and 15 in the non-immersion class). This was not surprising, since according to Brown’s (1973) theory – discussed in section 3.5 – children learn the progressive form as early as the age of two. The immersion pupils have not been learning English that early, but as soon as five or six years old, which is much sooner than the non-immersion group. Nevertheless, both classes used the progressive form correctly and it was expected that the classes were going to write in the present form due to the nature of the written task. Most of the pupils referred to the photos in the task in ways such as “they should be talking” or “what their kids are doing”. There were only a few instances in the non-immersion group, where the pupil was missing an object in the sentence: “They are ignoring.” or “example when driving.”

As mentioned before, the verbs varied to a great extent between the groups, the classes using only 13 of the exactly same verbs. The rest of the verbs were different, yet the theme of the verbs had coherency. The theme of the verbs related well to social media, family, using of electronic devices etc. so the verbs in both classes did not differ in that sense.
When looking at the frequency range of the verbs, there are some differences. Out of the 49 various verbs of the non-immersion class, only six were under the frequency range 6. Out of the 68 different verbs the immersion class produced, 12 verbs were under the frequency band 6 meaning 12% of the verbs in the non-immersion class and 17% in the immersion class had verbs under the frequency band of 6. Words belonging to bands 5 or less are words that are usually learned through distinctly educated discourse that are learned in higher education or in a special field of work, so it is not expected that these classes would have much vocabulary in words belonging to bands 5 or less at this stage of their education. However, I did expect the immersion class to have more vocabulary from lower bands than the non-immersion, which they ultimately did.

Although the number of verbs in the lower frequency band was quite similar in both classes, bands 6, 7 and 8 had a bigger difference. The number of verbs from bands 7 and 8 was 35 in the immersion class, which was 51% out of all the verbs, whereas the number of the non-immersion verb count in these bands was 37, making it 75% out of all of their verbs. Verbs from the band 6 varied among the groups also: the immersion class had 18 (26%) verbs from this band, and the non-immersion only 7 (14%). This shows that the frequency level of the verbs used by the immersion pupils was slightly lower than the non-immersion class, who had verbs used in current everyday English language. All in all, both classes still used verbs with a high frequency on the general level. Now that I have examined nouns and verbs, it is time to move on to look at the adjectives and the rest of the word classes.

4.2.3 Adjectives

The adjectives were the minority word class used in the vocabulary of the pupils. The most used adjectives were similarly to nouns, the exact same in both classes. The most common adjectives used were good, bad, (too) much, other and the possessive forms of pronouns which were used as adjectives in the context of the pupils’ texts my, their, your and our. These possessive forms were mostly used in phrases such as “they are wasting their time” or “people are using their phones too much” or “in my opinion”. I will present
some of the adjectives in Figures 6 and 7 below, to show examples of the division between “ascriptive” and “pertainyms” according to Aitchison (1994) discussed in section 3.6. Briefly reminded, the “ascriptive” adjectives simply describe things and most of them have an opposite, whereas “pertainyms” are adjectives describing things that are part of something or have a partonomy of some kind for example electronic devices (a device that is electronic) or inappropriate situations (a situation that is inappropriate).

**Figure 6.** Adjectives of non-immersion class 9A

**Figure 7.** Adjectives of immersion class 9E
The frequency bands of the most used adjectives were also similar in both classes, most varying between 7 and 8. The only adjectives belonging to a band lower than 6 were *good* and *other* which belonged to band 4. The rest of the adjectives of both classes varied consistently between 6 and 8, with around a fifth of the adjectives belonging to bands 5 to 3. In Tables 5 and 6 below, both of the classes’ adjectives and their frequency bands are presented separately. The words are listed alphabetically row by row.

**Table 5. Adjectives of non-immersion class 9A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>all (8)</th>
<th>alone (7)</th>
<th>any (7)</th>
<th>bad (7)</th>
<th>bored (5)</th>
<th>embarrassing (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>electronic (6)</td>
<td>faster (6)</td>
<td>favorite (6)</td>
<td>fine (6)</td>
<td>first (7)</td>
<td>good (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>harmful (5)</td>
<td>important (7)</td>
<td>inappropriate (6)</td>
<td>little (7)</td>
<td>long (7)</td>
<td>lot (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many (7)</td>
<td>more (3)</td>
<td>much (8)</td>
<td>my (7)</td>
<td>new (7)</td>
<td>okay (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>only (7)</td>
<td>other (4)</td>
<td>our (8)</td>
<td>real (7)</td>
<td>rude (5)</td>
<td>popular (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sad (5)</td>
<td>scary (5)</td>
<td>second (7)</td>
<td>some (8)</td>
<td>their (8)</td>
<td>third (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>true (6)</td>
<td>unhappy (6)</td>
<td>useful (6)</td>
<td>useless (6)</td>
<td>your (8)</td>
<td>wrong (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>young (7)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6. Adjectives of immersion class 9E**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>able (7)</th>
<th>addicted (4)</th>
<th>alone (7)</th>
<th>annoying (5)</th>
<th>bad (7)</th>
<th>biggest (7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bored (5)</td>
<td>boring (5)</td>
<td>creative (6)</td>
<td>easy (7)</td>
<td>easier (7)</td>
<td>easily (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>face-to-face (5)</td>
<td>fine (6)</td>
<td>first (6)</td>
<td>fun (6)</td>
<td>funny (6)</td>
<td>good (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>great (7)</td>
<td>hard (7)</td>
<td>less (7)</td>
<td>lot (6)</td>
<td>mad (6)</td>
<td>made (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many (7)</td>
<td>modern (7)</td>
<td>more (3)</td>
<td>much (8)</td>
<td>multiple (6)</td>
<td>my (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative (6)</td>
<td>other (4)</td>
<td>our (8)</td>
<td>own (8)</td>
<td>passive (6)</td>
<td>polite (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real (7)</td>
<td>rude (5)</td>
<td>sad (5)</td>
<td>same (7)</td>
<td>smart (6)</td>
<td>second (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social (7)</td>
<td>some (8)</td>
<td>their (8)</td>
<td>wanting (4)</td>
<td>wrong (6)</td>
<td>younger (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uninterested (4)</td>
<td>your (8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As we can observe, also the adjectives have similar themes in both classes and this vocabulary is frequently used in everyday English. A few pupils in the immersion class had instances of less usual adjectives such as *face-to-face, creative, passive* and *polite*, but other than these this was the word class which had the least differences among the classes which was expected due to the nature and theme of the stimulus pictures. Both classes used the adjectives fluently without any difficulties or abnormal expressions. The following subsection will discuss the use of the rest of the word classes and other parts of writing.

4.2.4 Other

When examining the main word classes and their use in their texts the vocabulary used in both classes was somewhat similar. Apart from minor spelling mistakes and typos, both classes had good vocabulary and at times, it was difficult to tell apart was the text by a pupil in the non-immersion or immersion class. The vocabulary related to these small parts of speech (articles, prepositions, adverbs) were also quite similar, with some exceptions. The most visible difference however, could be noticed in the use of articles and sometimes prepositions. There were not that many instances of incorrect usage of articles or other classes, yet most of them were found in the texts of non-immersion pupils.

Another noticeable difference between the classes was the use of –ly suffixed adverbs. The immersion group used them frequently, whereas the non-immersion class had only a few instances. This may fall into the same suffix category as the –ing progressive forms the immersion class use with ease as well, using the –ly suffix effortlessly as well. The non-immersion group had adverbs such as: *definitely, especially, perfectly* and *instead*. The immersion class had adverbs such as: *actually, daily, especially, mainly, perfectly, personally, physically, properly* and *quickly*. One pupil in the immersion class used the adverbs *however* as well. Both classes used the transitive verbs *seems* and different forms of auxiliary verbs such as *should, could* or *shouldn’t* in a correct way. The frequency bands of the vocabulary in this section all belonged to bands 6 to 8 and the reason for this being that these small parts of speech like prepositions, adverbs, articles etc. are the ones
mostly used alongside nouns, verbs and adjectives. Almost all of the adverbials belong to band 6, other than that, all other words belong to bands 7 or 8.

Below I will list some of the phrases showing abnormalities in the non-immersion class and the one example found in the immersion class. On the next page, I present the phrases written by the pupils and in brackets below them I show a more appropriate and alternative way they could have expressed themselves:

Non-immersion class 9A

(1) “Yes I think that the social media is taking too much of our time.”
(...that social media is taking…)

(2) “I definitely think people spend too much time with their phones.”
...(on their phones…)

(3) “It’s very rude to take your phone when you are with somebody.”
...(take your phone out…)

(4) “I wonder why they spend too much time with they phones.”
...(spend so much time on their phones.”)

(5) “The computer is very popular for the playing games.”
...(for playing games.) or (Computers are popular for playing games.)

(6) “The TV isn’t so popular in today.”
...(so popular today.) or (TV isn’t so popular today.)

(7) “I think good time to use your phone is when you’re calling for help of actually looking up something useful. Bad time is when you’re just looking something useless when you’re with your friends and family and when the occasion doesn’t require you to have one, example when driving.”
(I think a good time… A bad time is when you’re just looking for something useless… for example while driving.)

Immersion class 9E

(1) “The social media and staring at our phones have made a bad impact on people.” (Social media…)

These examples were found in five pupils’ texts in the non-immersion class and in only one pupils’ text in the immersion class. The mistakes are minor, but rarely occur in the immersion class’ texts. I did not find other noticeable errors other than mentioned before, for example spelling mistakes such as writing I with a small letter that often occurred in the non-immersion class’ texts and other occasional spelling mistakes found in both
classes. As I stated in the beginning of this thesis, I will not examine grammatical errors in detail.

The texts of both classes were written in good English on the general level, some even showing instances of excellent usage in vocabulary that is not used in everyday English. Still, most of the time the texts were somewhat clumsy, sentences were short or very long without any punctuation, commas or other stylistical features. It was clear that the texts were written in quite a fast pace, writing down first things coming to mind. After examining the vocabulary, length, style and content of the texts, it was clear that doing this task came easier to the immersion class than the non-immersion class and that the texts were – despite of the occasional clumsiness and mistakes – more fluent than the non-immersion class’ texts.

4.3 Attitudes towards the use of English Language

In this section I will discuss the results of the attitude questionnaire answered by the 9th graders all together. Since the results of the two classes were similar, I will not be presenting the results of the immersion and non-immersion classes’ separately. The results will be compared to the results of the national survey done by researchers at the University of Jyväskylä, which were discussed in more detail in section 2.1. In addition to the comparison, I will present the results of the ninth graders in more detail, statement by statement.

To simplify the results, the diagram on the next page represents the percentage of the respondents answering completely agree or somewhat agree, similarly how the results were displayed in the national survey (Leppänen et. al. 2009: 66). While looking at the results, it is important to remember that the number of respondents is considerably lower in my questionnaire, than in the national survey. The number of respondents in my study was 26 and the number in the national survey was 1,495. From the participants in the national survey only 15% were aged 15 to 24 years old and the rest 85% were aged 25 to
79. From the 85%, 50% were over 45 years old. It was interesting to examine responses of pupils 30 years younger than most of the national survey respondents.

**Diagram 4. Percentage of respondents agreeing on statements regarding English in Finland**

- a) young people should know English
- b) working people should know English
- c) elderly people should know English
- d) the spreading of English in Finland is a threat to the national languages
- e) the spreading of English in Finland is a threat to the Finnish culture
- f) Finnish people travelling abroad should know English
- g) a Finn can be international without knowing English
- h) it would be important that everyone in Finland would know English, for the sake of the…
- i) in addition to English, Finns should learn other foreign languages
- j) the mother tongue is more useful to Finns than English
- k) the English language is more useful for Finnish speaking Finns than Swedish
- l) the English language enriches the national languages
- m) English speaking is overrated
- n) social services such as health care, should be provided in English
- o) all companies in Finland should offer services in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Ninth Graders</th>
<th>National Survey Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>97.2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>92.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>82.3</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.7</td>
<td>66.8</td>
<td>80.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>58.9</td>
<td>76.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>49.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>49.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The most noticeable differences (30% or more) can be seen in statements c) elderly people should know English and f) Finnish people travelling abroad should know English. The rest of the statements have vast differences as well, most having a difference of 20% or more. This came to no surprise, since the perspective on the world and matters in it are inevitably different at the age of 15 to 16, than at an adult or senior age. There were differences in opinion detected within the answers of the respondents in the national survey among the two younger age groups (15–24 and 25–44) and two older age groups (45–64 and 65–79) and also a difference in the responses of people living in larger cities of Finland. (Leppänen et. al. 2009: 66–68)

All ninth graders agreed or somewhat agreed 100% in statements a) young people should know English, b) working people should know English and f) Finnish people travelling abroad should know English. In statement c) elderly people should know English (65.4% agreeing) 7 pupils (27%) somewhat disagreed, 1 pupil (3.8%) completely disagreed and 1 (3.8%) could not say. In the national survey, this was a statement in which both younger and older respondents agreed, that elderly people did not have to know English. (Leppänen et. al. 2009: 66–67)

In statements d) the spreading of English in Finland is a threat to the national languages and e) the spreading of English in Finland is a threat to the Finnish culture had almost identical answers. Similarly to the national survey over 80% of the pupils disagreed with these statements, only 2 pupils not having an opinion in statement e).

Statement g) a Finn can be international without knowing English had the most split answers of all among the pupils. As 10 pupils (38.4%) agreed, 8 pupils (30.8%) disagreed and 7 pupils (27%) had no opinion. Opinions in the national survey were also split roughly in half in this statement, yet respondents from the younger age groups were the ones disagreeing most, especially the respondents from age group 25–44 years old. Similarly in statement h) it would be important that everyone in Finland would know English, for the sake of the development of the multicultural society in Finland the younger respondents of the national survey agreed more than the older ones. (Leppänen et. al. 2009: 66–68)
The ninth graders mostly agreed (76.9%), only 3 pupils (11.6%) disagree and 1 did not have an opinion.

In statements i) in addition to English, Finns should learn other foreign languages and j) the mother tongue is more useful to Finns than English almost a third of the pupils disagreed or did not have an opinion, somewhat similarly to the survey where almost 20% of the respondents did not agree on statement j) and over 30% with i). In these statements, the younger respondents of the national survey agreed most with the older respondents, but respondents living in larger cities agreed more in statement i) that respondents living in smaller cities and the countryside. (Leppänen et. al. 2009: 67)

Statement k) the English language is more useful for Finnish speaking Finns than Swedish was the second most agreed upon statement in the national survey with over 80% agreeing, and the fourth statement most agreed upon among the ninth graders with over 90% agreeing and only 2 pupils (7.8%) not agreeing.

Statement l) the English language enriches the national languages was another statement in addition to statement g) the English language enriches the national languages that had many pupils not having an opinion on. As 76.9% of the pupils agreed that the English language enriches the national languages the rest of 6 pupils (23.1%) did not have an opinion. The results of the national survey were split in half, in which once again, respondents from age group 25–44 agreeing more with statement l) than other respondents. (Leppänen et. al. 2009: 67)

Most of the ninth graders (88.5%) did not agree that m) English speaking is overrated except 2 pupils (7.7%) and 1 pupil not having a say, whereas over 30% of the national survey respondents did agree. In statements n) social services such as health care, should be provided in English and o) all companies in Finland should offer services in English vast majority of the ninth graders agreed with 3 pupils (11.5%) not having a say and 2 disagreeing (7.8%) in statement n) and 5 (19.2%) in statement o). The difference in opinion among the respondents in the national survey could be seen in statement n) social services such as health care, should be provided in English among respondents living in
bigger cities than the ones from smaller cities or the countryside. Respondents living in large cities agreed on this statement more than the ones from other areas. However, respondents agreeing that all companies in Finland should offer services in English were from all over Finland, bigger and smaller cities. (Leppänen et. al. 2009: 68)

It was interesting to see such a positive and realistic attitude towards English among all the ninth graders in spite of belonging to an immersion class or not. The pupils seemed to be honest in their responses and dared to disagree or to simply state not having a say. Now that I have discussed the results of this attitude questionnaire, in the next and final section of this chapter I will present the result of the second questionnaire on the usage of English of the pupils in their free time. Also, I will discuss the attitudes and opinions of the pupils regarding Social Media that appeared in their written task with visual stimuli.

4.4 Use of English in Free Time and Opinions on Social Media

The second questionnaire the pupils filled out concerned the use of English in their free time. To avoid any misunderstanding, the questionnaire was written and given to the pupils in Finnish and I have translated the statements for this thesis myself. I will discuss the results that differed the most between the immersion and non-immersion class. I will also examine is there any positive correlation between the longest and most fluent texts and the amount of using English in free time. Similarly to the previous section, I will simplify the results by showing diagrams on the percentage of pupils using English daily. Diagrams 5 and 6 below show how many percent of the pupils read and write in English daily.
Diagram 5. Daily reading in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Reading</th>
<th>Non-immersion</th>
<th>Immersion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Newspapers</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Periodical magazines</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Comicbooks</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Books</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Instruction manuals and informative labels</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) E-mails</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Websites</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diagram 6. Daily writing in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Writing</th>
<th>Non-immersion</th>
<th>Immersion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Letters or cards</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Stories or poetry</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Textmessages</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Notes or other reminders</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) E-mails</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) The internet (blogs, chats etc.)</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When asked about listening in English, most pupils in both classes listened to music and watched movies or television shows with or without subtitles on a daily basis or at least once a week. Reading and writing, on the other hand, differed to a great extent as can be seen from the diagram above. The majority of the pupils in the non-immersion class responded in almost every statement that they read or write rarely or never, whereas a small percent or none of the immersion pupils stated reading or writing rarely or never. The non-immersion class, however, stated reading internet sites daily extensively more than the immersion class. The rest of the immersion pupils who did not read or write daily stated that they read from once a week to once a month. When asked about activities and speaking in English, the result was also dramatically different among the classes. Diagrams 7 and 8 show the differences in daily speaking and activities in English.

**Diagram 7. Daily speaking in English**
There are some activities that the pupils of the non-immersion class do more than the pupils of the immersion class, such as search the internet or talk in English with a Finnish speaking friend on a daily basis. Overall, the pupils of the immersion class seem to use English in their free time more frequently than the non-immersion class. The pupils of the immersion class state using English rarely or never only a few times and only some of the statements, whereas the pupils of the non-immersion class state the opposite, stating to use English rarely or never in most statements.

The result of this questionnaire showed that English is part of the immersion pupils’ everyday life and free time extensively more than the non-immersion pupils’. When examining correlation between the most fluent texts of pupils from each class, I did not notice any specific connection. Pupils with both long and fluent texts and pupils with shorter, less fluent texts both stated using English in their free time a lot.

The attitude and opinion of the pupils on social media and the use of electronic devices around family, friends and others was realistic in a way that they acknowledged the fact that media devices can be around too much at times, rarely stating it is fine or okay to play with a phone constantly. Other common thoughts most of the pupils shared were that

**Diagram 8. Daily activities in English**

![Diagram](image)
people do use their devices around others too much, however, phones being helpful in our everyday lives (Appendix 4). Only a few mentioned they did not see a problem with electronic devices and that in their opinion our society has twisted our minds to think negatively about electronic devices and social media. Many saw technology as a positive growth and evolution in our everyday life, enabling people around the world to communicate via Facebook and other channels.

Only three out of the 13 pupils in the non-immersion class and 5 pupils in the immersion class mentioned or referred to the stimulus photographs in any way. Most pupils started the task by answering the questions. This showed me that the stimulus pictures were in one aspect somewhat unnecessary, yet in another did not have a negative effect either. For most pupils producing text might have been just as easy as without the pictures, but for others they might have proved to be an immense help. These are the kind of individual differences in addition to motivation and anxiety that are difficult to measure in each pupil, yet which still exist.
5 CONCLUSIONS

The main aim of the thesis was to find out the differences in written production of English between pupils attending the English Immersion program and pupils attending the Finnish program. My research questions were 1) to find out how does attending English immersion effect English language production and 2) what attitudes did the pupils have towards English language in Finnish society, and their thoughts on social media. The material of my study consisted of written productions of 26 pupils, 13 attending an immersion program and 13 attending a non-immersion program.

My initial hypothesis did not expect there to be a dramatic difference, but I did expect to see more confidence in the immersion pupils’ texts. The immersion pupils did produce considerably more text in the same time than the non-immersion class, and their language was more fluent and vocabulary was broader on a general level. There were many pupils in the non-immersion class whose texts were productive as well, but overall the texts were noticeably less productive than the immersion class’ texts. The difference between the texts of these two classes was not striking at first glance, yet noticeable after further examination. The strengths of the immersion pupils – involved in my study – were the use of the progressive –ing and -ly suffixes and the knowledge of when to leave out unnecessary articles and prepositions, whereas the non-immersion class used more basic forms. All in all, the outcome of the analysis showed that attending an immersion program has a strong positive effect on the written production skills compared to pupils attending a non-immersion program.

This result was not surprising, since there is a vast difference in the amount of English teaching these two classes receive as established in section 2.3. The oral study Lainas and Nurmi (2002: 76–77) conducted among an immersion and a non-immersion group also showed that producing speech came was much easier for the immersion class. The immersion pupils had broader vocabulary and more confidence in the material collection situation, than the non-immersion class. In contrast to my findings on gender differences, Lainas and Nurmi (2002: 78) stated that boys were more productive and relaxed in the research situation than girls.
The attitude of all of the pupils towards English language in Finnish society was positive and mature after comparing their answers to the National survey respondents. Their opinion and outlook on social media was rational, and it was great to read their honest opinions and thoughts on this matter. All of the pupils stated that young people, working people, and people who travel should know English. Most of the ninth graders agreed that English enriches the Finnish language and it is important for the sake of the development of our multicultural society. Also, providing social services in English was a matter in which almost all pupils strongly agreed on.

Even though there was no clear connection between using English daily and producing long and fluent texts in neither of the classes, the amount of daily English exposure in their free time was noticeably higher in the immersion class, who generally produced longer and more fluent texts. That is an important factor, in addition to motivation, that had an influence on the outcome of the written productions and through that, this study.

As established in section 3.1, Krashen (1987) states that language acquisition happens subconsciously. The benefit that an immersion class has that a non-immersion class does not, is that in addition to intense English language learning which happens consciously during school hours throughout primary school, they acquire English language in their free time. Pupils attending an English immersion program often tend to be more interested and motivated to use English in their free time, than pupils attending a non-immersion class. Motivation is a factor not only influencing language learning, but personal choices. For pupils not attending an immersion program, establishing excellent language skills with only a few lessons a week can be challenging. Nevertheless, the non-immersion class participating in this study handled the writing task really well and had great vocabulary, considering the amount of English they have been exposed to.

The small number of pupils participating in this study and the local nature of it were the biggest limitations of this study. Factors influencing reliability were motivation, timing and the number of participants. Pupils involved knew they were not graded – which surely affected their motivation – and the data was collected right after the pupils had mentally
exhausting national exams. Also, there were only 26 participants from two classes and only one school which made this study very local.

Research on the effects of English immersion or other language immersion is still in an early stage. The immersion program is a fairly new and an unknown method of teaching in most areas of Finland. For future references, a broader and more extensive study on the advantages and effects of immersion teaching in all different languages, not only in English, would be important for the future and further development of immersion teaching in Finland.

Conducting this study gave me extremely useful and important knowledge for my future career plans to become an English language teacher and possibly an immersion teacher. I was able to see the strengths and weaknesses in English language production of both non-immersion and immersion classes, which will help me become the most efficient English language teacher as possible. This study was not broad, yet when combined with other smaller studies in the field of English immersion – such as Lainas and Nurmi (2002) and Kuorikoski and Laakkonen (1999) – they formulate a bigger piece of useful information.
WORKS CITED


Appendix 1. Writing Task

Name: ______________________

Age: _____

Take a look at the pictures below. The photographer has removed the phones from the pictures.
The photographer has taken out the phones from the pictures. Do you think people in life spend too much time on electronic devices? (Social media etc.) In your opinion, what is a good time and what is a bad time to use your phone?

Write about your thoughts below. Use the pictures and think about the questions in your answers.

_____________________________________________________________________________
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Appendix 2. Questionnaire on attitudes towards English
Appendix 3. Questionnaire on English use in free time

Nimi: ______________________

Seuraavalla kyselytakaailla otan selvää englanninkielien käytöstäsi.

Mieti, miten ja millaisissa tilanteissa kuuntelet, luet, puhut tai kirjoitat englantia vapaa-ajallaasi. Lue kysymykset huolellisesti läpi. Ympyröi ensimmäisen kysymyksen vastaus ja kohtiin 2-7 ruksaa yksi vaihtoehtoista 1-5 (lähes päivittäin-en koskaan)

1) Missä käytät eniten englantia? Valitse yksi vaihtoehto.
   1 Koulussa
   2 Vapaa-ajalla
   3 Harrastuksissa
   4 En käytä englantia

2) Kuinka usein ja missä yhteydessä kuulet englantia vapaa-ajan aikana?

Vastaa kaikkiin kohtiin.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Musiikki</td>
<td>Lähes päivittäin</td>
<td>Suunnilleen joilla viikkoja</td>
<td>Suunnilleen joilla kuukausia</td>
<td>Harvennin</td>
<td>En koskaan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Puhe tekstitysvassa elokuvissa tai tv-onjelmissa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>c) Radiot puheohjelmissa</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) Elokuvissa tai tv-onjelmissa joissa ei ole tekstityksiä</td>
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3) Luettako englanniksi vapaa-ajan aikana?

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Sanomailehtä</td>
<td>Lähes päivittäin</td>
<td>Suunnilleen joilla viikkoja</td>
<td>Suunnilleen joilla kuukausia</td>
<td>Harvennin</td>
<td>En koskaan</td>
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<tr>
<td>b) Aikakaus- ja harrastelehtiä</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) Sarjakuvia</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) Kaunokirjallisuutta</td>
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<tr>
<td>e) Käyttöohjeita ja tuoteselosteita</td>
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<tr>
<td>f) Sähköposteja</td>
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<td>g) Nettisivuja</td>
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4) Kirjoitatko englanniksi vapaa-ajan aikana?

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Kirjeitä, kortteja</td>
<td>Lähes päivittäin</td>
<td>Suunnilleen joilla viikkoja</td>
<td>Suunnilleen joilla kuukausia</td>
<td>Harvennin</td>
<td>En koskaan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Tarinoita, runoja</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>c) Tekstiviestejä</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) Muistilappuja tai muita lyhyitä viestejä</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Sähköposteja</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Internetissä (esim. blogit, keskustelupalat)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
5) **Puhutko englantia vapaa-ajalla?:**

Vastaa kaikkiin kohtiin.

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<th>2</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Suomenkielisen ystävän kanssa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b) Ei-suomalaisista ystävän kanssa</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Jos sinulta kysytään jotain (esim. kadulla) englanniksi</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

6) **Seuraavaksi käsitellään internetin käyttö ja pelaaminen vapaa-ajalla:**

Mitä näistä teet englanniksi?

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<thead>
<tr>
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<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Haen tietoa (esim. Google)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Luen internetissä olevia sanomalehteä</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Seuraan esim. blogia, tai keskustelupaistoja</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Tilaan tuotteita internet kaupista</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Keskustelen suullisesti (esim. Skype, Messenger)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Pelaan internet pelejä</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Pelaan tietokone- tai konsolipelejä</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

7) **Mihin yleensä käytät englantia?**

Vastaa kaikkiin kohtiin.

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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Ilmaistaakseni positiivisia tunteita</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Ilmaistaakseni negatiivisia tunteita</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Antaakseni ohjeita/ apua</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| d) Finglish sanoja esim. "jos se haluu tulla niin fine" ("aika cool" meininki."

"
Appendix 4. Texts of the pupils

Immersion class 9E Pupils’ texts

Pupil 1

The social media and staring at our phones have made a bad impact on people. I do it as well and sometimes I watch my phone for an hour or so without even noticing. The phones are good in many cases too for example if you want to find some information quickly. I also think that our social life suffers from just staring at our phones and we are bored more often because of our lack of imagination. It seems that even younger and younger people start to use phones and that scares me because the won’t be able to play properly.

Pupil 2

I think people spend way too much time on their phones. People are becoming more and more addicted to social media. I think it’s perfectly fine to spend some time on social media when you have nothing to do, but it’s only rude to have your phone out all the time when you are spending time with other people. I think one of the biggest problems is the fact that now people can’t even eat without having their phones out.

Pupil 3

These days people spend a lot of time on their phones and tablets, which makes us communicate less face-to-face. The photographer has showcased this by taking pictures of people using their electronic devises and then removing the devises from the pictures. I think the people in the pictures look passive and almost bored. It’s not polite to use your phone in social situations, because it makes you seem uninterested in the other person’s company. However, I don’t think social media is a bad thing even though people spend too much time on it. It can be a way to pass time and connect with friends and family who you can’t physically be with. If this same set of pictures had been taken with the people reading books instead of phones, it wouldn’t generate as much discussion, even though in both the people would be focusing on something else than the people around them.

Pupil 4

I don’t think people spend too much time on electronic devises. Sure the photographs look funny, but you can never know what they were doing. Maybe someone was talking to their friend who lives on the other side of the world? People (especially elders) try to demonize social media and phones way too much. Everything has been made so easy and you can access everything on your phone. Emails, newspapers and newer credit cards can now be used through a smartphone. You have access to so much information in a matter of seconds. Communication all over the world is now so much easier. You can easily find new people with the same interest. The internet is also a great creative outlet. A bad time to use your phone is really hard to determine. It depends wholly on the situation. School, work or other obligations are not good places to use your phone. A good situation can be any situation if you actually need to use the phone for something, e.g. searching information or receiving a call. People shouldn’t be too concentrated on what other people
do. Of course your phone can become an addiction, but in most cases it is mainly about being social with your friends and wanting to talk to them.

Pupil 5

The first picture seems like the couple is mad and bored at each other. They are socializing on their phones rather than giving attention to each other. In the second one the boys seem sad, bored, lazy and they look like they’re done something wrong. They’re playing with phones rather than each other. The third looks like they’re waiting for something e.g. food and they seem somewhat bored. Using a phone around others seems to have a rather negative effect on the social bond between the people. It should be used when you’re alone or trying to find someone. Phones help ppl. find eachother and socializing but it way also crush someones real face-to-face social life. It takes too much of our time and life.

Pupil 6

People should stop being on the phone too much and go outside and have fun kids should play with friends and play games outside. Family should spend more time together and stop being on their phones. Couples should do something together and not just go to bed and tap on their phones. I think phones made people more boring because they dont do such things as 20 years ago. I understand that phones we need but not for fun use just for calling and texting, nothing more.

Pupil 7

I think people use too much electronic devices. If you have to check a fact from internet or check on your messages, but if you are playing games and using your phone all the time, thats very annoying. In my opinion you should use more of your time with your friends, playing football, climbing trees etc.

Pupil 8

1. In my opinion when you’re in bed with someone you love you shouldn’t need your phone. Especially you shouldn’t look like that. 2. In the modern day younger and younger people get smartphones, tablets etc.. Parents might think it’s a easy way out to shut their kids up, but theyre stripping the children from their communication skills in my opinion. 3. The entire family just sits around the table and don’t communicate with eachother. Soon the parents have no idea that whats going on in their child(s) life. The parents should atleast show some interest in their childs life.

Pupil 9

I think people spend too much time on their phones. The time you spend on your phone can be good or bad. If it’s helping you do something it’s good in my opinion. But if you’re just looking at facebook or Instagram it is helping you with anything. I think young kids shouldn’t use their phone all the time, they should be outside doing sports or something creative. I think adult´s can use their phone as much as they want, it’s their life and they can spend it how they want.
Pupil 10

In my opinion, people spend too much time on their phones. People are always doing something with their phones, and not really paying attention to anything else. Of course it’s fine to use your phone daily, that’s why we own them, but sometimes it seems like our phones are the only thing we care about. I think the good times to use your phone are when you need to contact someone or find something out in the internet. Bad times to use a phone are when you’re hanging out with someone or if you’re in a meeting or something like that.

Pupil 11

Personally I don’t really have an opinion on this phone scenario. Everyones saying it’s bad to use your phone when you are with your friends but they still do it themselves. I only use my phone when I need to do something with it or everyone else is using theirs.

Pupil 12

I personally think that the surge of popularity in owning multiple electronic devices has done people both good and bad. The good, is the fact that you can easily communicate through the internet, allowing people to meet their friends on the internet. This, however, is also the root of the problem. Because you can talk to your friends via the internet, many kids and teenagers often forget about meeting not only their friends, but also their families. I think that people shouldn’t use their phones when they could easily talk to their friend anyways.

Pupil 13

When you are with your family and friends, you should be spendin time with them not your phone. When you’re waiting for someone or something and your bored the you should use your phone.
Non-immersion class 9A pupils’ texts

Pupil 1

Mobile phones can be very useful, but using them too much can be harmful. If you spend all of your time looking at your phone others will think you don’t want to talk to them. Usage of mobile phones is fine, as long as you don’t do it in inappropriate situations.

Pupil 2

I think that people spend too much time with phones, tablets and computers. You should not use your phone when you are eating or going to sleep. Because when you start looking all the new Instagram pictures or Snapchat “snaps”. Time goes faster. Use your phone when you are on a trip for example.

Pupil 3

Yes I think that the social media is taking too much of our time. I only use my phone when I’m bored and I only see facebook and even that only to see when my favourite bands are putting out new music and also I think that people spend too much money on their smartphones that cost like 800 euros. It’s also bad that some students use their phones on class when you have to study.

Pupil 4

When I was growing up phones were used for communication rather than entertainment. I don’t think it’s bad if little kids use their phones all day for instance i used my childhood in front of a playstation and here i am writing a test in english.

Pupil 5

Phones, phones, phones. We talk about them a lot. I definitely think people spend too much time with their phones. It’s very rude to take your phone when you are with somebody. Your friend might feel that you are rather with your phone than your friend. It’s perfectly fine to use your phone when you are alone. First picture…ouch! That’s so sad. It would be okay if they talked at the same time when they use their phones but that couple doesn’t seem to be talking. They are ignoring. That is one the reasons relationships doesn’t last as long as they used to last. Second one. Boys, go out and play! When kids play with tablets and phones instead of going out and playing football or something like that, they lose their imagination. Then, when they get bored, they grab their mobile devices. Very sad. Third picture. Families grow apart, when they rather use their phones than talk to their family members. I feel like parents don’t know what their kids are doing if they don’t talk to them. Kids these days get their phones earlier and earlier. I got my first one when I was nine!

Pupil 6

I think that peoples are too much time with they phones. But tree pictures aren’t true. Phones are too important. I wonder why they spend too much time with they phones. I think this family are very unhappy family.
Pupil 7
I think at so many people spend a time with electronic devices. Children and youngster playing games and chat in the internet. Social media is very popular in youngster culture. And now are going to much gadgets with the phone. Bluetooth speakers, lens style cameras, powerbanks and so much others. But it’s even more gadgets with youngsters spend time. The computer is very popular for the playing games. It’s so good to use media with computer. The TV isn’t so popular in today. Good time to use phone is in your home even then you are alone. If you are with your friends is very bad time to use your phone.

Pupil 8
Yes i think we do but people can do what they want with their lifes. Good time to use your phone of other electronic devises is when it doesn’t effect other peoples life. When you aren’t doing anything else. If you put social media life before your real social life there is a problem. Still i think that these “shock” pictures are embarrassing.

Pupil 9
I think that sometimes people use their phones in the wrong place at the wrong time but I think that if their relationships don’t hurt because of phones so it is okay to be little addict but that’s only my opinion. I remember when I was kid there was not any videogames at least we didn’t play them so I think that specially young kids shouldn’t play so much.

Pupil 10
They are using their phones too much. They should be sleeping but they are using their phones. Kids should be playing outside but they are inside and using phones. This family should spend more time with eachother. It’s ok to use your phone when you are alone, but when there’s your family and friends, you shouldn’t be using your phone.

Pupil 11
I think people who spend too much time on social media. It’s very bad. Good time is 1,5 hours and bad time is 2-3 hours. My friends and my brother spend too much time on social media. My brother spend about 2,5 hours and my friends about 2 hours on social media. It’s scary. I think, I spend too much time on social media about 2 hours.

Pupil 12
I think some people are phoneaddicts who spend too much time on their phones. I think good time to use your phone is when you’re calling for help or actually looking up something useful. Bad time is when you’re just looking something useless when you’re with your friends and family and when the occasion doesn’t require you to have one, example when driving.

Pupil 13
It depends, why is someone using their phone.
Appendix 5. Statements from the original attitude questionnaire in Finnish

(a) nuorten täytyy osata englantia
(b) työikäisten täytyy osata englantia
(c) ääkköiden ihmisten täytyy osata englantia
(d) englannin kielen levänminen Suomeen on uhka kotimaisille kielille
(e) englannin kielen levänminen Suomeen on uhka suomalaiselle kulttuurille
(f) ulkomailla matkustavien suomalaisen täytyy osata englantia
(g) suomalainen voi olla kansainvälinen osaamatta englantia
(h) Suomen monikulttuurisen yhteiskunnan kehittymisen kannalta olisi tärkeää, että kaikki osaavat englantia
(i) englannin lisäksi suomalaisen täytyy osata ja oppia muitakin vieraita kieliä
(j) äidinkieli on suomalaisille hyödyllisempi kuin englannin kieli
(k) englannin kieli on suomenkielisille hyödyllisempi kuin ruotsi
(l) englannin kielen vaikutus rikastuttaa kotimaisia kieliä
(m) englannin osaamista arvostetaan liikaa
(n) yhteiskunnallisia palveluja (esim. terveydenhuolto) tulee tarjota Suomessa myös englanniksi
(o) kaikkien yritysten tulee tarjota Suomessa palveluja myös englanniksi.