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**THE EFFECT OF TEACHERS' ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON
LEARNERS' SPEAKING SKILL**

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Civilizations

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Dedication

To the beloved parts of me, to the moon and sun ever shiny,

To the best « mum » and « grandma » the world ever knows surely.

To the memory of my sympathetic father and to the gentle soul of my dear brother « Rachid » who passed away, but who during their lives had always appreciated learning very much.

To the most precious people to my heart, to the ones who gave me strength and hope, my dearest and thoughtful sisters: « Samiha », « Sabrina » and « Moufida » whose love always strengthens my will.

To my adorable and sympathetic brothers : « Bilel » and « Choukri ».

To my lovely nieces and nephews : « Akram », « Rachid », « Ranim », « Idris », « Siraj », « Abed Rahman » and « Roaya ».

To my little and wonderful Angels : « Yanis » and « Miled ».

To all the members of my family « BAHLOUL » and « KHELFA ».

To the person I want to share my life with.

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To all those who have been supportive, caring and patient, sometimes beyond their strength.

To all those who love me and were there for me, thank you for ignoring my faults and encouraging my merits.

I dedicate this work.

Dedication

I dedicate this humble work to:

My Mother

My first teacher, a strong and gentle soul who taught me to trust in Allah, and always strengthens my will, and filled me up with hope.

My Father

For providing an appropriate environment of education for us, supporting and encouraging me to believe in my self.

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Abstract

The aim of this dissertation is to identify the role of teachers' oral corrective feedback in improving students speaking skill and their communicative competence as well. The main problem underlying this work is that most of the teachers are giving corrective feedback to their learners with no awareness whether this influences the learner's speaking skill in a positive or negative way. The research hypothesises that teacher's oral corrective feedback has a positive effect on the learners' speaking skill. In order to test this hypothesis, a qualitative method was adopted and two questionnaires were administered as a data gathering tool, one for teachers and another for first year students in the Department of English at Guelma University, to identify and explore their attitudes about the speaking skill and the teacher's oral corrective feedback. The results obtained signify that the teachers' oral corrective feedback is an effective pedagogical tool for increasing the learners' oral proficiency and both teachers and students are aware of the effective role of corrective feedback. On the light of these results, the above mentioned hypothesis was successfully confirmed. Thus, the process of enhancing the speaking skill basically, needs to be accompanied with teacher's oral CF as a first-aid technique to reduce speaking problems. Finally, some recommendations have been proposed in this study to help teachers in their way of teaching the oral skills, and for an effective oral corrective feedback provision.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

EFL : English as Foreign Language.

CF : Corrective Feedback.

FB : Feedback.

TL : Target Language.

SL / L2 : Second Language.

FL : Foreign Language.

MT / L1 : Mother Tongue / First Language.

SLA : Second Language Acquisition.

UN : Universal Grammar.

i.e. : That is.

vs. : Versus.

e.g : For example.

% : Percentage.

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General Introduction

1. Background of the study
2. Statement of the problem
3. Research Questions
4. Aims of the study
5. Hypothesis
6. Methodology

The Method

Data Gathering Tools

Population and Sampling

7. The Structure of study

General Introduction

1. Background of the study

For EFL learners who are studying English as a foreign language in a non-English speaking setting, it is very important to experience real communicative situations, in which they will learn how to express their own views and opinions and to enhance their speaking skill which is very essential for the success of FL communication. In the classroom environment EFL teachers encourage their students to speak in order to develop their communicative competence. During this communication, students make errors and commit mistakes, which normally should be corrected by the teacher « teacher's oral corrective feedback » to avoid mis-taking them as correct forms.

The concept of teacher's corrective feedback plays a significant role in the process of foreign language learning. In fact, the considerable interest in the role of corrective feedback of learning became an important factor for the researchers of this field, because it creates opportunities for the classroom community to develop knowledge and skills, as far as the speaking skill is concerned.

For the sake of clarity, one of the first definitions of corrective feedback is that of Chaudron (1977) who considers it as “any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance” (p. 31). Other synonyms of corrective feedback that are more commonly used are “error correction”, “negative evidence” and “negative feedback”. However, Han (2008) suggests that error correction implies an evident and direct correction, whereas corrective feedback is a more general way of providing some clues, or eliciting some correction, besides the direct correction made by the teacher. Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) describe corrective feedback as follows :

Corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learner utterances that contain error. The responses can consist of (a) an indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these. (p.340).

Corrective feedback (CF) has been defined simply as « responses to learner utterances containing an error » (...) but also as a « complex phenomenon with several functions » (...). Knowledge about this seemingly simple yet complex phenomenon continues to grow as research accumulates on its role in L2 classrooms and its effects on L2 development (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p. 2).

When studying corrective feedback and learner uptake in four French immersion classrooms at the primary level, Lyster & Ranta (1997) put forward six types of corrective feedback. The six types are: first ; explicit correction: teachers supply the correct form and clearly indicate that what the students say is incorrect. Second ; recast: the teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the student's Utterance. Third ; elicitation: teacher directly elicits a asking questions or by pausing to allow students to complete teacher's utterance, or asking students to reformulate their utterance. The fourth one is ; metalinguistic feedback: to the well-formedness of the student's utterance. Number five is ; clarification request: teacher's request for further information from a student about a previous utterance; and finally is repetition: teacher repeats the student's ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error.

In summary, feedback is the general term, corrective feedback is feedback which focuses on correction and oral corrective feedback is corrective feedback focusing on students' speech. Oral corrective feedback is usually given immediately after the erroneous utterance.

In the context of this study, feedback, corrective feedback and oral corrective feedback should be understood as the feedback that is immediately given orally by the teacher.

The teachers should take place in the classroom interaction, and get involved whenever the students make errors in order to provide them with the appropriate corrective feedback; to help all the learners participate in the different oral activities as well as paving the way for an improved communicative competence. Corrective feedback will give information about the correctness of a learner utterance, whereas correction would suggest that students actually learn and improve their knowledge of language with the help of the correction (Long, 1977, as cited in Ellis, 1994, p.71). In contrast, most of the teachers give corrective feedback to their learners but with no awareness whether this influences the learner's speaking skill positively or negatively.

2. Statement of the problem

The issue of teacher's oral corrective feedback is always debatable and open for investigation for many scholars who have doubts about whether it is beneficial to language development as well as the speaking skill enhancement. In fact, students who interact and speak during the class commit many mistakes and errors and the teacher tries to fix or correct them. Therefore, the main issue confronted within this research is the impact of the teacher's oral corrective feedback on the development of the student's speaking skill. The present research states that the teacher's oral corrective feedback has an effect on the learners' speaking skill and leads to a better achievement, or the students' ability to develop their speaking skill through the teacher's oral corrective feedback.

3. Research Questions

To serve the aims of the study, the following questions are raised :

- Does teacher's corrective feedback have an effect on improving learners' speaking skill?
- What are the types of corrective feedback that are commonly used in the English classroom?
- Which type of corrective feedback has a better effect on the improvement of the speaking skill?
- When is oral corrective feedback should be given?

4. Aims of the study

The present research aims are:

1. To introduce the teacher's oral CF and to investigate its effect on the development of the learners' speaking skill.
2. To understand how and to what extent the oral corrective feedback could activate the students' speaking skill.
3. To investigate the most effective type of corrective feedback to improve the speaking skill.
4. To decide about when corrective feedback should be given.

5. Hypothesis

The classroom interaction is the only opportunity given to students to increase their oral capacities, through which the teacher can determine their level, notice their errors and correct them via giving students the appropriate oral corrective feedback strategies, this leads us to hypothesize that :

If the students are given teacher's oral corrective feedback, then this would enhance the learners' speaking skill.

6. Methodology

The Method

The present research requires the use of the qualitative method. This study will try to comprehend the nature of the corrective feedback from the perspective of EFL learners, in an attempt to identify its nature according to them ; whether it enhances or hinders their communicative skills. Also, to reconsider teachers' oral corrective feedback as a key factor that may affect the learners' speaking skill, raise their oral engagement in the classroom, and give the students more chances for a potential use of their competences and capacities with less physiological barriers.

Data Gathering Tools

The data will be collected through questionnaires for learners and teachers of English at Guelma University. The students' questionnaire, intended for first year LMD students, is designed to investigate learners attitudes toward their teachers' oral corrective feedback. The teachers' questionnaire aims at investigating the teachers' opinions about providing the oral corrective feedback as a pedagogical strategy to enhance the learners' speaking skill. The analysis of the collected data aims at determining the effective types of oral corrective feedback that will provide the basis for developing the speaking skill.

Population and sampling

The subjects of the study are first year LMD EF learners randomly chosen from the department of English in the University of Guelma. They are Baccalaureate holders from

different streams (Natural sciences, Philosophy and Foreign languages.) Who learned the English language since the first year of Middle school.

The Structure of study

The present dissertation consists of four main chapters. The first two chapters discuss theoretical issues about the teachers' corrective feedback and the speaking skill. Chapter one reviews literature on corrective feedback, the main focus of this chapter is on its definition, its main types, its importance in learning foreign language and its effectiveness. Chapter two is devoted to the speaking skill, its definition, importance, aspects of speakers' performance... Chapter three is concerned with the analysis of the collected data by means of students' questionnaire. The final chapter gives descriptive analytic statistics of the results obtained from the administered teachers' questionnaire.

Chapter One

The Corrective Feedback

Introduction

1. Classroom Oral Interaction

1.1 Definition

1.2 Types of Classroom Interaction

1.2.1 Teacher- Learner Interaction

1.2.2 Learner- Learner Interaction

1.3 Errors and Mistakes

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- b. Global errors vs. Local errors

1.3.2 Kinds of Errors Students Make

1.3.3 Importance of Errors

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2.2 Corrective Feedback

2.3 Choice of Corrective Feedback Strategy

2.3.1 Oral Corrective Feedback

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2.3.1.2 Input Providing Feedback vs. Output Prompting Feedback

2.3.2 Written Corrective Feedback

2.3.2.1 Direct Feedback

2.3.2.2 Indirect Feedback

2.3.2.3 Metalinguistic Feedback

2.4 Classification of Corrective Feedback Strategies

2.5 Effectiveness of Corrective Feedback

2.6 Learner Responses to Feedback « Uptake »

2.7 Teachers' Reinforcement

2.8 Choice of Corrector

2.8.1 Self-correction

2.8.2 Peer-correction

2.8.3 Teacher-correction

2.9 Timing of Corrective Feedback

2.10 Learners' Emotional Response to Teacher's Corrective Feedback

2.11 The Importance of Corrective Feedback

Conclusion

Introduction

In the EFL classroom setting, there are various forms of verbal interaction between teachers and their learners. One form is the oral corrective feedback that is used to immediately encourage students or to correct them when making a linguistic error, either implicitly or explicitly. According to numerous researchers, the oral corrective feedback is an effective tool in SLA classrooms. Which is used to facilitate the language development in general and the speaking skill in particular. However, the attitudes both language teachers and learners have towards it might be different. Hence, the oral corrective feedback has been a prominent subject of research in language acquisition and learning over the last decades.

1. Classroom Oral Interaction

Interaction is a daily activity that takes place in the classroom as a special learning setting, between the teachers and their learners and also among the learners themselves. In fact, interaction between teachers and students in classrooms has a noticeable significance in both teaching and learning processes because it is one of the main methods through which learning is performed in the foreign language classrooms. Allwright views interaction in the classroom as the fundamental fact of classroom pedagogy because « everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction » (Allwright, 1984, p.156). He and other researchers emphasise that classroom pedagogy proceeds through a process of interaction during which learning takes place.

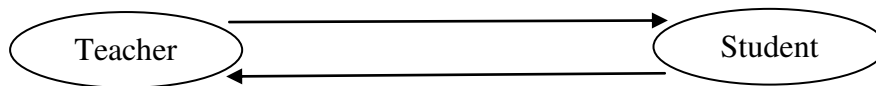
1. 1 Definition

Oral interaction, in the foreign language classrooms, is a practice that ameliorates the two most significant language skills which are speaking and listening. In other words, this practice enhances the learner's oral communication and improves their listening capacities. Therefore,

the learners become competent communicators, think critically and share their views among their peers effectively i.e. accurately and fluently.

Wagner (1994) defines the concept of interaction as « Reciprocal events that require at least two objects and two actions. Interaction occurs when these objects and events naturally influence one another » (p.8). Hence, interaction involves more than one person. When someone oversends a message, there must be someone else to receive it. If the recipient signals the reception of the message and reacts, this reaction evokes further reactions from the transmitter or receiver, in other words, classroom interaction is a two-way process between the participants. The teacher influences the learners and vice versa. Allwright and Baily (1991) hold that interaction is something people can do together in other terms ; collectively.

Figure 1 : *The Mutual Influence Between the Teacher and Students during Interaction.*



1. 2 Types of Classroom Interaction

Thurmond (2003) defines interaction as :

The learners' engagement with the course content, other learners, the instructor and the technological medium used in the course. True interactions with other learners, the instructor and technology results in a reciprocal exchange of information. The exchange of information intended to enhance knowledge development in the learning environment (p.4).

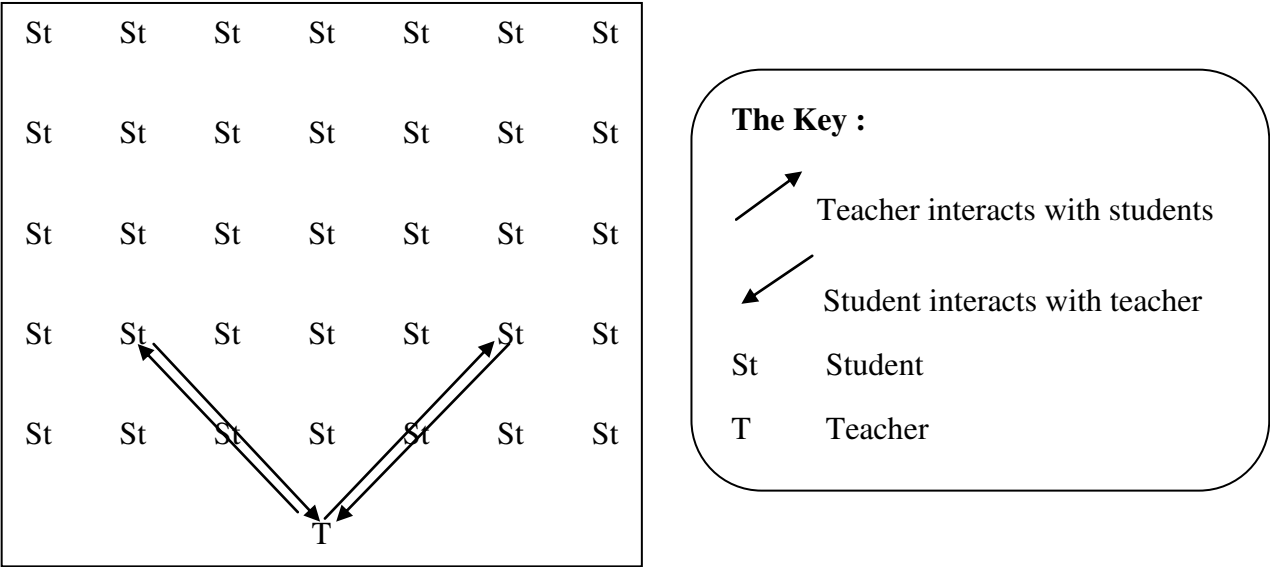
From the above quotation it can be easily deduced that there are four different types of interactions, in sequence: learner-course content interaction, learner-learner interaction, learner-teacher interaction, and learner-technology interaction. In this research we will focus

only on two main types, that are relevant and pertinent to the research's aim, such as teacher-student interaction, and student-student interaction.

1.2.1. Teacher-Learner Interaction

According to Coulthard (1977), teacher-learner interaction has received a great deal from teachers in a wide range of fields. This type of interactions has many shapes and forms, it occurs in the form of teacher speaking to the whole class; teacher speaking to an individual student with the rest of the class as hearers; or in the form of teacher speaking to a group of students (Van Lier, 1988). The teacher is a prominent participant in such interaction. He creates a sort of debate to confer and negotiate with his/her students the course's content, extracts responses from learners and motivates them to come out with new ideas related to the topic through enquiring and asking questions, he, also evaluates and corrects learners' performance whenever needed, that is, grammar and pronunciation errors are addressed appropriately through feedback. At this time, teacher plays a role of « facilitator of learning » (Littlewood, 1981, p. 92) i.e. he adopts different roles such as ; controller, assessor, corrector, organizer, resource... (Hedge, 2000, p. 26), whilst proceeding in a greater depth on key topics in order to provide more differentiated materials and sufficient assistance where necessary. Then again, the students will benefit from their teachers' interactions or conversations to acquire the ability to interact effectively. The following diagram, constructed by Scrivener (2005, p.85), clearly demonstrates how the interaction occurs between the teacher and the students.

Figure 2: *Interaction between Teacher and Students*



During teacher-learner interaction, teachers should bethink their ways of interacting with their learners which is extremely important in the teaching-learning process. According to Harmer (2009) teachers should emphasize three things when they interact with their students. In the first place, they must consider the type of the language the students are able to understand, that is ; teachers should provide a comprehensible output based on the level of all the students. In the second place, teachers must ponder what they will say to their students, hence the teacher speech is as a resource for learners. Finally, teachers also have to identify the manners in which they will speak such as the voice, tone and intonation.

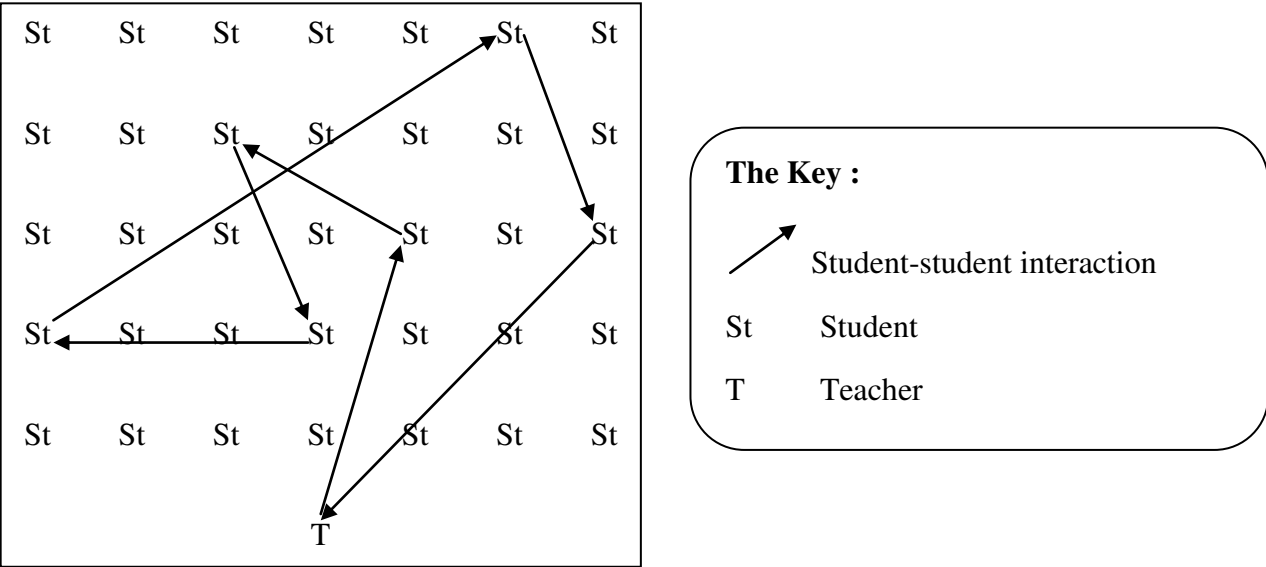
1 .2. 2. Learner-Learner Interaction

Numerous learning theories support the idea that knowledge is actively constructed and language skills improved by means of interactions between learners. Johnson (1995) argues that if learner-learner interaction is structured and managed very well, it can be a crucial factor for cognitive development, educational achievement of students and emerging social communicative competencies. It can also improve the learners’ abilities through collaborative

activities. So that, learners will develop social relations through this type of interaction, where the sense of learning community is raised and isolation is reduced in the classroom setting.

Naegle Paula (2002) annexes also that «talking students with their peers about the content of the course is a powerful way for them to reinforce what they have learned.» (p.128). Therefore, teachers are called on to encourage such type of interaction between learners and make students active rather than passive recipients since it is the fastest and the best way of learning. The following diagram in figure 3 done by Scrivener (2005, p.86) displays interaction between students.

Figure 3: *Interaction Between Students.*



Both forms of classroom oral interaction are an essential part of teaching-learning process for both teachers and learners. It provides the learners with opportunities for authentic communication in English, to show up their oral capacities as well as developing their oral skills and communicative competence. This practice provides teachers with adequate evidence concerning the learners’ level and sufficient information about their current abilities, to determine the problems and learning difficulties they suffer from, and the inappropriate

linguistic resources to be repaired and fixed up through the different types of error correction strategies.

1.3 Errors and Mistakes

According to Corder (1967), a 'mistake' is a deviation in learner language that occurs due to learners' failure in their performance. (Cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 971- 961). On the other hand, Brown (1994) has defined linguistic errors as "a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner." (p.205). He cites an example *Does John can sing?* where a preceding *do* auxiliary verb has been used as an error.

Errors and Mistakes are not two terms for the same meaning and they can not be used interchangeably, however there is a distinction between the two in Linguistics, where the former is resulting from learner's lack of knowledge, the latter is a misuse of known system due to many factors. Brown (1980) insists that "it is crucial to make a distinction between mistakes and errors" because they are "technically two very different phenomena". (p.165). Intentionality also makes the distinction between Errors and Mistakes "an error arises only when there was no intention to commit one" (James, 1998, p. 77). So it is called a mistake when it is committed with intention, whereas when there is no intention to produce a deviant utterance, it is called an error (James, 1998, p. 77). The basic distinction between these two terms is also based on the concept of corrigibility. If the learner is able to correct himself after using an incorrect utterance, he or she committed a mistake. Whereas, when the learner produces deviant utterance and is not able to correct himself, then he or she committed an error (James 1998, p. 78).

Corder (1967, 1971 as cited in James, 1998, p.78) associates the error vs. mistake distinction to the issue of competence vs. performance. In this regard, errors are failures of

competence and mistakes as failures of performance, Corder (1967) argues that “mistakes are of no significance to the process of language learning since they do not reflect a defect in our knowledge” and “they can occur in L1 as well as L2”. On the other hand, errors “are of significance; they do reflect knowledge; they are not self-correctable; and only learners of an L2 make them”. (p. 166-167).

1.3.1. Types of errors

Hedge (2000, p.289) distinguishes between two types of errors:

a- Systematic errors versus mistakes

Systematic errors appear in the first stage of studying the foreign language. EFL learners commit this type of errors because of the lack of the target language knowledge. However, mistakes are those problems of performance that are made by learners due to many factors like, tiredness, carelessness...etc.

b- Global errors versus local errors

Global errors are those errors that cause misunderstanding to the listener, while local ones are communicative errors that have to do with what a hearer can understand from an utterance. For example, an utterance like «there are long trees on each side of my street» can be understood by the learner as tall trees.

1.3.2. Kinds of errors students make:

Errors have been categorized by Mackey et al. (2000) and Nishita (2004) (cited in Yoshida, 2008) as:

1. Morphosyntactic error: Learners use word order, tense, conjugation and particles incorrectly.

2. Phonological error: Learners' mispronunciation of words or it could also include suprasegmental errors.
3. Lexical error: Learners use vocabulary inappropriately or they codeswitch to their first language because of their lack of lexical knowledge.
4. Semantic and pragmatic error: Misunderstanding of a learner's utterance, it is on the level of meaning.

These are the most common errors committed by the EFL learners.

1.3.2.1. Subject-verb agreement errors

Occur when the subject does not agree with the verb in person and number:

Example: He go every morning to school.

Correction: He goes every morning to school.

1.3.2.2. Verb Tense Errors

Occur when an incorrect time marker is used.

Example: I was revising my lessons since 05:00 pm

Correction: I have been revising my lessons since 05:00 pm

1.3.2.3. Verb Form Errors

Occur when a verb is incorrectly formed.

Example: I will spoken to my supervisor next week.

Correction: I will speak to my supervisor next week

1.3.2.4. Singular/Plural Noun Ending Errors

Often occur when there is confusion about which nouns are countable and which aren't.

Example: I have to finish all my homeworks this week.

Correction: I have to finish all my homework this week.

1.3.2.5. Word Form Errors

Occur when the wrong part of speech is chosen.

Example: He has a diplomacy personality.

Correction: He has a diplomatic personality.

1.3.3 Importance of Errors

In the process of learning, every one is expected to make errors, that were seen or many years as problems hinder the language learning process but recently this view changed and errors now are seen as natural parts and even with importance, Corder (1967) argues that errors provide evidence of how language is learnt. They serve as tools through which the learner acquires the rules of the target language, it may be argued that learners' errors should not necessarily be considered obstacles in the context of learning a second language; rather they can be viewed as natural elements to be dealt with through appropriate processes. In light of recent open and communicative approaches to language learning errors are tolerated if communicative goals are achieved and the central points of communication are not altered.

Errors are important in three different ways :

- Errors give teachers information about what learners lack and what still need to learn
- They show developmental processes at work
- They are useful to the learners themselves since they allow for hypothesis formation and hypothesis testing (Corder, 1967).

2. Corrective Feedback

2.1. Definition of Feedback

Feedback has a significant role in classroom; it works as a motivation tool for learners by giving them an idea about their level in classroom. Duly, Burt and Krashen (1982, p.34) provide a general definition of feedback. They define it as follows “feedback generally refers to the listener’s or reader’s response given to the learner’s speech or writing” (Cited in Maarek. 2009). Sheen (2011, p.32) argues that feedback should be provided regardless of whether the learner’s response is correct or incorrect. An example of positive feedback is a teacher saying “good” on a learner’s correct answer. Corrective feedback, on the other hand, is the teachers’ response to the learners speaking or writing, to indicate that there is an error that should be corrected. Sheen (2011, p.133-132) stresses that the difference between feedback and corrective feedback is that corrective feedback requires the presence of an error, whereas feedback as such could be encouragement. Corrective feedback can be given either on learners’ written work, or orally after an erroneous utterance. An example of corrective feedback is a teacher making a written remark on a learner’s grammatical error, by contrast oral corrective feedback, is described by Ellis (2006) cited in(Lyster et al 2013, p.1) “responses to learner utterances containing an error”. (p.28).

To sum up, to distinguish clearly between these two, feedback is the general term, corrective feedback is feedback which focuses on correction and oral corrective feedback is a corrective feedback that focuses on students’ linguistic’s errors.

2.2. Corrective Feedback

In the process of learning, errors are considered as a natural and common part of it (Tornberg, 2005). that is to say; any learner will committ errors ,while acquiring a given language, whether the first language or the second one. Moreover in the foreign language class, the teacher encourages his student to communicate and interact in the TL with the purpose of improving their communicative competence, so as a result, when learners speak ,various errors will be committed ,and appear clearly to the teacher, in this way, he should play the role of correcter, hence provides his learners' with corrective feedback for their errors ,in order to ensure that they acquire the TL rules in the appropriate form.

Longs (1996) suggests two categories of corrective feedback that are provided to the learners about the target language as follows: positive evidence and negative evidence. positive evidence; is to provide the learners with models of what is grammatical and acceptable in the target language, and negative evidence; as giving the learners direct or indirect information or explanation about what is unacceptable.

Chaudron (1977), considers CF as “any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance,(P.31)

Lightbown and Spada (1999) define corrective feedback as:

Any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect. This includes various responses that the learners receive. When a language learner says, ‘He go to school everyday’, corrective feedback can be explicit, for example, ‘no, you should say goes, not go’ or implicit ‘yes he goes to school every day’, and may or may not include metalinguistic information, for example, ‘Don’t forget to make the verb agree with the subject. (p. 171-172).

According to Schachter (1991), corrective feedback, negative evidence, and negative feedback are three terms used respectively in the fields of language teaching, language acquisition, and cognitive psychology. These three terms are often used interchangeably by different researchers.

2.3. Choice of Corrective Feedback Strategy

Linguists, FL researchers and methodologists identified a number of different error correction strategies. These latter, were deduced from various studies (e.g. Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) of the different strategies teachers were observed to use in order to correct the learners' errors. More recently, researchers developed hierarchical taxonomies of corrective feedback strategies. In oral communication, there are two key distinctions: (1) explicit or implicit CF (e.g. Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006) ; and (2) input-providing vs. output-prompting CF (Lyster, 2004; Ellis, 2006). In the case of written CF the key distinction is between direct, indirect, and metalinguistic forms of correction (Ellis, 2009). These two distinctions can be combined into the taxonomy shown in Table 1.

Table 1. (Adopted from Ellis, 2009) *A Taxonomy of CF Strategies.*

| | <i>Implicit</i> | <i>Explicit</i> |
|------------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| Input-providing | Recast | Explicit correction |
| Output-prompting | Repetition Clarification request | Metalinguistic explanation Elicitation Paralinguistic signal |

2.3.1. Oral Corrective Feedback

In the case of oral corrective feedback, it can be differentiated on the basis of whether:

- Explicit or implicit corrective feedback (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006) ;
- Input-providing vs. output-prompting corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004; Ellis, 2006).

2.3.1.1. Explicit vs. Implicit Feedback

- a) **Explicit feedback :** This type of feedback overtly indicates that an error occurred in order to draw the learner's attention to it (e.g. grammatical explanation i.e. recast and explicit correction/feedback). Carroll and Swain (1993) define explicit feedback as « any feedback that overtly states that a learner's output was not part of the language to be learned » (p.361). This type of CF is just a rephrase of learners' output without push peer- or self-correct.
- b) **Implicit feedback :** It tries to draw the learner's attention to the error made without directly indicating it or interrupting the flow of interaction. Carroll And Swain (1993) refer to implicit feedback as including, « ...such things as confirmation checks, failures to understand, and request for clarification (because learners must infer that the form of their utterance is responsible for the interlocutor's comprehension problems) » (p.361). Such forms of feedback (e.g. elicitation; metalinguistic feedback; clarification request; repetition) encourage and facilitate peer- and self-repair.

2.3.1.2. Input-providing vs. Output-prompting Feedback :

- a) **Input-providing feedback:** The teacher directly provides the correct form. Opponents of input-providing feedback suggest that learners may simply imitate the correction provided without any attempt to think of it i.e. just spoken orally.
- b) **Output-prompting feedback:** The teachers "... offer learners an opportunity to self-repair by generating their own modified response" (Lyster, 2004, p. 405) i.e. the teacher encourages learners and gives them the chance to self-correct the error. This type of FB, unlike the input-providing FB, involves learners in a « deeper mental processing » (Lightbown & Spada, 2006) as they search for the correct form. Lyster (2004) suggested that the students should have latent knowledge of structure (L2

competence). He stated further that prompting will not be useful if the students are not familiar with the grammar structure and the vocabulary.

2.3.2. Written Corrective Feedback

In the case of written CF the salient distinction is between direct, indirect, and metalinguistic forms of correction (Ellis, 2009).

2.3.2.1. Direct feedback: This type of written FB gives an indication of the error made and provides the correction. Bitchener and Knoch (2010) claimed that direct or explicit FB provides correction of linguistic form or structure at or near the linguistic error.

2.3.2.2. Indirect feedback: It just provides an indication that an error occurred, unlike the direct written FB, it does not provide the correct form; (e.g. underlining or circling the error, indicating the number of errors in the margin, inserting error codes in the text...).

2.3.2.3. Metalinguistic feedback: This FB strategy provides information for the errors that have been made, or metalinguistic explanations of the underlying grammatical rule is given. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

According to Ferris (2002) written errors should be corrected : directly, indirectly, locating the errors, identifying the errors, using textual corrections and end notes, or selecting larger or smaller categories of errors.

2.4. Classification of Corrective Feedback Strategies

There are numerous classifications for CF strategies proposed by various researchers (Lyster & Ranta, 1997 ; Ellis, 2009; Burke & Pieterick, 2010). Lyster and Ranta's (1997) classification that includes six different categories is mainly used for learners' oral productions, although with a little modification, it functions with learners' writing activities as well. When studying corrective feedback and learner uptake in four French immersion

classrooms at the primary level, Lyster and Ranta (1997) distinguish six types of corrective feedback in their often-cited classroom observation study :

- 1) **Explicit correction/ feedback:** teachers supply the correct form and clearly indicate that the students' utterance is incorrect. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)
- 2) **Recast :** involves the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error. Spada and Fröhlich (1995;cited in Lyster & Ranta, 1997) also refer to such reformulations as « paraphrase ». Some recasts are more salient than others in that they may focus only on one word, whereas others incorporate the grammatical or lexical modification into a sustained piece of discourse. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).
- 3) **Elicitation:** According to Lyster this type of feedback refers to at least three techniques that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the learner ; asking the completion of their own utterance « elicit completion » by strategically pausing to allow students to « fill in the blank », asking questions, or asking for reformulation. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)
- 4) **Metalinguistic feedback:** contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correction (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere, whereas, metalinguistic information provides either some grammatical metalanguage that refers to the nature of the error, or a word definition in the case of lexical errors. Metalinguistic questions also point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)
- 5) **Clarification request** According to Spada and Fröhlich (1995; cited in Lyster & Ranta, 1997),is a question which indicates to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required. This FB type can refer to problems in either

comprehensibility or accuracy, or both. A clarification request includes phrases such as “Pardon me” as a request for further information from the student about a previous utterance. It may also include a repetition of the error. (Lyster and Randa, 1997).

- 6) **Repetition of error** refers to the teacher’s repetition, in isolation, of the student’s ill-formed utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation to highlight the error. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Table.2. *Examples of the Six Types of Corrective Feedback.*

| CF Type | Example |
|----------------------------|---|
| 1) explicit correction | St: Julia is very good at languages. She <u>speak</u> four languages very well. T: Oh, you should say She <u>speaks</u> . She <u>speaks</u> four languages very well. |
| 2) recast | St: Julia is very good at languages. She <u>speak</u> four languages very well. T:She <u>speaks</u> four languages very well. |
| 3) elicitation | St: Julia is very good at languages. She <u>speak</u> four languages very well. T: She? T: How do we form the third person singular form in English? T: Can you correct that? |
| 4) metalinguistic feedback | St: Julia is very good at languages. She <u>speak</u> four languages very well. T: Do we say she speak? T:How do we say when it forms the third person singular form? |
| 5) clarification request | St: Julia is very good at languages. She <u>speak</u> four languages very well. T: Parden me? |
| 6) repetition | St: Julia is very good at languages. She <u>speak</u> four languages very well. T : She speak? |

In the same regard, R. Ellis (2009) put a classification for the different types of CF. Ellis' classification encompasses six major categories, namely, recast, repetition, clarification request, explicit correction, elicitation and paralinguistic signal, shown in table 3.

Table 3. (Adapted from Ellis, 2009) *Corrective Feedback Strategies*

| <i>Corrective feedback strategy</i> | <i>Definition</i> | <i>Example</i> |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| 1. Recast | The corrector incorporates the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect utterance and changes and corrects the utterance in some way (e.g., phonological, syntactic, morphological or lexical) | L: I went there two times. T: You've been. You've been there twice as a group? |
| 2. Repetition | The corrector repeats the learner utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress. | L: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you. L: I'll show you. |
| 3. Clarification request | The corrector indicates that he/she has not understood what the learner said. | L: What do you spend with your wife? T: What? |
| 4. Explicit correction | The corrector indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error and provides the correction. | L: On May. T: Not on May, In May. We say, "It will start in May." |
| 5. Elicitation | The corrector repeats part of the learner utterance but not the erroneous part and uses rising intonation to signal the learner should complete it. | L: I'll come if it will not rain. T: I'll come if it? |
| 6. Paralinguistic signal | The corrector uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error. | L: Yesterday I go cinema. T: (gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past) |

It is worth mentioning that **Paralinguistic signal**, is also known as **Body Language**, does not use an oral response. With this type of oral error correction, the teacher uses either a facial expression or a body movement in order to indicate that the student's utterance is incorrect.

2.5. Effectiveness of corrective feedback

The disagreements regarding the efficacy of different CF strategies have motivated a number of experimental studies to be conducted. In a traditional narrative survey of the research, Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) concluded that both types of CF, implicit and explicit, assist acquisition. These CF strategies have notable effects on learners' improvement in the process of English language learning and their awareness of English grammar, and explicit CF, is generally more effective than implicit, it enhances their inaccurate performance instantly and this eventually would improve English accuracy. Those in favour of explicit or direct feedback suggest that it is more helpful for learners because it diminishes confusion, misunderstanding or the difficulty to remember the meaning of error codes used by teachers, and provides them with sufficient information about their errors (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

Other recent studies on oral CF (e.g. Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006) have shown that output-prompting strategies (implicit CF) are more effective than recasts and explicit correction (input-prompting strategies). Another example is the study of Ferris and Roberts (2001) of the effects of recasts and metalinguistic explanation on the acquisition of past tense «-ed » which supported that metalinguistic explanation proved to be more effective. It provides opportunities for self-repair and modified output because these lead learners to revise their own suppositions or assumptions concerning the target language. Those studies (e.g. Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006) which support indirect corrective feedback suggest that this approach is better than explicit CF, because it requires students to engage in guided learning and problem solving and as a result leads to long-term acquisition. Implicit techniques for CF are more important and tactful because they consider the students' styles, attitudes and personalities. Also, it is better as learners' emotions are not affected. In addition, communication is not inhibited as they let students speak, and the

correction is such as indirect that learners do not feel any « harm » from the correction provided. In contrast, it is much more agreed that some techniques, such as repetition of error can be ambiguous and that some students do not even notice the correction. However, such techniques are still insisted to be used over metalinguistic CF, or more explicit forms of CF.

On the contrary, many scholars suggest that all CF strategies are fruitful and in some cases, some scholars (e.g. Ferris & Roberts, 2001 ; Ellis, Loemen & Erlam, 2006) favor direct over indirect ones. Conversely, several others (e.g. Lalande, 1982; Robb, Ross & Shortreed, 1986 ; Lyster, 2004 ; Ammar & Spada, 2006) found out that implicit FB results in either greater or similar levels of accuracy over time. CF does make a great effect on oral accuracy, but the effectiveness for different level of learner is different. For medium and low group learners, the effectiveness is better, because there is sufficient space to accomodate them. For high group learners, their oral accuracy is better, what they need is to improve their oral fluency and complexity.

In the case of written CF there is no clear evidence to which of the three major types of strategies (direct, indirect, or metalinguistic) is the most effective. A number of studies (Truscott, 1999 ; Ashwell, 2000 ; Ferris & Roberts, 2001 ; Bitchener, 2008) differentiated between the effects of direct and indirect CF on the student's writing accuracy improvement. Mainly these studies report conflicting outcomes. Some believe that there is no main impact for CF and there was no significant difference between the performance of the learners who received CF and those who did not. Some other researchers believe that significantly those who were provided with CF out performed their counterparts who did not receive any feedback. Guenette (2007) associates these conflicting results to the differences in research designs and methodology, in addition, the majority of the conducted studies measured learners accuracy only on rewrites and it is ambiguous whether learners who receive feedback

also perform more accurately in the following assignments over time than those who are not provided with any feedback by their teachers.

2.5. Learner Responses to Feedback « Uptake »

The term « Uptake » has been defined in two distinct mannerisms. Traditionally, in a certain number of SLA studies, uptake refers to how the learners report what have been learned from a particular lesson (Allwright, 1984). In the same regard, Slimani (1992) defined uptake as «the investigation of what individual learners claim to have learned from the interactive classroom events which have just preceded » (p.200). However, Lyster and Ranta's data (1997), revealed a range of different utterances made by students in response to teachers' corrective feedback, in addition to the six types, and they borrowed the term « uptake » from Austin's Theory (1962) « Speech Act Theory » (p.117), to refer to these different types of student responses. Lyster and Ranta (1997) defined uptake as « a student's utterance that immediately follows the teachers' feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teachers' intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance » (1997, p. 49). In other words, uptake demonstrates the nature of students' reactions or statements instantly following the teacher's stimulating FB, and it shows how they try to answer or reply in response to the given FB.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) were not the pioneers in the field of « uptake » inquiry, but rather many researchers made extensive investigation into learners' uptake (e.g. Chaudron, 1977; Brock et al. 1986; Gass & Varonis, 1989; Doughty, 1994; Oliver, 1995). In Lyster and Ranta's taxonomy (1997), the learner uptake is divided into either; (a) uptake that produces an utterance still in need of repair, or (b) uptake that produces an utterance with repair of the error which was the focus of the teacher's feedback.

Regarding the first type of learner uptake, Lyster and Ranta (1997) agreed that « The needs-repair category is one that can lead to additional feedback from the teacher and thus allows for error treatment sequences to go beyond the third turn ». This type of learner uptake includes six different types of utterances : simple acknowledgements, occurrences of either the same or a different error, off-target responses, hesitations, and partial repair.

1. **Acknowledgment** : it usually refers to a simple « yes » provided by the learner in response to the teacher's feedback, as if to say, « Yes, that is indeed what I meant to say (but you've just said it much better!) » (Calvé, 1992). Acknowledgment is not restricted to « yes » but rather, it may also include a « no » on the part of the student in response to the teacher's metalinguistic feedback. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).
2. **Same error**: this type refers to the uptake that includes a repetition of the student's first error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), i.e. the same error would occur again within the uptake.
3. **Different error** : refers to a student's uptake that is in response to the teacher's feedback but that neither corrects nor repeats the initial error; instead, a different error is made. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)
4. **Off target** : refers to uptake that is clearly in response to the teacher's feedback turn but that circumvents (i.e. avoids and bypasses) the teacher's linguistic focus altogether, without including any further errors. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)
5. **Hesitation** : refers to a student's hesitation in response to the teacher's feedback. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)
6. **Partial repair** : it refers to the uptake that incorporates a correction of only part of the initial error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), but not the whole erroneous utterance, which was the focus of the teacher's feedback.

The second type of uptake, i.e. uptake with repair, does not include « self-initiated repair » because those forms of repairs are produced by students in a direct response to the FB received from the teacher, but rather, are repairs occurring only after prompting as Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) have called « other-initiated repair ». The uptake with repair requires an immediate correct reformulation of the error made in response to the teachers' CF. If the teacher's CF is direct i.e. recasts and explicit correction, this would lead only to the repetition of the correct form provided by the teacher in his FB. Whereas the learners' response to the other type of CF (implicit / indirect) would not be restricted to the repetition of the correct form, but rather this requires a self-repair or a correction from other learners i.e. peer-repair. According to Lyster and Ranta (1997) the other-initiated repair includes the following four types of utterances.

1. **Repetition** : it refers to learner's repetition of the teacher's feedback when this feedback includes the correction of the error. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)
2. **Incorporation** : refers to the learner's attempt to repeat the correct form provided by the teacher within the FB, which is then incorporated into a longer utterance produced by the learner (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). i.e. the learner's repetition of teacher's CF and including it as part of the whole learner's utterance.
3. **Self-repair** : it generally refers to self-correction, produced by the learner who made the error, in response to the teacher's feedback when the latter does not already provide the correct form. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)
4. **Peer-repair** : refers to a correction provided by a learner, other than the one who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

2.6. Teachers' Reinforcement

Lyster and Ranta (1997), in their study, negotiate another aspect that occurs in the process of CF provision, which is « reinforcement ». In the classroom, reinforcement might take the form of approval from the teacher or satisfaction by the learner that he has got his response right. In other words ; most of the time teachers before moving on to the next topic or task, they tend to afford enough positive reinforcement for certain correct responses uttered by learners in response to the teacher's CF i.e. learners' uptake, thus it is called « post-repair reinforcement » (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Reinforcement expressions and statements tend to encourage learners and support L2 learning, such as ; « Very well ! », « That's it ! », « Good ! » and « Yes ! » or by simply repeating the learner's repaired utterance. Furthermore, teachers often include metalinguistic information in their reinforcement (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Reinforcement to be effective it should follow the learner's response as quickly as possible i.e. immediately in order to enhance the second language competence development.

2.7. Choice of Corrector

Regarding the question of who should perform the correction in the classroom settings, there are three alternative choices: the use of self-correction, peer-correction and finally teacher correction. Teachers are often appraised to give students the opportunity to self-correct and, if that fails, to invite other students to perform the correction (Hedge, 2000), or, to simply provide the correction (Doughly and Varela, 1998).

2.8.1. Self-correction : Some CF strategies, including implicit and output-prompting strategies, automatically place the responsibility of correction on the learner; for instance, indicating an error by using elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, or simply repeating the learner's inaccurate utterance. It is up to the learner to notice that an error was made and s/he should repair it by providing the correct form in place of the wrong

one. Learners in general disfavor getting the correct forms provided by teachers' recasts or explicit FB, contrariwise, they prefer to have an opportunity to correct their own errors. Because recasts or explicit correction i.e. direct and input-providing strategies, may be perceived by learners as relating to the message being communicated rather than the problematic nature of a linguistic form (Lyster, 2004). Also, self-correction seems to be preferred over correction provided by others, since it is relatively motivating the learner to play an active role in the correction process and making classes more energetic, constantly engaged and interactive.

Even though, there are a lot of problems with learner self-correction. First of all, learners may often expect and typically prefer the teachers to correct for them (Ellis, 2009). Second, and the most significant, self-correction is unlikely if the learner does not have basic knowledge about the linguistic form in the question. i.e. in Corder's (1967) terms; they can only correct their « mistakes » but not their « errors » (Ellis, 2009). Third, despite the fact that output-prompting CF strategies draw the learner's attention that there is some kind of problem with his utterance, but without overtly informing that the problem is a linguistic one not just a communicative one (Ellis, 2009). The best solution is to encourage the learner to self-correct through implicit FB, and if this attempt is unsuccessful, to finally provide the correction by the teacher (Ellis, 2010). That is, « Prompt-then-provide » approach, according to which the CF should be contingent (i.e. provided only when it is necessary) and restricted to meet the needs of learners (Lantolf, 2000). Thus implicit CF should be favoured, at least initially, over explicit CF, because immoderate FB can hinder learner's autonomy and independence.

2.8.2. Peer-correction : This type of correction refers to a student's attempt to repair or correct the first erroneous utterance of another one. Learners after being given the opportunity to self-correct their errors and they failed in doing so, teachers tend to encourage their peers to

perform the correction. Peer-correction is applied carefully by teachers according to learners' personalities and relationships. This type of correction is appreciated for many reasons, it engages thoroughly students in face-to-face conversation and mutual exchange of L2 ideas, they feel comfortable in testing their linguistic hypotheses following CF from their classmates, which would lead to L2 development easily, since they are involved in an active and interactive setting. This collaborative learning environment makes them dependent, active agents in the learning process, which in turn increases their self-confidence and self-esteem (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Such technique of correction enhances the development of both listening and speaking skills. Studies examining peer-feedback on oral communication such as negotiation of form practice (Lyster, 1994 ; 2001), meta-talk activities (Swain & Lapkin, 1998) and other tasks in which learners were observed to adequately provide each other with accurate and useful CF (Bruton & Spada, 1980 ; Samuda & Rounds, 1993), concluded that learners can provide assistance to each other with accuracy and form.

Traditionally, CF researchers have focused very much on teacher CF in classroom settings. According to Russell (2006) this is unquestionably due to the widely held assumption that non-native speaking L2 learners are not considered to be linguistically equipped to provide effective CF. Long and Porter (1985) observed that while learners can offer each other genuine communicative practice, including the negotiation of meaning, they can not always provide each other with accurate and reliable grammatical input. Chaudron (1984) studied the effects of both teacher and peer FB. The results indicated that learners had less positive attitudes towards the value of peer FB than towards teacher FB.

2.8.3. Teacher-correction : There are specific CF strategies in which the teacher takes on the burden of correction. For instance, recasts and explicit correction (i.e. explicit feedback / input-providing strategies) which try to overtly attract the learner's attention to the error

made, and the correct form is given directly. So that the learners can clearly understand the error and acquire the accurate L2 forms. Teacher-correction is the most preferred one. It seems natural for learners to be corrected by the teacher, the expert and knowledgeable person, since they trust and respect his/her place as the fluent speaker of English. Teachers tend to provide the appropriate forms of correction towards the erroneous utterances to avoid misunderstanding and confusion, also to give sufficient information about the error made, through providing direct FB. Yoshida (2008) discovered that teachers preferred recast for diverse causes including limited class hours. He also indicated that teachers choose CF according to learners' characteristics such as their proficiency levels and learning styles.

In spite of what preceded, there are clear theoretical and practical backgrounds for emboldening self-correction and peer-correction. Thus, teachers should push the learner to self-repair and, if she or he fails in doing so, to invite other students to perform the correction (Hedge, 2000). The other alternative choice of providing the correction can be through encouraging self-correction and then, providing the correction as the final solution (Doughly & Varela, 1998). I.e. teachers can respond to learners' errors by first repeating the learners' utterance accentuating the error by means of emphatic stress and, then, if the learner fails to correct, the teacher calls on other students to perform the correction. If the rest of students fail too, the teacher should provide the correction by himself.

2.8. The Timing of Corrective Feedback

With regard to the question when to correct, in the case of written corrective feedback, it is clear that the correct form is always provided later i.e. the correction is delayed. With an exception of a very rare immediate written FB. Ferris (2002) states that : « L2 student writers are both willing and be able to benefit from simultaneous feedback on content and form on the same draft » . However, in the case of oral communication teachers have several options ; the

first one is to use speaking error correction strategies immediately at the same moment of making the error during the interaction i.e. « Online Corrective Feedback » which means that the error is responded to during the task (Li, 2013). Online CF affords occasions, in Long's (2007) words, for a short timeout and concise comment from the permanent conversations or discussions for learners. It includes a simultaneous contrast between the wrong and correct forms, and operates as an optimal form-focusing device in task-based language teaching. Though, this kind of correction is disfavoured for a number of disadvantages, for instance; continuous interruptions for each time to correct the learner's errors may be discouraging and demotivating them, cut their ideas and the flow of the interaction. Moreover, this will be far from the instructional objective of the activity at hand to be accomplished.

The second is « Offline Corrective Feedback », which refers to feedback after a task has been completed (Li, 2013). That is to say ; a delay correction which takes place after the oral activity. In this regard, Harmer (2008, p.131) discusses a strategy, in which the teacher takes down details about the learners' performance and notes down their errors. Then, he enquires the learners about their opinions concerning the discussion, before providing the feedback. Eventually, all the learners' errors are either written on the board, to be discussed with the whole class or given to the learners who made the errors individually. It is very important for the teachers to decide which method they adopt for noting down the learners' errors to be corrected at a later phase, for example to tape-record the activity, to rely on their memory or to note down the errors (Harmer, 1998). This approach is appreciated because it does not interfere with communication or disrupt the learners' ideas and, therefore, encourages them to speak fluently. Willis and Willis (2007) forechoose this post-task stage correction because, in this way, form-focused instruction is contextualized, and learners will not tend to focus on a particular linguistic structure during the task they are working on. They also argue that if the linguistic forms are addressed in a pre-task phase i.e. before the task, the learners would

concentrate more on the form, rather than on the meaning, which is extremely important in any task-based or communicative approach.

2.9. Learners' Emotional Response to Teacher's Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback has an important contribution in the field of teaching-learning L2 ,due to the significant role can make in facilitating this process,the fact that most researchers recognized it,whereas others worry about the degree of affective damage, that CF can cause among foreign language learners (Ellis, 2009a; Ayedh & Khaled, 2011). In this regard, Ellis (2009a) argues that corrective feedback does not function as “punishment” rather; it may hinder and impede learning. Positive feedback or reinforcement play indispensable role in providing affective support to the learner, and, stimulating motivation to continue learning, this has been highlighted in Second language pedagogy (Ellis, 2009a). In Martínez (2008) view; positive feedback or reinforcement is obviously with great importance because learners need to constantly feel encouraged to keep on learning. In contrast, negative evidence provided through corrective feedback may sometimes, damage learners' emotions and attitudes, and disturb their learning.

Accordingly, teachers should be careful in their corrective feedback's provision to learners,taking into consideration their individual differences,attitudes and emotions, because all these factors can influence the effectiveness of CF, and cause an affective damage among learners.

The way feedback is managed, is the one which decide about how learners feel and react towards this process (Ayedh & Khaled, 2011). The frequent and overuse of oral corrective feedback can upset and discourage EFL learners, thus, in order to avoid these counter-productive in terms of demotivating and undermine students'self- confidence,corrective feedback should be used in a limited extent (Ayedh & Khaled, 2011).

As Ayedh & Khaled (2011) claimed, “Feedback should always be personal, and never directed at the person’s personality” (p. 216). Although, both types of corrective feedback, implicit as well as explicit are proved to be worthy and beneficial in the acquisition of the target language, the fact is that implicit corrective feedback is the most preferable for learners, because they do not feel directly attacked, and accordingly, their emotions are not affected. By contrast; the explicit type makes learners feel upset from the direct correction provided, consequently, reject the feedback process (Ayedh& Khaled, 2011).

Actually there is no ‘ideal corrective feedback recipe’, but rather, it depends upon the way teachers provide corrective feedback to the learners. In this respect, considerable disagreement and debates seems to exist over how best to use and deal with corrective feedback, therefore, it is not still possible to decide about the ideal and specific type of corrective feedback which is best for all learners in all contexts (Russell & Spada, 2006; Loewen & Erlman, 2006; Loewen & Nabei, 2007; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009).

2.10. The Importance of Corrective Feedback

As the focus of classroom instruction has shifted over the past few decades from an emphasis on language forms to functional language within communicative context, the question of the place of error correction has become more and more important (Brown, 2004). Over the last few years, the role of corrective feedback in language acquisition has become a highly controversial issue. Though disputed theories and research articles collide with each other, there appears to be a growing consensus among the majority of researchers and language practitioners concerning the significance of the role played by corrective feedback in the process of second language acquisition. (Zhang, Zhang & Ma, 2010).

The role of corrective feedback in the process of learning a foreign language is closely related to the conception of the role of different kinds of language input in language acquisition (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Whether it is positive input/evidence or negative input/evidence has the greater impact. According to nativist theory, advocated by Chomsky (1975), negative input/evidence hardly plays any role at all, which is based on Chomsky's "Theory of Universal Grammar". The nativists believe what makes language acquisition is UG and instruction has little impact on forms within UG. (Carroll, 1996). Gass argues that corrective feedback functions as an attention-getting device and without direct or frequent corrective feedback in the input, which would permit learners to detect discrepancies between their learner language and the target language, fossilization may occur. Ellis (1991) shares the similar view that the acquisition process includes the steps of noticing, comparing and integrating (Zhang, Zhang & Ma, 2010).

Oral corrective feedback plays a significant role in improving students' speaking skill and accuracy level in EFL however; it is such a complicated task that should be done carefully by teachers. Zhang, Zhang & Ma (2010) consider that oral error feedback is a complex decision making process. When a student commits an error, the teacher firstly should decide which kind of error it is, whether to correct it, if so when and how to correct it, and who should correct it. Teachers should take students' cognitive, affective reality and as well as students' preferences of error feedback into consideration.

Conclusion

Oral corrective feedback is obviously a worthy subject, because it plays a significant role in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language as it is used frequently in the classroom by the teachers. Oral CF is acknowledged to be extremely an important process that assists the development of learners' proficiency in the TL including both oral and written linguistic accuracy. Therefore, EFL teachers should be knowledgeable of the key efficacious aspects for an effective provision of CF, since it is an ambiguous, inconsistent and unsystematic process. However, providing CF is not an easy task, but rather, it is a complex, difficult and challenging matter. This complicacy is mirrored when a student makes an error, the teacher wonders whether to correct the error or not, what kind of errors should be corrected, if so, how and when to correct it, and who should do the correction, which technique is the most effective and that allows time and opportunity for repair, bearing in mind learners' individual differences, learning styles and learning strategies. In order for the CF to be fruitful, the teacher should take into consideration the learners' language proficiency, attitudes, characters, emotions and preferences, to avoid many problems as interrupting the flow of communication, de-motivating learners or inhibiting their participation.

Chapter Two

The Speaking Skill

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Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the skill of speaking and it is divided into four main sections. The first section represents a review of the speaking skill, including its definition, components and its constituents, as well as, the different aspects and elements of speaking, furthermore, functions of speaking. The relationship between the speaking skill and the other language skills is highlighted, in addition to its importance. The second section tackles the characteristics of the speaking performance. This includes both fluency and accuracy, in addition to the different aspects of accuracy, such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation as well. In the third section, the oral communicative strategies are investigated. This involves a discussion of both the achievement and the reduction strategies. Finally, the fourth section deals with practising the speaking skill in the EFL classroom. This involves a deep investigation of the learners' speaking difficulties and the various classroom speaking activities. This section ends up with a detailed illustration of the main teachers' roles and responsibilities during the different implemented speaking activities in the EFL classrooms.

1. The Speaking Skill

The aim behind learning a foreign language differs from one person to another, but the prime concern is to be able to use the language adequately. The language usage is demonstrated through the use of the language four skills; reading, listening, writing and speaking. The two first language skills aforesaid, reading and listening, are known as « *The Receptive Skills* » in which the language is directed at the learners, whereas, the term « *Productive Skills* » is used to refer to both writing and speaking, where the language is produced by the learners. It is argued that the latter i.e. the productive skills are active, in comparison to the receptive skills which are considered to be passive. In this regard, Rivers (1981) argues that speaking is used twice as much as reading and writing in our

communication. Furthermore, the speaking skill is believed to be the hardest skill to be mastered in learning a foreign language, as Luoma argues « Speaking in a foreign language is very difficult and competence in speaking takes a long time to develop » (2004, p.1).

The skill of speaking is the basic skill any language learner wishes to master. In other words; speaking is probably a priority for most learners of English (Florez, 1999). Speaking is the means through which learners communicate effectively and express their thoughts, opinions, feelings and hopes accurately using the foreign language with others, in order to achieve their intended objectives in various contexts. Nunan (1999) and Burkart & Sheppard (2004) affirm that succeeding in learning a foreign language is measured with regard to the capacity to use that language appropriately and the ability to perform a live conversation naturally and spontaneously with others using this target language.

1.1. Definition of the Speaking Skill

The Speaking Skill is the basic aim of any Foreign Language learner, and it has often been viewed as the most demanding of the four skills. Speaking represents language use and increases the opportunity for learners to express themselves and convey their intended messages to others in the vocabulary and syntactic structures of the target language. According to Cora and Knight (2000, p.261) speaking is to produce the oral language appropriately in a given situation in order to express an intended message. According to the Oxford pocket dictionary (2009) speaking is « the action of conveying information or expressing one's thought and feeling in spoken language ». In the same regard, Chaney (1998) defines speaking skill as « the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of context » (p.13). In the whole, speaking is a productive skill involves the use of utterances or gestures and facial expressions to express emotions and thoughts of the speaker for the listener.

1.2. Component of Speaking

In the oral communication skill there are many components in order to accomplish its intended objectives. According to Vanderkevent (1990, p.8) there are three components in the speaking skill.

1.2.1. The Speakers: The most prominent component of speaking is « the speakers ». The speaker is the producer of the vocal utterance, i.e. s/he is the person who makes the speech to an audience or hearers. Actually the speaker is eminent to perform the speech and to express his or her opinions or feelings to the listeners. So that if there are no speakers, opinions or the feelings won't be declared and the reason behind the oral communication won't be fulfilled.

1.2.2. The Listeners: Usually the person to whom the speaker is talking to and transmitting the speech to is known as « the listener ». Listeners are the people waiting for the speaker to talk and they listen to the given auditory speech. They are the receivers who get the speakers' expressed opinions or feelings. In case of there are no listeners, the channel or the medium of the message will change and the speakers will express their feelings or opinions by means of writing instead of speaking.

1.2.3. The Utterances: The utterances are the articulate sounds and the spoken words or sentences, which are produced by the speakers to state their intended opinions. In other words, it is the oral message communicated by the speaker and received by the listener. It is the heart of the oral communication. Therefore, if there is no utterance, both of speakers and listeners will use sign i.e. written medium to represent the message.

1.3. Constituents of Speaking

The speaking skill generally consists of two elements, namely, speaking competence and speaking performance.

1.3.1. The Speaking Competence

According to Chomsky (1965), competence is the abstract knowledge in one's mind about the language. That is, competence is what a speaker actually knows about the language. In the same regard, Martin H. Manser (1991, p.80) states that competency is having the ability, skill and knowledge to do something. Subsequently, the speaking competency is the ability of someone to speak, supported with appropriate skill and the language knowledge and it is very difficult to be assessed. As William O'Grady, et.al (1996, p.4) states that linguistic competence is the ability to produce and understand an unlimited number of utterances.

Savignon (1988, p. 9) affirms that there is a theoretical difference between competence and performance. Competence is defined as the underlying ability and the implicit knowledge, yet, performance is the overt manifestation of that ability. Competence is what one knows about the language as opposed to performance; which is how one actually uses it. In this case only performance can be assessed, promoted and maintained.

1.3.2. The Speaking Performance

Speaking performance is a daily activity, as Chomsky (1965, p. 23) declares it is the actual use of language in a concrete situation. According to Martin H. Manser (1991, p. 306) performance is the person's process or manner of representing a play. Consequently, it can be easily deduced that speaking performance is one's manner of speaking, the act of performing, and the way of representing the abstract knowledge concerning the target language that exists in the mind, which is evaluated by means of fluency and accuracy. Marcel (1978, p.78) made a distinction between accuracy and fluency. Accuracy is usually related to the manner of correctness and exactness i.e. the appropriate words' usage and the pattern of sentences. While fluency is someone's way of speaking involving how to produce words in a certain period of time without missing main words on their oral spontaneous speech. This means

speaking the target language accurately and confidently, demonstrating smoothness and a reasonable rate of speech.

1.4. Aspects of speaking

In learning a foreign language, it is a natural process to take into consideration the different aspects of the language skill aimed to be learned, for a better understanding of this skill and as a result a relaxed learning through designing appropriate instructional activities for language learning in general, and a classroom speaking activities in particular to enhance the learning of the speaking skill. In order to bestow the language learners with the adequate oral communication skill; to use that language and communicate with it effectively in the different real life situations.

1.4.1. Speaking is face to face

In his highly acclaimed book, Harmer (2001) declares that the spoken language is affected by the situation speakers are present in (p. 45). In fact most of conversations are face-to-face spontaneous interactions between the interlocutors or the participants in the speaking act, which affords speakers an immediate feedback. In this regard, Cornbleet and Carter (2001) provide such example; «Do listeners understand? Are they in agreement? Do they sympathize» (p.16). Face-to-face speakers have a number of features to facilitate communication and help them to indicate stance, opinions, intimacy ...etc such as facial expressions, intonation, tone of voice, gestures and even body movements. (El Fayoumy, 1997, p. 10; Widdowson, 1998; Burns, 1998).

On the other hand, Harmer (2001) also suggests that listeners in the verbal speech are not passive receivers of the speakers' utterances, but rather they are active participants. Because every speaker is simultaneously a listener and every listener is at least potentially a speaker (Oprandy, 1994, p. 153; EL Menoufy, 1997, p. 9). So listening as well engages the listener in

a state of language activation to extract meaning from the conversation. That is to say, the listener think to understand and get the meaning of what the speaker is verbally communicating using his knowledge. Meanwhile, they produce interjections such as; « Mm, Right, Yeah ...etc. » to demonstrate understanding and to indicate that they are following the conversation and listening to, or even to show support. They may also ask questions to keep the conversation going on, also they may reply using responses like ; « OK, Yeah, Right, Got you... and so on » to answer requests (Harmer, 2001, p. 265).

1.4.2. Speaking is interactive

Whatever the situation the conversation is taking place in, either the participants are speaking face-to-face or over a phone, to only one person or a large number of audience, the conversation is usually performed in a circle and the turn is changed smoothly in sequence from the speaker to the other participants, who may offer contributions at fitting moments, without unjustified breaks or everyone talking over each other (Bygate, 1998, p. 30; Cornbleet & Carter, 2001, p. 27)

Turn taking, a main aspect and feature in interaction, is a subconscious part of any ordinary conversation. It refers to the manner in which orderly conversation normally takes place. Turns can be made up of a single word, a phrase, a clause, or a full statement to switch the turn of speaking for another participant. Turn takings are signaled and recognized distinctively across different cultures, hence, conversations between people of distinct cultures, having different languages is characterized with communication difficulties (Mc Donough & Mackey, 2000, p. 84).

1.4.3. Speaking happens in real time

The major difference between speaking and writing is that ; in conversational speech, responses are unplanned and spontaneous i.e. it occurs in real time, and the speakers think on their feet (performance), producing language which reflects this (Foster et al, 2000, p. 368).

This restriction of time affects the speaker's ability to plan, to organize the message, and to control the language being used because the listener is waiting for him or her to speak right then. Also, performance cannot be edited or revised, for that reason, most of the time speakers commit a false start. In other terms, they start talking about something, then, they change their mind equidistantly. Thus, speaking is believed to be the hardest language skill to be learned and mastered. Also, the speaker's sentences are likely small units rather than long or complex sentences as in writing. Moreover, speakers occasionally forget what they intended to say; or they may even forget what they have already said, so that they repeat themselves (Miller, 2001, p. 27).

All these facts about the speaking skill entails that the production of speech in real time imposes difficulties, distress and pressures, however, it permits the speaker to use compensation skills to overcome these difficulties. These include self-correction, repeating and rephrasing. In addition to the speaker's possibility of using the facilitation skills such as lexical phrases, fillers, ellipsis...etc. (Widdowson, 1998; Segawitz, 2000). Also the use of hesitation devices can help speakers become more fluent and cope with real time demands, depending upon the audience and upon the way they absorb their reactions and respond to them (Bygate, 1987, p. 21; Foster et al, 2000; Hughes, 2002, p. 76).

Actually, shedding light on the spoken discourse and its different features facilitates the students' oral production allowing them to reflect their thoughts and feelings differentially in the context of the time-bound nature of speaking. Also, this would help them to compensate

for the speaking difficulties they encounter during verbal conversations. It also provides them with real opportunities to practice the target language which in turn would help them sound normal in their use of the foreign language (Widdowson, 1998; Segowitz, 2000).

1.5. Elements of Speaking

Harmer (2001, p.269-271) introduces and explains some elements of second language, which learners must take into consideration in order to improve their speaking skill.

1.5.1. Language Features

The following elements are quite important in producing speaking:

Connected Speech

The production of individual phonemes is not enough to be considered fluent and effective English speaker, but also learners need to use connected speech in which sounds are modified (assimilation), omitted (elision), added (linking), or weakened (through contractions and stress patterning). Hence students should be involved in connected speech activities to improve their spoken language (Harmer, 2001, p. 269).

Expressive Devices

Foreign Language Learner should be able to use expressive devices as changing the pitch and stress of particular parts of utterances, vary volume and speed, and use body language, facial expression and gestures to convey their thoughts, meanings and emotions. These devices contribute effectively in enhancing their ability to speak and interact (Harmer, 2001, p.269).

Lexis and grammar

It is about knowledge and the ability to use a variety of lexical phrases for different functions such as agreeing, disagreeing, expressing surprise, shock or approval in a specific speech context. Learners should be provided with such phrases for its usefulness in helping them in communication and interaction (Harmer, 2001, p.269).

Negotiation Language:

Harmer (2001) claims that « effective speaking benefits from negotiating language we use to seek clarification and to show the structure of what we are saying » (p.269). Negotiation language is when the speaker uses phrases or words for further clarification of his speaking and to structure his discourse and thoughts in order to be better understood by the listener, through the use of language such as : « The important thing to grasp is that... What I mean is... The point I'm trying to make is that... Etc » (Harmer, 2001, p.269-270).

1.5.2. Mental/Social Processing

In addition to language features, students should have knowledge about the mental and social process and skills that are necessary in speaking (Harmer, 2001, p. 271).

Language Processing

Harmer (2001) states that language processing involves the retrieval of words and phrases from memory and their assembly into syntactically and propositionally appropriate sequences (p.271). It is the ability to process language in the students' minds coherently, so that they can produce and convey an understood meaning.

Interacting with others

Students should learn how to manage a conversation with others, effective interaction involves listening to others' speech and know how they feel, also when to take turn in speaking and allow others do that (Harmer, 2001, p.271).

(On the spot) Information Processing

Students' ability to process the information instantly « instant response » when they get it from others, the longer it takes the less effective the communication will be. Moreover, students should take into consideration some L2 cultural rules (Harmer, 2001, p.271).

1.6. Functions of Speaking

In an attempt to determine the different functions which speaking serve, Brown and Yule (1983; as cited in Nunan, 1996, p. 27, 28) distinguish monologue from dialogue in speaking, they also suggest a distinction between transaction and interaction.

Actually, there are two sorts of speaking; « monologue » and « dialogue », and this is the first distinction. The former refers to an uninterrupted utterance or a continuing oral presentation by one person (Nunan, 1989, p. 27). In the same regard, Crystal (2003) also emphasizes the fact that in monologue just one person is acting the role and taking the speech during the conversation (p. 294). However, the latter refers to interacting with other participants or simply a conversation between two or more individuals (Nunan, 1989, p. 27). Dialogue is used to serve one of the two main functions; either to send messages or to communicate with other participants.

The second differentiation is made between « transactional » i.e. transfer of information and « interactional » that is maintenance of social relationships (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 3). These are argued to be the main purposes or functions of speaking. In fact, the spoken

language used in transactional discourse is clearly different from that used in the interactional discourse.

In transactional speech, the aim of speaking is primarily to transmit and communicate information. McCarthy (2002) defined transaction discourse as « to tell somebody something they need to know, to affect the purchase of something, to get someone to do something, or many other world-changing things » (p.136). The Language serving this purpose is « message-oriented » rather than « listener-oriented » (Nunan, 1989, p.27). In other words, the transactional discourse has to do with the transmission of information, and the prime reason for speaking is the message. This type of interaction requires an accurate and coherent message, as well as occasional confirmations that the message has been understood each time. Examples of transactional uses of language are: news broadcasts, descriptions, narrations and instructions (Richards, 1990, p. 54, 55).

However, some discourses are interactional considering the purpose of establishing or maintaining social relationships. Sometimes this type of conversation is called the interpersonal use of language, regarding its important role in establishing and maintaining social relationships, in Yule's terms; it plays an important social role in oiling the wheels of social intercourse (Yule, 1989, p. 169). While McCarthy (2002) described the interactional speech as « the lubrication of the social wheels » (p. 136). Some examples of language being used primarily for an interactional purpose include: small talks, greetings, and compliments. Unlike the reason for transactional speaking, the message here is not the reason for speaking, but rather the language used in the interactional conversation is a listener oriented. In this type of conversation the speaker's speech constitutes of small units since he or she is limited to quite short turns (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1994, p. 43; Richards, 1990, p. 54-55).

Despite the abovementioned distinctions between the two types of conversations, in terms of its distinct functions, it is worth mentioning that in most situations, interactional language is tied to the transactional one i.e. it provides assistance to ease the transactional tasks to be successfully accomplished by maintaining good social relations with the others. In other words, the speakers can be asked to do one thing by doing another one (Brazil, 1995, p. 29). Therefore, both purposes are recognised as two dimensions of the verbal interaction. In this regard, Kingen (2000) combines both the transactional and interactional functions of speaking into a list of twelve categories (closely correspond to the language functions explained by Halliday (1975)) as follows:

1. **Personal:** expressing personal feelings, opinions, beliefs, thoughts and ideas.
2. **Descriptive:** describing someone or something, real or imagined and setting its characteristics.
3. **Narrative:** creating, recounting and telling stories or chronologically sequenced events either real or fictional.
4. **Instructive:** giving instructions, furnishing information or knowledge, or providing directions designed to produce an outcome.
5. **Questioning:** asking questions to obtain information.
6. **Comparative:** comparing one or more objects, people, ideas or opinions to some or each-other to make judgments about them, and evaluate the similarities and differences.
7. **Imaginative:** creating and expressing ideally mental images of people, places, events, and objects not previously perceived.
8. **Predictive:** predicting and estimating possible future events.
9. **Interpretative:** exploring and explaining meanings, creating hypothetical deductions, and considering inferences.

10. Persuasive: successfully convincing the others to change their opinions, attitudes, or points of view, or influencing the behaviours of others in some way.

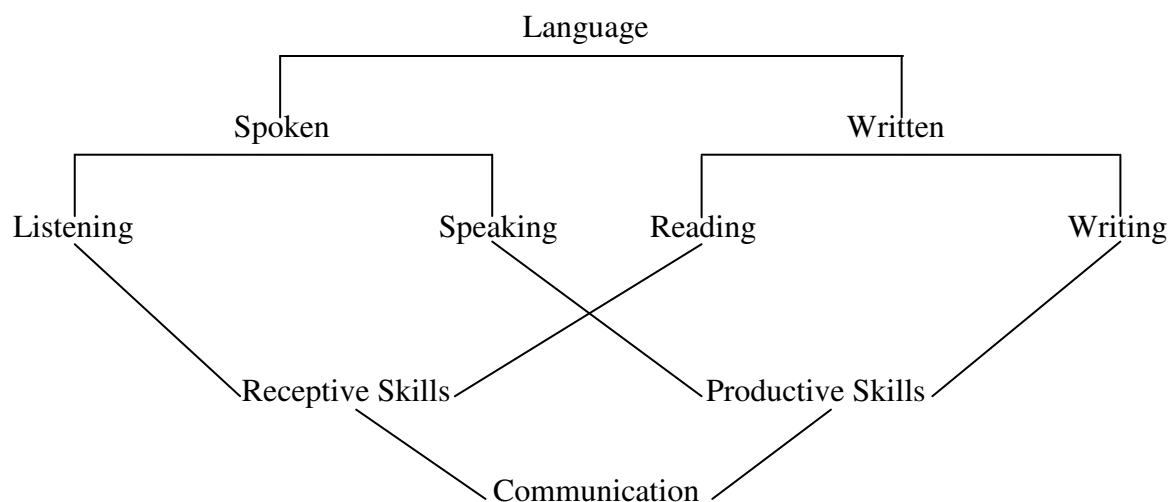
11. Explanatory: explaining, elucidating, clarifying, and supporting ideas and opinions.

12. Informative: providing and sharing information with others; especially useful and interesting information. (Kingen, 2000, p. 218)

1.7. The Interrrelationship between Speaking and the Other Language Skills

In teaching a foreign language all the different language skills, namely; speaking, writing, listening and reading, are needed. Sometimes one of these skills is more emphasized than the others, and this depends on the objectives of language course, methods of teaching and the learners' needs (Derradji, 1995). However the four skills are interrelated because it is rare for language skills to be used in isolation in everyday life. For instance, in a conversation both speaking and listening comprehension are needed, as well as, the skill of reading or listening and making notes (i.e. writing) is likely to be almost needed too. Gass and Varionis (1994) point out that since the skill of speaking is part of the other language skills, it is highly and mutually related in establishing the mastery of the other language skills in general and the development of the speaking skill itself in particular. In addition, Widdowson (1978) strongly emphasized the integration of the four skills, and argues that learners in order to attain proficiency, they need to develop both receptive and productive skills in both spoken and written discourses. This significant interrelatedness of language skills is clarified in the following diagram:

Figure 4. (adapted from Robinett, 1978) *The Inter-Relationship of The Four Skills*



In foreign language teaching, the target language can be presented either in the spoken form or in the written one. The spoken language is usually split into listening and speaking skills. Whereas, both skills of reading and writing are classified under the written language. Moreover, listening and reading are considered as receptive skills where the learner is in a direct exposure to the target language to extract meaning from the discourse. Besides, the term productive skills is used for speaking and writing, skills where the TL is generated by the learner (in speech or writing). In other words, performance of the target language.

1.7.1. Speaking and Listening

It is argued that speaking can support other language skills, moreover, it was proved that learning speaking can help the development of listening skills (Regina, 1997). Both of these language skills are « aural » and they are essential in acquiring the communicative competence in the process of foreign language learning. As a result, the EFL teachers should recognise that being a proficient speaker is to listen as possible to the oral form of the TL and understanding the communicated utterances so that the responses will be accurate. Consequently, teachers should devote more time for both speaking and listening skills, which are often interrelated, to enhance the learners' ability to use the target language for

communicative purposes (Savignon, 1983; 1990). When the EFL learners listen to the TL pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, they will be able to communicate effectively.

To accomplish the purpose of communication successfully, there should be both a speaker and a listener to perform positive functions like verbal interaction and negotiation of meaning. The speaker in his part has to produce a comprehensible output and to encode the message he wants to convey. On the other hand, the listener has to pay attention and then tries to decode, process and interpret this output effectively according to the context. In this regard, Byrne (1976, p. 8) states that listening is as important as speaking. As the speaker needs a listener, because apparently speaking is rarely carried in isolation, listening will not occur in isolation as well, there must be a speech to listen to. Ultimately, speaking is certainly related with listening as two interrelated ways of accomplishing communication, because every speaker is simultaneously a listener and every listener is at least potentially a speaker (Oprandy, 1994, p. 153; EL Menoufy, 1997, p. 9).

1.7.2. Speaking and Reading

In teaching the language four skills, the interrelationship that exists between them is extremely important. And the EFL teacher should realize its validity and its heavy effect on the development of these communicative skills in general. Thus, Nunan (1989) summed up the principles that should guide teaching for integrating a variety of language skills, among these; instructions about the reading skill. The teacher may find more difficulties if he teaches reading without recognizing the importance of listening and speaking skills. According to Green and Petty (1978, p. 9) a teacher who thoughtfully recognizes the interrelationship of language skills may well discover that reading problems really hinder the acquisition of sufficient oral language base. Harmer (1983) also has pointed out that one of the teacher's

responsibilities is that learners should practise all the language skills. He finds separating the language skills unreasonable and he mentions that;

Someone who listens to a lecture may take notes and then write a report of the lecture. The same person might also describe the lecture to his friends or colleagues and follow it up by reading an article that the lecturer suggested. (1983, p. 47)

The skill of reading can be effectively exercised through one or more of the other skills to increase the learners' motivation, concentration and decrease the obstacle of over-control of the class during the lesson time. Consequently, recent years marked a shift from traditional reading sessions to more integrated oral communication ones. Grellet (1981) emphasizes that reading comprehension and other skills should be presented together and she states that « It's important to link the different skills through reading activities » (1981, p. 8). Grellet (1981) declares that in real life, there are few cases in which someone does not talk or write about what he has read or does not relate what he has read to something he has heard before.

Moreover, it was proved that learning speaking can help the development of the reading competence (Hilferty, 2005). So, when speaking is incorporated into reading (even writing) lessons, learners will be given opportunities for oral communication practice. Since the skill of listening is a necessary complement to any speaking activity, annexing also speaking opportunities to a reading (or writing) lesson allows EFL learners to integrate at least three skills within the same activity. Peck states that « Listening comprehension, together with reading, offers one of the most powerful means of extending students' stock of language items with which they can later express themselves in speech or writing » (1988, p.187). In addition, integrating speaking and reading skills deepens learners' understanding of the reading material, and reveals any problem they may face while understanding the text.

This combination of the different language skills has many advantages; it makes reading much more interesting to learners since it encompasses their different strengths, and creates interactive possibilities by focusing on both productive and receptive skills, and it makes the English language classroom a fun and dynamic place to be (Nunan, 1999 ; Celce-Murcia, 2001). As well as, the interesting topics associated with reading (and writing) lessons provide them with speaking topics to discuss, that is, this provides them with opportunities to test their language hypothesis and to orally represent the ideas they have read into authentic speaking practice that would automatically improve their oral fluency. It also helps them to learn how to ask questions about different issues. Further, they would acquire the ability to view and orally defend a given topic from different perspectives. And most importantly, this facilitates learners' acquisition of English vocabulary and grammar. In other words, reading materials function as a TL resource.

1.7.3. Speaking and Writing

The skill of speaking is highly correlated to the other language skills especially writing. Speaking has been usually compared to writing, regarding, both are considered to be communicative or « productive skills », as opposed to the « receptive skills » of reading and listening. Basically, speaking and writing are two complementary aspects of the same subject; language. In other words, they are « two facets of the same coin ». Moreover, it was argued that a good speaker is actually a good writer, and this emphasizes the interrelationship between these two language skills. Recently, it was proved that learning speaking can help the development of writing (Trachsel & Severino, 2004).

However, it is worth mentioning that, spoken language and written language differ in many aspects (Golkova & Hubackova, 2014). The verbal language is often reciprocal (interactive negotiation of meaning), co-constructed and messy, since it occurs in real time

that is unplanned (Harmer, 2001). Speaking is less structured and informal than writing, because the speaker uses small units of conversation depending on very short and incomplete sentences called « utterances » (Yule, 1989, p. 170), which are characterised by pronunciation, repetition (the act of saying the same utterance many times in the same conversation) and overlaps (the act of speaking at the same time) (Nunan, 1996). In addition to, the use of intonation, tone of voice, stress and body movement (Harmer, 2001, p. 45). Spoken discourse is characterized also by the use of simple linking devices (discourse devices) such as: « and, but, anyway, right » rather than complicated ones adopted in written discourse (Nunan, 1999, p. 22; Dinapoli, 2000, p. 1; Miller, 2001). In addition to; pauses, hesitations, interruptions, and false starts (Bygate, 1998, p. 21).

On the other hand, the written discourse consists of well-formed, structured, gathered and full sentences, that in turn would form well-structured paragraphs. Writing tends to be pre-organised unlike speaking (Harmer, 2001). Written discourse is formal than the spoken one, because it tends to use long, complete and correct sentences. It is characterized by the use of complicated discourse linking devices as well. Writing too has its own range of signs and symbols that can be used to indicate attitudes, intimacy, and so on. These include: dashes (-), exclamations marks (!), commas (,), CAPITAL letters, new paragraphs, etc (Harmer, 2001, p. 45, 46). To sum up, the spoken language differs in many significant ways from the written one. The following are some key contrasts (van Lier, 1995, p. 88) ;

Spoken Language

Auditory

Temporary ; immediate reception

Prosody (rhythm, stress, intonation)

Immediate feedback

Planning and editing limited by channel

Written Language

Visual

Permanent ; delayed reception

Punctuation

Delayed or no feedback

Unlimited planning, editing, revision

Eventually, the skill of speaking is as significant as writing. It is not a matter of opposition but rather a matter of priority when learning, according to the learners' needs. Despite all the differences between writing and speaking, it is worth stating that the majority of the grammatical words and items used in speech are just considered to be informal as they are considered more formal in writing. Both writing and speaking are not different systems, but rather, they are variations on the same system and two complementary aspects of the same system; language (Harmer, 2001, p. 46). The mastery of one language skill would automatically facilitate and lead to the development of the other language skill, since all of them are interrelated.

1.8. The Importance of the Speaking Skill

Speaking is generally thought to be the most important of the four language skills. The basic sake for any foreign language learner is to speak fluently and convey his thoughts, and emotions to others. Ur (2000) declares that « of all the four skills [listening, speaking, reading and writing], speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred to as «speakers» of the language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing » (p. 12). Because the frequent question asked to any one who learn a second or a foreign language is do you speak...? and not do you write or read ?.

For many years the speaking skill was neglected in many classrooms where the main focus was mainly on reading and writing under the domination of the traditional approaches of language learning and teaching. The Grammar-Translation method is one example, Richards and Rodgers (2001) mention that reading and writing are the essential skills to be focused on however, little or no attention is paid to the skill of speaking and listening. Whereas, in The Communicative- Approach, speaking was given more importance since oral communication and performance involves speech where learners are expected to interact verbally with other

people. In addition, the teachers' talk in the classroom will be reduced; that is to say, learners are given more time for speaking.

The latter is seen as a mean of communication by excellence; people speak to make a request, a speech. It means that they always use it in their life, because without speaking they will be a dumb and never know everybody's means. Speaking is « an activity requiring the integration of many subsystems...all these factors combine to make speaking a second or foreign language a formidable task for language learners...yet for many people, speaking is seen as the central skill » (Bailey & Savage, 1994, p.6-7) .

Learners in EFL classes expect to use the speaking skill more than the other skills, because it represents language in use. Moreover, if EFL learners master the speaking skill they can easily master all the other language skills.

2. Characteristics of Speaking Performance

The skill of speaking consists of linguistic performance and linguistic competence, i.e. reflecting our linguistic competence into oral performance. Speaking is the ability to think and to arrange meaningful words and sounds. Tarigan (1990, p.15) says that speaking is the competence to express, explain and convey thinking, feeling, and idea. So, in order to measure the students' speaking ability, there are basic features of speaking performance, to assess their oral skills, such as:

2.1. Fluency

The primary aim behind teaching the productive skill of speaking is establishing oral fluency since it is the main characteristic of good oral performance. Hornby (1974, p. 330) defines fluency as the quality of being able to speak smoothly and easily, demonstrating a reasonable rate of speech. It means that someone can speak in an intelligible, reasonable and

accurate way without any hesitation, in the context of the time-bound nature of speaking. Hughes (2002) signifies that too much hesitation will break down the communication, because listeners will lose their interest. It is worth stating that, someone can speak fluently even though he makes errors in pronunciation and grammar.

Many EFL learners believe that being a fluent speaker is the ability to speak fastly, because of that they try to start speaking rapidly without pauses. Nation and Newton (2009) emphasised that « Fluency is typically measured by speed of access or production and by the number of hesitations; accuracy by the amount of error; and complexity by the presence of more complicated constructions, such as subordinate clauses » (p.152). However, Thornbury (2005) argues that even pausing from time to time is an important factor in fluency as speed, because speakers need to take breath to think and collect their ideas and to carry on speaking fluently, as well as, to allow the conversationalists understand what is communicated.

Though, pausing too much signifies the existence of speaking problems. So, speakers tend to use production strategies or « tricks » to fill these pauses while speaking i.e. « pause fillers » (Thornbury, 2005). These include: « Uh, Um, Huh, Well, No way, You know, You see, Basically, Let me think, I mean, I suppose, I guess ». Generally speaking, fluency relies on the speaker's ability to use facilitation skills (fillers, lexical phrases, ellipsis...etc.) and compensation skills (self-correction, rephrasing, or repeating) to cope with the ongoing fast communication (Widdowson, 1998; Segalowitz, 2000).

2.2. Accuracy

Learners most of the time focus on the aim of being fluent speakers and they neglect the importance of being accurate. That, in some cases, EF learners can speak fluently but they make errors in grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation as well. As a result, the message being

communicated will be ambiguous, and it will not be understood, moreover, the listeners will lose interest since the message contains a lot of errors. Skehan (1996, p. 23 ; cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005, p. 139) defines accuracy as referring « to how well the target language is produced in relation to the rule system of the target language ». Provided that; accuracy refers to the freedom from errors, the correctness, and the learners' ability to choose carefully and precisely the exact and the appropriate expressions (i.e. vocabulary) fitting a particular context, according to the rules of the TL (i.e. grammar), and speaking in a clear and effective manner (i.e. pronunciation). According to Hughes (2002) accuracy refers to « the range and the accurate and appropriate use of the candidate's grammatical source » (p.87). So, to maintain accuracy, EFL learners should pay attention to grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation as well.

Ultimately, both fluency and accuracy are important for the EFL learners. Although these two are distinct but they are two complementary characteristics of speaking performance. The former refers to how smoothly and effortlessly someone speaks or writes, whereas, the latter is the ability to speak or write without grammatical and structural flaws. Therefore, the EFL teachers should focus on both of them while designing their lesson plans and adopt them flexibly according to the learners' needs and the course objectives, because learners need a balance between the two to learn the English language and use it effectively.

2.2.1. Grammar

The grammatical accuracy refers to the range and the appropriate use of the learners' grammatical structure that involves the length and the complexity of the utterances, in addition to the use of subordinate clauses (IELTS, 2001, p. 15; cited in Hughes, 2002). EFL learners must be taught the system of rules and principles for both speaking and writing the English language, to be able to use them appropriately and construct phrases and sentences

according to the structure system of the TL. Learners must be given insight into word order, inflection and derivation to help them to speak fluently. Apparently, the grammar of speech differs from that of writing. Thornbury (2005) lists the following features of spoken grammar:

- a. Clause is the basic unit of construction.
- b. Clauses are usually added (co-ordinate).
- c. Head+ body+ tail construction.
- d. Direct speech favored.
- e. A lot of ellipsis.
- f. Many question tags.
- g. Performance effects (hesitation, repeats, false starts, incompleteness, syntactic blends).

To use grammar correctly in speech, the EFL learner should produce distinctive grammatical structures of the TL and to adopt them effectively while communicating, with regard to the characteristics of the spoken grammar. For instance, using spoken uncomplete clauses, instead of complete sentences, and joining them with coordinators such as « but » or « and », or not joined at all, but simply uttered next to each other, with a short pause between them. Therefore, simple phrases' structure and frequent purposeful repetition signifies a high level of proficiency (Hughes, 2002, p. 61; Luoma, 2004, p. 6).

2.2.2. Vocabulary

Hornby (1974, p. 979) defines vocabulary as the range of words known or used by a person in trade, profession, etc. Concerning EFL learners' vocabulary, it is the collection of words they know and their cleverness to select rapidly the appropriate words during speaking. In this regard, Luoma (2004, p. 24) claims that using vocabulary adequately implies the ability to recognize and use words in the same way that native speakers of the language use them. It implies using the common collocations of words and fixed phrases. This includes also

the use of vague language. If learners have many vocabularies, it will be easier for them to express easily and accurately their ideas. According to Harmer (2001) even the knowledge of word-classes permits speakers to communicate well formed and accurate utterances.

2.2.3. Pronunciation

Achieving accuracy in terms of pronunciation is an important feature in learning and performing a foreign language that is why EFL learners should practice the English pronunciation. Hornby (1974, p. 669) defines pronunciation as the way in which a language is spoken, the way in which a word is pronounced and uttered. Learners can easily get the TL pronunciation through listening either to native speakers of the TL or to their teachers, then to imitate them to acquire native alike pronunciation. Brown (1981) states that « pronunciation is the sound that the speaker can imitate from others. In this case, a listener can imitate when he is listening to others » (p.8). Broughton (1988) too declares that « pronunciation is way to sound the words of which to give its meaning » (p. 49). He adds that in teaching pronunciation, the teacher has to repeat the sound pattern of a given word until the learners get the perfect one. Harmer (1991, p. 11) points out pronunciation as how to say a word in which the word is made of sound, accent, stress and intonation.

The most prominent problems in pronunciation are: phonetic confusion, interference from the written form, interference from the mother language and failure to use the weak forms. Thus learners should be aware of the different sounds and their features, in addition to the word's stress, also, being able to use raising intonation as opposed to the falling one. These elements help learners to speak English effectively and accurately and assist the aim of better understanding of the message being communicated. Redmond and Vrchota (2007) argue that: « It is imperative that you use the correct word in the correct instance and with the correct pronunciation. Pronunciation means to say words in ways that are generally accepted or

understood » (p.104). However, if pronunciation is not accurate, speakers will not be understood and therefore accuracy is not achieved.

In practicing the productive skill of speaking, there are some specific elements which have a strong correlation with pronunciation (Morely, 1996, p. 2; Florez, 1998, p. 2 ; Cornbleet & Carter, 2001, p. 18). Pronunciation includes elements such as:

1. **Sounds:** The element of sound includes consonants, vowels and consonant clusters. For instance, if someone says /k/ separately it will be meaningless, but if it is connected with other sounds like /a/, /r/ or /b/, in a certain order this would yield a meaningful word.
2. **Stress:** Stress is an important feature in word pronunciation as spoken. It means the emphasis placed on a syllable of a word in speaking.
3. **Intonation:** Edinburg (1986, p. 164) defines intonation as « tunes » or « melody » of the English language. It refers to the pattern of pitch changes, there are two basic patterns; rising and falling. Intonation is clearly a significant item and component of the language, hence the TL learners should recognize its importance, because it affects the word's meaning and change it through using it in different ways. EFL learners should use rhythms and stress correctly to be understood.
4. **Rhythm:** The rhythm is created according to the position of stress within a single word or a group of words. Within words the stress has a fixed position, but stress within a group of words can move according to meaning.
5. **Linking and assimilation:** When sounds are linked together in a speech, changes occur i.e. sounds are assimilated; because of the influence of neighboring sounds.

To sum up, there are basic factors and prominent features of speaking performance; that determine the success of the English language learners. Because, only in that way, they can

express themselves effectively. According to Nunan (1989, p. 32) successful oral communication involves:

1. the ability to articulate phonological features of the language comprehensibly ;
2. mastery of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns ;
3. an acceptable degree of fluency ;
4. transactional and interpersonal skills ;
5. skills in taking short and long speaking turns ;
6. skills in the management of interaction ;
7. skills in negotiating meaning ;
8. conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers) ;
9. skills in knowing about and negotiating purposes for conversations ; and
10. using appropriate conversational formulae and fillers.

3. Oral Communicative Strategies

The main aim of learning a second language is the acquisition of the oral communicative competence and gets the ability to speak appropriately and fluently. However, learners may face many problems in communicating, so the best solution to overcome these problems of communication is through employing communicative strategies. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) define communicative strategies as « Speakers-oriented; that is they are used by learners to compensate for lack of L2 knowledge or their inability to access the L2 knowledge they have » (p.170-71).

Bygate (1987) classifies two main types of communicative strategies. First, achievement strategies which include: guessing strategies, paraphrase strategies and cooperative strategies. Second, reduction strategies which involve avoidance strategies.

3.1. Achievement Strategies

Learners adopt this strategy to compensate for language gap by using a substitute, in order to convey their message and carry on their communication. According to Bygate (1987) the achievement strategies involve the following sub-strategies.

3.1.1. Guessing Strategies

There are different types of guessing strategies, the learner can foreignize his mother tongue word and pronounce it as it belongs to the target language. For example a Frenchman who is speaking English and uses the word « manœuvre » as it is an English word ; Also, the speaker might use a word from his mother tongue without changing it in his speaking, e.g. an English speaker says « il ya deux candles sur la cheminée ». Another strategy can be used to coin a word when a learner creates a new target language word on the basis of his knowledge of the language like using: « air ball» for balloon (Bygate, 1987).

3.1.2. Paraphrase strategies

These strategies are used when the speaker is looking for an alternative term to a word or an expression that he wants to say. So he might use a synonym or a more general word to express his meaning, this is called a lexical substitution strategy. For example, a mixing of beige and brown: light brown (Bygate, 1987).

3.1.3. Co-operative Strategies

It is when the speaker asks for help from the interlocutors to find a word or to indicate an object in the target language through using it in the mother tongue so that the interlocutor helps him to find it (Bygate, 1987).

3.2. Reduction Strategies

It occurs when learners reduce their communicative aims through giving up a topic, skipping the intended message or even stop talking (Bygate, 1987).

3.2.1. Avoidance Strategies

The learners use such strategies to avoid different kind of problems and trouble they may face, by avoiding some sound sequence for example, « th » in English. They may avoid some verbs that are not sure about their tenses, or some expressions because of the lack of vocabulary. So by using that, learners avoid some of the message content, change it or choose to keep silent (Bygate, 1987).

4. Practising the Speaking Skill in the EFL Classroom

4.1. Speaking Difficulties in Foreign Language Learning

Practicing the productive skill of speaking in the target language is not an easy task, even for those who possess a considerable knowledge about the system of this FL. Most of EFL learners face some difficulties when practicing the speaking skill especially in front of their teachers and classmates. According to Ur (2000), there are crucial points that hinder the EFL learners from speaking fluently and accurately inside the classroom. Focusing mainly in this research on the learners' psychological factors.

4.1.1. Self-Confidence and Self-Esteem

When it comes to speaking learning process, self confidence becomes an important factor. An EFL learner with a good grammatical and vocabulary cognizance generally has a big confidence to express his ideas, suggestions or answers questions. A self-confident learner is a learner who would try out and perform his knowledge and what he has acquired in front of an audience, and doesn't fear negative evaluation and welcomes corrections. By contrast,

« reduced personality » would be developed as a result of lacking self-confidence or low level of self-esteem, to affect negatively their oral performance.

4.1.2. Inhibition and Risk-Taking

Inhibition is a negative force, at least for second language pronunciation performance. Such psychological factor refers to the feeling of shyness and fear of making mistakes, due to the ill development of communicative skills and a feeling of linguistic inferiority. Ur (2000) states that: « Learners are often inhibited about trying to say things in a foreign language in the classroom: worried about, making mistakes, fearful of criticism or loosing face, or simply shy of the attention that their speech attracts » (p.111). Inhibition is often considered to be a particular problem for adolescents, who are more self-conscious than younger learners. It has been suggested that inhibition discourages « risk-taking », which is necessary for progress in language learning in general and the speaking proficiency in particular.

4.1.3. Anxiety and Stress

Another important factor is the level of anxiety, which affects FL learners' performances. Scovel (1978) indicates that « anxiety is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry » (p.134). The fear of negative evaluation, leads L2 learners to avoid speaking and practicing the TL. As a result, proficiency does not develop and Performance deteriorates. The level of anxiety differs from one person to another. Some L2 learners experience a low level of anxiety: « *Facilitating anxiety* » which motivates them to cope with the task and it has a positive effect on performance. While others suffer from a high level of anxiety: « *Debilitating anxiety* ». This type of anxiety makes learners avoid the task and it has a negative effect on the oral performance. Therefore, the TL will be acquired better if learners have lower levels of anxiety (Saetan, 1991).

4.1.4. Mother Tongue Use

Apparently, L2 learners feel uncomfortable in their attempts to speak L2, thus, they use their native language because they feel more comfortable and less exposed to the TL. Causes which make the use of L1 inevitable include; the lack of sufficient vocabulary and the grammatical rules of the foreign language. These lead learners to borrow words and even rules and principles from their mother tongue. According to Baker and Westrup (2003) « barriers to learning can occur if students knowingly or unknowingly transfer the cultural rules from their mother tongue to a foreign language » (p.12). Consequently, learners will continue to be inaccurate since they remain affected by the use of their mother tongue.

4.1.5. Motivation and Attitudes

The commonly held-view is that learners' performance depends on their understanding and feelings. It is certainly the case that when learners have positive attitudes and they are highly motivated ; they speak because they have a desire and energy to be continually interested in the topic and have something new to say about it, or because they want contribution to achieve the task objectives. According to Gardner (1985) attitudes are a component of motivation, « which refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language » (p.10).

The individual's attitude towards the second language learning process is very important; the positive attitudes enhance learning. Brown (2000) concludes that « positive attitudes towards the self, the native language group, and the target language group enhanced proficiency » (p.181). By contrast, negative attitudes inhibit and impede the learning of that language. Actually, attitudes develop early and are influenced by many things, including parents, peers, and interactions with people who have social and cultural differences. When learners experience success, their positive attitudes are reinforced. Also, negative attitudes can

be modified by experience, and most importantly, through adopting effective language teaching strategies which encourage students to be more positive towards the language they are learning.

4. 2. Classroom Speaking Activities

Teachers can use a variety of activities for the students in order to provoke them to interact and speak with the target language. Hence many researchers diligent to provide foreign language teachers with different speaking activities. Thornbury (2005, p.26) suggests three stages in teaching the speaking skill. The first stage is awareness (i.e. students should be aware about the characteristic of the target language). The second stage is appropriation which means the combination of language characteristic into students' existing knowledge. The third one is autonomy (i.e. the ability of learners to use language on their own way). Thornbury (2008, p.41-111) also has established many activities for the stages previously mentioned in order to enhance learners speaking skill in the EFL classrooms.

4.2.1. Awareness

The awareness activities put emphasis on the characteristic of language, sociocultural rules, speech acts, feature of spoken grammar (repetition, ellipsis...etc.), vocabulary, lexical chunks, stress and intonation etc (Thornbury, 2005, p.26).

4.2.1.1. The Use of Records

Teachers should expose their learners to audio recorded materials or authentic conversations (that of native speakers), dialogues (radio, TV, tapes) in order to develop their awareness.

4.2.1.2. Live Listening

Students should listen to their teacher's speech or to another speakers, since this increases interactivity (i.e teacher speaking to his students can open a conversation and learners may react by asking questions and making comments).

4.2.1.3. Notice-The- Gap Activities

In these activities students are asked to perform an oral task, then, they listen to the original performance of that task, so that they notice their weakness and defects by themselves. The aim of this type of activities is to raise awareness of the difference between learners' competence and the target competence.

4.2.2. Appropriation

After being aware about the language features, students should appropriate this awareness in use. It offers learners the opportunity to make great control over their oral production.

4.2.2.1. Drilling and Chants Activities

Drilling means repetition of words, phrases or expression after hearing them in dialogues, records or conversations. Chants, in the other hand, are more entertaining and very helpful, by listening to songs or playing games students can pick up better many words and idiomatic expressions and remember them easily.

4.2.2.2. Milling Activities

In these activities, learners are asked to complete a survey with specific questions by collecting points of view of their classmates. These make the students use the TL widely.

4.2.2.3. Writing Activities

Writing has a significant role in teaching speaking. Teachers can use a variety of writing activities such as: dictation, paper conversation, computer-media chat and rewriting.

4.2.2.4. Reading Aloud Activities

Reading aloud is a useful technique for the appropriation of language and to teach the speaking skill as well. Moreover, during this type of activities the teacher can ask students to indicate the pauses, mark the stressed words, intonation and practicing reading the text as a basic purpose .

4.2.2.5. Dialogue Activities

According to Thornbury (2005), dialogues have a long history in language teaching and learning, since the language is dialogic in its use hence performing a dialogue can help students to learn vocabulary, grammatical structures and lexis...etc. There are many dialogue activities such as: item on board, disappearing dialogues and dialogue building (p.72).

4.2.3. Autonomy

Thornbury (2008) defines autonomy as being « the capacity to self-regulate performance as a consequence of gaining control over skills that were formally other-regulated » (p.90) .In other words, automacity is the ability of having control over skills and oral performance without other –regulation ,the following are the activities used to increase autonomy in learners.

4.2.3.1. Presentations and Talks

In this activity the teacher asks his learners to talk and give presentation in front of each others in order to engage them in real life communication, through using these words:

- « *Show and tell* »; Students are asked to talk about an object or describe a picture from their own choice, then, to answer their classmates' questions.
- « *Did you read about* »; Here the students are asked to speak about something they have read in newspapers or heard in radio or news, then, all the students give their comments and opinions about the subject.

4.2.3.2. Academic presentations

In this activity the teacher forms the students in pairs or groups and asks them to present an academic presentation. For instance, « language and gender » after that a discussion will take place.

4.2.3.3. Stories, Jokes and Anecdotes

Story telling activities have been used in teaching for a long time for its importance and role in giving the students the opportunity to practice their oral skills. Jokes and anecdotes have the same goals as well.

4.2.3.4. Role Play

Role play is a useful technique to get the learners involved in real life communication and motivate them to speak more. In addition, it reduces their fears and shyness because all the students would participate and work in groups for the roles that they choose by themselves. So this activity is very useful in developing the learners' speaking skills.

4.2.3.5. Discussion and Debate Activities

Discussions and debates are the most used activities in the EFL classrooms. In discussion, students feel free in giving their opinion without any control, the teacher here does not oblige them to speak or not. Students speak either about something personal or about the topic of the

course, book to raise discussion. This activity is very effective, in the sense that it helps learners to focus more on what they say rather than on how to say it (Thornbury, 2005, p.73).

4. 3. Teachers' Roles and Responsibilities during Speaking Activities

The role of teacher in the classroom is very significant and can affect the success of the teaching and learning process. His basic role is to create appropriate ways for the learning process and to get students motivated to perform in fluent manner, and creating interest in the topics. The role of the teacher may change according to the nature of the activity or the stage of the learning process. According to Harmer (2001) ;

Teachers use many metaphors to describe what they do. Sometimes they say are like actor « we are always on the stage »; others think they are like orchestral « because I direct conversation and set the place and tone » yet others like gardeners « because we plant the seeds and then watch them grow » (p.56).

Teachers should play such of different roles in teaching speaking. Harmer (2001, p.275-276) states the roles as follow:

4.3.1. Prompter: Students sometimes get lost, and lose the fluency the teacher expects from them, the teacher here leaves them to struggle out of situation on their own and rely on their knowledge without his help, he can only offer discrete suggestions (Harmer, 2001, p.275).

4.3.2. Participant: Teacher may want to participate in discussions or role play in order to help students get in the activity and create a comfortable atmosphere for learning. In addition to that, he can ensure the continuity of the activity. In this case the teacher should be careful of dominating the speech in the class (Harmer, 2001, p.276).

4.3.3. Feedback Provider : The teacher has to decide when and where to correct the students' production. He should know when it is appropriate to correct pronunciation, mistakes

or errors made by the learners, for example: he works seriously to give the correct pronunciation, form or meaning because the learners very often acquire these issues from their teachers. (Harmer, 2001, p.276).

Harmer (2001, p.104) claims that the teacher's feedback is helpful during the oral tasks, in which the teachers should react to their learners' performance in different way; it will depend on the lesson's stage, the activity and the type of mistakes made. So, he suggests two situations of feedback.

4.3.3.1. Feedback during Accuracy Work

Firstly, the teachers show to their students the committed mistakes, and then they give explanations about these mistakes. To provide the effective feedback, teachers should be aware of the different techniques of showing the correctness of the mistakes. When teachers point out to the mistakes which are considered as slips, learners are being expected to be able to correct themselves; whereas they are unable to correct their errors once the problem is embedded errors (Harmer, 2001, p.106). The alternative techniques of providing feedback are:

- **Showing Incorrectness**

It can be done by different ways:

- 1- Repeating: by asking students to repeat what they have said by saying *Again?* Which indicates that something is wrong.
- 2- Echoing: it is a precise way of pin-pointing an error through emphasizing the student's incorrect utterance; for example, through uttering the wrong part as questioning intonation.
- 3- Statement and question: by indicating or questioning part of the utterance to show that it is not correct.

- 4- Expression: by using the simple facial expressions and gestures to indicate how the utterance is worked, but it should done when the teacher knows his class well.
- 5- Hinting: it is a quick way of helping students by giving them a hint to the wrong part in order to apply the known rules.
- 6- Reformulating: correcting the learner's utterance through reformulating what he has said correctly. (Harmer, 2001, p.106-107).

- **Getting it Right**

If students do not respond to teacher's reformulation of what they said, the teacher should focus on the correct form in details through giving more information, explanations, or suggestion about the errors or through giving the general rule (Harmer, 2001, p.107).

4.3.3.2. Feedback During Fluency Work

It occurs when the teachers respond to the student's speaking in a fluency task; they do not focus only on the language performance, but also on how the learners behave in fluency activities in the future. It is better to be done after the task, not during it. But sometimes, the teacher should intervene during fluency task through different ways (Harmer, 2001, p.107):

- **Gentle Correction**

If the communication breaks down during fleuncy activity, the teacher should intervene in this situation to continue the communication, as (Harmer, 2001) suggests: "if our student cannot think of what to say, we may want to prompt them forward" (p.107).

Gentle correction can be in many ways, teachers may simply reformulate the learner's utterance to correct his errors, and they may hardly interrupt their learners' speech; furthermore, they may use some accuracy techniques of showing incorrectness among them echoing and expression. (Harmer, 2001, p. 107-108).

- **Recording Mistakes**

The teachers watch, observe, and listen to their learners' production in order to give them feedback; the latter can be positive as well as negative feedback. Another technique the teachers can undertake is to record the speaker mistakes.

Teachers should write down points they want to refer to them later using different forms like charts...etc, in order not to forget about them when providing feedback. To correct the speaker performance, teachers divide the students into four groups and ask each group to concentrate on recording the following aspects: pronunciation, grammatical rules, the use of phrases and vocabularies, and the facial expressions or physical gestures in order to engage all learners in the feedback (Harmer, 2001, p.108 -109).

- **After the Event**

Teachers give feedback after listening to their learners' performance through different ways:

- They can give assessment of an activity.
- They can ask their students about the difficulties they have found in their performance.
- They can write their learners most committed errors on the board, and then ask their learners if they recognize the problem and whether they can correct the mistakes.
- They can write both the correct and incorrect forms, and then ask their learners to decide which form is correct and which is not (Harmer, 2001, p.109).

Conclusion

To conclude, this chapter tackled the speaking skill process as an important process to evaluate the EFL learner's proficiency. As mentioned before, the speaking skill is different from the other language skills (listening, writing, and reading) and the most difficult among them. Therefore, light was shed on the importance of speaking, also the main challenges that face students while performing and the various oral communicative strategies adopted to overcome these speaking difficulties, in addition to some speaking activities to develop adequate oral communicative skills. Finally, illuminating the different teacher's roles as an important element in the process of teaching the speaking skill.

Chapter Three

Students' Questionnaire

Introduction

1. Students' Questionnaire

1.1. Population and Sampling

1.2. Description of the Questionnaire

1.3. Analysis of the Results

1.4. Interpretation of the Results

Conclusion

Introduction

The present conducted research is based mainly on finding out the relationship between both teacher's oral corrective feedback and the speaking skill among EFL students. To carry out this present research, a questionnaire is administered to the students at the Department of English University of Guelma. The participants' opinions and views are very significant and helpful in the current investigation. The students' questionnaire aims at investigating whether the learners are aware about the importance and the value of teacher's oral error correction in activating their speaking skill.

1. Students' Questionnaire

The students' questionnaire is one of the two data gathering tools used in this research. It aims at investigating the learners' attitudes towards the impact of the teachers' oral corrective feedback on their speaking skill.

1.1. Population and Sampling

The seventy (70) students who responded to the questionnaire were chosen randomly among the total number of the first year LMD students' population (290) at the University of Guelma. The selection of such sample was based on the consideration that it is the first year for students in the university, hence they are encouraged to speak more the FL in order to enhance both fluency and accuracy in the target language. As a result, they will commit many errors in their speaking that need teachers' corrective feedback.

1. 2. Description of the Questionnaire

This questionnaire consists of sixteen (16) questions which are divided into three sections. These questions are either closed questions ; requiring the students to answer by yes or no, or

open questions ; to pick up the appropriate answer from a number of choices or to write down full statements to specify their answers and justify them.

Section One: Learners' Background Knowledge

This section contains questions from (1) to (3) that were devoted to students' background information. Students were asked to specify their age, to mention the years spend in studying English and to evaluate their level in English as well.

Section Two: Learners' Speaking Skill and Errors

This section is consisted of (4) questions from (4) to (7). In question (4) students are asked about how often they speak English in the classroom setting. The next question (5) is about the students' most enjoyable classroom interaction type; whether to interact with their teacher or with their peers. In question (6) students were asked whether they find difficulties when speaking or not, if yes, they were required to choose the problems they frequently faced. The last question was devoted to know if students resent when making oral errors, and does committing errors make them doubt their level in English.

Section Three: Learners' Attitudes towards Teachers' Oral Corrective Feedback

It consists of nine questions; starting from question (8) to question number (16). Question (8) was designed to know how often the teachers correct the students' errors when they are speaking. In question (9), students were asked about the type of CF their teacher use and which from these types is the most preferable for them. In the next question (10), students were questioned about their uptakes after the teacher's correction. Question (11) was put to know the students' preferences concerning correction's choices, i.e. to be corrected by themselves, by their peers or their teachers. Question (12) was devoted to know whether the students resent from being corrected by the teacher or their peers. Regarding question (13), Stu-

dents were asked to choose the most preferred CF's timing; an immediate oral CF or a delayed one, and to justify their answer. Question (14) investigated the students' feeling when receiving the teacher's immediate oral CF. Question (15) was about the learners' immediate thinking after the teacher's oral corrective feedback. In the last question (16); students were asked about their views concerning the usefulness of the oral CF in improving their oral performance, if they say yes, to what extent.

1.3. Analysis of the Results

Section One : Learners' Background Knowledge

Q1. Age years ?

Table 04. *Students' Age.*

| Years | Number | Percentage |
|--------------|---------------|-------------------|
| 18 | 12 | 17,14% |
| 19 | 26 | 37,14% |
| 20 | 15 | 21,42% |
| 21 | 12 | 17,14% |
| 22 | 3 | 04,28% |
| 24 | 2 | 02,85% |
| Total | 70 | 100% |

The results in the above table, indicates a great diversity concerning the age of the students in the sample. The ages vary between (18) years old and (24) years old. The majority of the participants are (19) years old, and (21,42%) of them are (20) years old. There is a similar percentage (17,14%) of students who are either (18) years or (21) years old. The minority of the participants are more than (22) years old who are believed to be the older participants in the sample.

Q2. How long have you been learning English?

Table 05. *Students' Years of Learning English.*

| Years | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | Total |
|---------------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|--------------|
| Number | 14 | 41 | 8 | 7 | 70 |
| % | 20 | 58,57 | 11,42 | 10 | 100 |

The results in the table above show that (14) students represent (20%) have been studying English for seven years, and (41) students making up (58,57%) were studying English for eight years which is believed to be the normal years to reach their academic level. Whereas; (8) and (7) students making up (11,42%) and (10%) have been studying English for nine and ten years who are believed that they have repeated one or many years at least.

Q3. How could you describe your level in English?

- a. Very good
- b. Good
- c. Average
- d. Bad
- e. Very bad

Table 06. *Students' Evaluation of Their Level in English.*

| Options | Very good | Good | Average | Bad | Very bad | Total |
|----------------|------------------|-------------|----------------|------------|-----------------|--------------|
| Number | 6 | 38 | 21 | 5 | 0 | 70 |
| % | 8,37 | 54,28 | 30 | 7,14 | 0 | 100 |

The results above show that the highest percentage of students (54,28%) claim that their level in English is good. On the other hand, (30%) of the students say that their level is aver-

age. Others (8,37%) declare that they are very good in English. Finally, the least percentage (7,14%) indicates that the level of the rest of students is bad, whereas, no student say that their level in English is very bad.

Section two: Learner’s Speaking Skill and Errors

Q4. How often do you speak English in classroom?

- a. Never
- b. Rarely
- c. Sometimes
- d. Often

Table 07. *Frequency of Students’ Speaking English in Classroom.*

| Options | Never | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | No | Total |
|---------------|-------|--------|-----------|-------|------|---------------|
| | | | | | | answer |
| Number | 0 | 9 | 37 | 22 | 2 | 70 |
| % | 0 | 12,85 | 52,85 | 31,42 | 2,85 | 100 |

With regard to the results tabulated above, one can easily notice that most of the students (52.85%) practice « sometimes » the TL in the classroom, and 31.42% claim that they often do so. While the least percentage 12.85% indicates that they rarely speak in the classroom.

Q5. What type of classroom interaction do you enjoy more ?

- a. Teacher- Learner Interaction
- b. Learner- Learner Interaction

Table 08. *The Most Enjoyed Types of Classroom Interaction.*

| Options | Teacher-Learner Interaction | Learner-Learner Intraction | No No | Total |
|---------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------|---------------|
| | | | | answer |
| Number | 54 | 14 | 9 | 70 |
| % | 77,14 | 20 | 12,85 | 100 |

Regarding students' answers; the highest percentage (77,14%) is devoted to teacher-learner interaction, to denote that the majority of the learners enjoy this type of classroom oral interaction more. While (20%) of the students find interaction with their peers more enjoyable. The others (12,85%) did not answer this question.

Q6. A. Do you find difficulties when you are speaking?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Table 09. *Students' Difficulties in Speaking*

| Options | Yes | No | Total |
|----------------|------------|-----------|--------------|
| Number | 40 | 30 | 70 |
| % | 57,14 | 42,85 | 100 |

The results indicate that, the majority (40) of the students said that they find difficulties when they are speaking, whereas the remaining (30) students said « no », they do not find any speaking difficulties.

Q6. B. If yes, what are the speaking problems you most face? Are they;

- a. Mispronunciation problems
- b. Problems in grammatical rules
- c. Vocabulary problems
- d. Mother tongue use

Students who answer with « yes » were asked to state the speaking problems they most face, the results are as following:

(22) students choose both mispronunciation problems and problems in grammatical rules. Whereas; (10) students state that problems in grammatical rules and vocabulary are the most

frequently faced. The remaining (8) students say that their most speaking difficulty is the use of the mother tongue.

Q7. A. Do you resent when you make oral errors?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Table 10. *Students' Resentment when Making Errors*

| Options | Yes | No | No answer | Total |
|----------------|------------|-----------|------------------|--------------|
| Number | 40 | 25 | 5 | 70 |
| % | 57,14 | 35,71 | 7,14 | 100 |

One can easily notice throughout the results shown above that; (57,14%) of students resent when they make oral errors, however, (35,71%) of them say that they do not feel so. The remaining (7,14%) do not answer at all.

Q7. B. Does making oral errors make you doubt your level in English?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Table 11. *Oral Errors as a Reason of Students' Doubt their Level in English*

| Options | Yes | No | No Answer | Total |
|----------------|------------|-----------|------------------|--------------|
| Number | 32 | 35 | 3 | 70 |
| % | 45,71 | 50 | 4,28 | 100 |

through the answers above that, (35) students state that making oral errors does not make them doubt their level in English. Contrariwise, (32) students answer by « yes », and the rest of students (3) do not respond on this question.

Section Three : Teachers' Corrective Feedback and Learners' Attitudes

Q 8. How often does your teacher correct your errors when you are speaking?

- a. Often
- b. Sometimes
- c. Rarely
- d. Never

Table 12. *Frequency of Teacher's Oral Error Correction of Students*

| Options | Often | Sometimes | Rarely | Never | Total |
|---------|-------|-----------|--------|-------|------------|
| Number | 7 | 33 | 25 | 5 | 70 |
| % | 10 | 47,14 | 35,71 | 7,14 | 100 |

(47,14%) of the students state that their teachers correct their oral errors sometimes, while (10%) of the students indicate that they often do so. Others (35,71%) state that teachers rarely correct their errors. The remaining students (7,14%) respond that their teachers never do so.

Q 9. A. When your teacher gives you corrective feedback, does he:

- a. Tell you about your mistakes (explicit feedback)
- b. Reformulate what you said correctly (implicit feedback).

Table 13. *Types of Oral Corrective Feedback Used by the Teacher*

| Options | Explicit Feedback | Implicit Feedback | Explicit +Implicit | No Answer | Total |
|---------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------|------------|
| Number | 26 | 36 | 6 | 2 | 70 |
| % | 37,14 | 51,42 | 8,57 | 2,85 | 100 |

The answers tabulated above reveal that (26) students say that their teachers give them explicit CF (i.e. directly indicate their errors). Whereas, the majority of students (36) claim that

their teachers use the implicit one (i.e. indirect CF). Others, six students, state that their teachers use both types of CF (explicit and implicit oral corrective feedback), while the remaining (2 students) do not provide any answer.

Q 9. B. Which corrective feedback strategy you prefer more?

- a. Explicit feedback
- b. Implicit Feedback

Table 14. *Students' Most Preferred CF Strategy*

| Options | Explicit FB | Implicit FB | No Answer | Total |
|----------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------|--------------|
| Number | 39 | 30 | 1 | 70 |
| % | 55,71 | 42,85 | 1,42 | 100 |

The aim of this question is to know the students' most preferred corrective feedback strategy; either the explicit or the implicit one. The majority of the participants (39), making up (55,71%), state that they prefer the explicit CF. On the other hand, (30) students, which represent (42,85%), choose the implicit CF strategy, and only one student do not respond on this question.

Q 10. After being provided with Teacher's CF, do you usually:

- a. Produce an utterance with repair of error (i.e. Uptake with repair.)
- b. Produce an utterance still in need of repair (i.e. Needs-repair uptake.)

Table 15. *Students' Response after the Teacher's CF*

| Options | Uptake with repair | Needs-repair uptake | No Answer | Total |
|----------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|------------------|--------------|
| Number | 46 | 14 | 10 | 70 |
| % | 65,71 | 20 | 14,28 | 100 |

The most shared answer among students (65,71%) is that, after being provided with the teacher's oral CF, they produce a correct utterance i.e. an uptake with repair. However, the others (20%) say that they do not produce a correct utterance but rather a needs-repair uptake after being provided with the teacher's correction. The remaining, 10 students, give no answer.

Q11. Do you prefer more to be corrected by?

- a. Yourself (Self- correction)
- b. Your classmates (Peer- correction)
- d. Your teacher (Teacher- correction)

Table 16. *Students' Choices of Correction*

| Options | Self- correction | Peer- correc- tion | Teacher- cor- rection | Total |
|---------|------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|------------|
| Number | 16 | 8 | 46 | 70 |
| % | 22,85 | 11,42 | 65,71 | 100 |

The collected answers revealed that the majority of the students (46), making up (65,71%), declare that they prefer the teacher-correction, while (16) of them which represent (22,85%) say that they prefer self-correction. The rest; (8) students, i.e. the least percentage (11,42%) choose peer-correction.

Q12. Do you resent from being orally corrected by the teacher or your peers in the class-room?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Table 17. *Students' Resentment from Being Orally Corrected by Teacher or Peers*

| Options | Yes | No | Total |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|
| Number | 43 | 27 | 70 |
| % | 61,42 | 38,57 | 100 |

The results above show that, the majority of the students (43) say “yes” they resent from being orally corrected by their teacher or their peers. Whereas the rest, (27) students, declare that they do not feel so.

Q13. When you make errors during the classroom interaction, do you prefer?

- a. An immediate oral corrective feedback at the same moment of making the error, during the interaction.
- b. A delayed oral corrective feedback; the correction would be given after the task has been completed

Table 18. *Students’ Preferences Concerning CF’s Timing*

| Options | Online CF | Offline CF | No Answer | Total |
|----------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|--------------|
| Number | 47 | 20 | 3 | 70 |
| % | 67,14 | 28,57 | 4,28 | 100 |

Throughout the results gathered, it is observed that, the highest percentage (67,14%) of students prefer online corrective feedback, whereas, the least percentage (28,57%) of them choose offline CF. The remaining (4,28%) of the sample do not provide any answer.

Justification of students’ answers:

For those who prefer “online corrective feedback”, their justification is nearly the same; it is more desired in order to know the erroneous utterance instantly, so that they can correct and memorize the correct form rapidly, hence they will not produce the same error. However, those students who choose “offline corrective feedback”, their justification varies; some say the delayed correction gives them the chance to detect their errors in addition to giving them the opportunity to self-correct. Others declare that it is better since it does not interrupt the flow of their ideas and disturb them, because this makes them loose their concentration and self-confidence as well.

Q14. How do you feel when the teacher immediately corrects your oral errors?

- a. Anxious
- b. Embarrassed
- c. Disturbed
- d. Uninterested
- e. Satisfied

Table 19. *Students' Emotional Response towards Teacher's Immediate Oral CF*

| Options | Anxious | Embarrassed | Disturbed | Uninterested | Satisfied | Total |
|----------------|----------------|--------------------|------------------|---------------------|------------------|--------------|
| Number | 03 | 07 | 16 | 05 | 39 | 70 |
| % | 4,28 | 10 | 22,85 | 7,14 | 55,71 | 100 |

It is noticed from the table above that the majority of the participants (39) declare that they feel satisfied towards teacher's immediate oral CF. Whereas (16) students feel disturbed, and (7) students state that they feel embarrassed. (5) students feel uninterested, and the rest (3) feel anxious after their teacher's instant oral correction.

Q 15. What do you think immediately after the teacher's corrective feedback?

- a. You wish that you had not spoken at all.
- b. You think about the reasons why you make the error.
- c. You suppose that the teacher is not patient enough to wait for you till the end of your oral performance.
- d. You just listen, and decide to do not speak anymore

Table 20. *Students' Immediate Thinking after Teacher's CF*

| Options | a | b | c | D | No An- swer | Total |
|----------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|------------------------|--------------|
| Number | 10 | 52 | 7 | 0 | 1 | 70 |
| % | 14,28 | 74,28 | 10 | 0 | 1,42 | 100 |

The results above show what the students think immediately after the teacher’s error correction. As a result; the majority (52) of students, making up (74,28%); say that they think about the reasons behind making the error, while others (14,28%) state that they wish that they had not spoken at all. (7) students answer that the teacher is not patient enough to wait for them till the end of their oral performance. However, none of the students choose the last option, and (7) students do not answer at all.

Q16. A. Do you think that oral CF helps you to improve your oral performance?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Table 21. *Students’ Opinions about the Usefulness of Teacher’s CF*

| Options | Yes | No | No Answer | Total |
|----------------|------------|-----------|------------------|--------------|
| Number | 62 | 6 | 2 | 70 |
| % | 88,57 | 8,57 | 2,85 | 100 |

This question is designed to know the students’ views regarding the effectiveness of the teacher’s oral corrective feedback in enhancing their oral performance. So; the majority (62) of the students making up (88,57%) assume that CF is useful. Contrariwise, only (6) students who represent (8,57%) say “No”, i.e. they see that it is not useful for improving the speaking skill. The rest (2) students do not answer.

B. If yes, to what extent does the teacher’s oral CF improve your speaking skill?

1 **2** **3** **4** **5** **6** **7**

Table 22. *The Degree Of Teacher's Oral CF Usefulness*

| Options | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Total |
|----------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|
| Number | 8 | 20 | 14 | 9 | 5 | 4 | 2 | 62 |
| % | 11,42 | 28,57 | 20 | 12,85 | 7,14 | 5,71 | 2,85 | 100 |

According to the data collected above, the highest percentage (28,57%) of the sample see that the oral corrective feedback is useful to a second degree. Whereas, (11,42%) of the students see that it is very useful and they choose the first degree. Others (20%) pick out the third degree of usefulness, while (12,85%) state that the teacher's CF is useful to the fourth degree. Whereas, other students (7,14%) opt the fifth degree, and the rest of students see that CF is not useful at all.

1.4. Interpretation of the Results

Based on the data gathered and analyzed from the students' questionnaire above, some facts were revealed concerning the students' attitudes towards the role of teachers' oral corrective feedback in improving the EFL learners' speaking skill.

First of all, in section one which is devoted to students' background knowledge, the results reveal that; (Q1) the largest part of students are in the age of 19 years and 20 years old, which is the normal age of first year LMD students. Q2 is about the students' years in learning the English language; (8 years) gained the highest percentage (58,57%) in the sample, which are believed to be the normal years to reach the expected academic level. The results of the third question show that the level of the students in English is between average and good, with (54,28%) for good and (30%) for average, which means that the participants have a reliable level that is beneficial for the present study.

Moreover, in section two which is devoted to learners' speaking skill and errors, starting by Q4 which has been designed to know the frequency of the students' speaking in the class. (52,88%) say that they speak sometimes, and (31,42%) say often, from the results it is seen that the majority of students are practicing the TL in the classroom setting. Most students (54) state that they enjoy more teacher-learner interaction. This reveals that, they have a good relationship with their teachers and have no obstacles in interacting with them. In Q6 most of the students (57,14%) find difficulties in speaking, because they are first year students and do not have enough knowledge about the target language, so they are not skilled yet, thus committing errors is a natural part in the learning process. In the second part of this question, learners are asked to select the speaking problems they most face; mispronunciation problems and problems in grammatical rules gain the biggest part with (22) students. This might be due to the fact that learning a foreign language is not an easy task, students face unfamiliar words, and also new grammatical rules which differ from that of the mother tongue. The majority of the students (40), making up (57,14%), agree that making oral errors makes them resent. The fact is that; the students consider making the oral errors a failure in learning and it may affect their accuracy and fluency as well. The second part of Q7 is designed to know if students doubt their level when making oral errors or no. Half of the sample (50%) responds by "No" and this can be interpreted as those learners are self-confident students and their level cannot be affected by this.

Finally, coming to the last section which is about the teachers' oral corrective feedback and the learners' attitudes. Regarding the results obtained concerning Q8 which is about the frequency of the teacher's correction of the students' errors when they are speaking, a high percentage (47,14%) of students say "sometimes", and (35,71%) say "rarely", this means that the teachers are aware about when to use the oral CF. Because too much interruption for correction, may affect the students' fluency and sometimes they take decision not to speak again.

More than half of the students (36) say that their teachers use the implicit feedback, i.e. give them corrective feedback indirectly. It might be for many reasons; for instance to avoid the students' interruption, give them the opportunity to correct their own errors...etc. Concerning the other part of the question which is devoted to know the students' most preferred strategy; the highest percentage (55,71%) prefer the explicit feedback, this may be due to the reason that they want to know their error, and to be corrected by the teacher, in this way they acquire more easily the TL rule. On the basis of the students' answers concerning Q10, (65,71%) of them state that; they produce an utterance with repair of the error (uptake with repair), after being provided with the teacher's oral CF. This shows clearly the effectiveness of the oral corrective feedback provided by the teacher. In Q11, the highest percentage (65,71%) of students declare that they prefer (teacher-correction) more than the other choices. The fact that; they trust more their teachers' knowledge, since the latter is considered as the only TL information source in the classroom. Many Students (61,42%) resent from being orally corrected by the teacher or their peers, as it is shown in Q12. In this case the teacher should take into consideration the learners' individual differences and their emotional side, before deciding about the choice of corrector. A considerable percentage of students (67,14%) in Q13 state that they prefer an immediate oral corrective feedback at the same moment of making the error "online CF". Their justifications are almost the same; for example to know the erroneous utterance instantly, so that correct it, hence never repeat the error again, this result could reveal that those students are extroverted and have no problem in being interrupted for error correction. Thus, the teacher plays an important role in choosing the right timing of CF, taking into consideration his learners' characteristics. Regarding the results gathered from Q14 which is about the learners' feelings towards the teacher's immediate CF, (22,85%) of the students say "disturbed". It is clear that they are from the students who prefer a delayed CF. Whereas the majority (55,71%) feel "satisfied" as a clear result of those who like more the

immediate CF. Question (15), before the last, recorded (74,28%) as the biggest percentage in this sample in which students state that after the teacher's corrective feedback ,they immediately think about the reasons behind making the error. This mainly indicates that the majority of the learners pay attention to their teachers' CF and show interest in this latter. The fact that it makes them think about their errors, this another time indicates the importance and the effectiveness of the teacher's oral corrective feedback. Coming to the last question (16) which is divided into two parts. The first part is designed to know the students' view about the oral CF as a useful way to improve their oral performance, as a result, most students (88,57%) agree on the usefulness of the teacher's oral corrective feedback in enhancing the speaking skill. Regarding the second part; students who say "yes" were asked indicate to what extent the teacher's CF improve their speaking skill. Their answers go more to the second degree with (28,57%) and the third with (20%). This mainly shows that the first year EFL learners consider the teacher's oral corrective feedback to be very useful, and this is the main focus in this investigation.

Conclusion

To sum up, based on the current research findings in learners' questionnaire, it is revealed that the learners agree about the effectiveness of the teacher's oral corrective feedback on their speaking skill. Teachers' oral CF primarily provide the learners with the opportunity to receive comprehensible input and feedback, and functions as a cure and a vital element in reducing speaking problems, so that it increases the pace of the EFL students' oral proficiency.

Chapter Four:

Teachers' Questionnaire

Introduction

1. Teachers' Questionnaire
 - 1.1. Population and Sampling
 - 1.2. Description of the Questionnaire
 - 1.3. Analysis of the Results
 - 1.4. Interpretation of the Results
2. Answers to The Research Questions
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Conclusion

Introduction

The present chapter aims at investigating the teachers' attitudes toward applying the oral corrective feedback as a pedagogical strategy to enhance the learners' speaking skill, in addition to their views concerning the learners' speaking problems and the linguistic errors they make during the oral performance, and about their attitudes towards the oral corrective feedback and its influence on the learners' oral production. Throughout this chapter, the data collected from the administered teachers' questionnaire will be analysed and interpreted.

1. Teachers' Questionnaire

Teachers' questionnaire is an instrument or a data gathering tool used in this research in order to collect information about the effect of the oral corrective feedback on the development of the learners' oral proficiency. It is designed in an attempt to answer the research questions and to fulfill the research aims.

1.1. Population and Sampling

The participants in the questionnaire were forty (40) EFL teachers from the Department of English Language, University of Guelma. However, only twenty five (25) questionnaires were answered back. Teachers involved in this investigation have a significant teaching experience. Also, the selection of such sample was based on the consideration that the majority of the instructors teach first year EF Learners (i.e. related to the sample of the students' questionnaire). Furthermore, since they teach students how to develop the oral speaking skill, their answers will be beneficial and confidential.

1.2. Description of the Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire consists of fifteen (15) questions, which comprises of two types of questions ; closed questions where teachers are requested to choose the appropriate

answer from the suggested choices, and open questions ; requiring from the teachers to make a full statement suggesting other alternatives or justifying their answers. The questionnaire is divided into four main sections, where one of them concerns teachers' background information, while the other three categories cover the different perspectives of the speaking skill, linguistic errors and the oral corrective feedback as well.

Section One: Teachers' Background Knowledge

This section is dedicated to obtain general background information about the participant teachers in the study. The instructors are asked in question one (Q1) about the highest educational qualification held. Question two (Q2) is designed regarding the teachers' years of teaching experience.

Section Two: Learners' Speaking Skill and Errors

The second section is devised to investigate the teachers' attitudes towards the learners' speaking skill and the linguistic errors they make during the oral classroom interaction, as well as, their reactions to these errors. First of all, teachers are asked in question three (Q3) about their primary focus while managing the classroom speaking tasks ; if they focus more on teacher- learner interaction or learner- learner interaction. Then, in question four (Q4) and (5), respondents are asked about the kinds of errors students make more while practicing the TL, and whether they correct these errors when the students are speaking or not. Teachers are also asked about the errors they focus more on, and if there are times when they choose not to correct the committed errors, justifying when is that and why.

Section Three: Teachers' Corrective Feedback

This section, from question six (Q6) to question fifteen (Q15), is designed to scrutinize the teachers' knowledge concerning the provision of the oral corrective feedback. First, question

six (Q6) concerns how often teachers provide students oral CF during the speaking tasks. In question seven (Q7), instructors are asked about the ways in which oral CF is given, whether they use implicit or explicit CF. The objective of question eight (Q8) is to investigate the teachers' preferences concerning the different CF strategies, then, teachers are asked to explain whether they think that the CF strategies that they use most frequently are more effective, with a justification. Question nine (Q9) concerns the students' uptake following their CF, whether it is a needs-repair uptake or an uptake with repair. Moreover, tutors are inquired in question ten (Q10) about reinforcing the learners' repaired utterances. Question eleven (Q11) is designed to get the teachers' opinions regarding who should perform correction in the classroom setting ; self-correction, peer-correction or teacher-correction. The following question (Q12) regards the timing of CF ; whether the instructors immediately respond to the learners' errors during the oral interaction (i.e. online CF) or the correction is delayed (offline CF), with justification. Then, question thirteen (Q13) aims to examine the EFL teachers' considerations when providing the oral corrective feedback. In addition, question fourteen (Q14) is designed to get information about the teachers' opinions regarding the provision of the oral CF, and to what extent they consider it useful in improving the learners' oral performance. In the last question of this section (Q15), instructors are asked whether they agree that the employment of the different CF strategies has a negative impact on the development of the learners' speaking ability, in the sense that learners may stop speaking in order to avoid being corrected by others.

Section Four: Suggestions and Comments

In the last section, teachers were asked to give more suggestions and comments about the topic under investigation, in order to collect more explanations about the effect of the oral corrective feedback on the learners' speaking skill.

1.3. Analysis of the Results

1.3.1. Section One : Teachers' Background Knowledge

Q1. What is the highest educational qualification held ?

- a. BA (Licence)
- b. MA (Master/ Magister)
- c. Ph.D. (Doctorate)

Table 23. *Teachers' Degrees*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| a | 0 | 0% |
| B | 24 | 96% |
| C | 1 | 4% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

One can notice from the results shown above that the majority of teachers (96%) have MA (Magister) degree, however, Only one teacher (4%) has a Ph.D. degree (Doctorate).

Q2. How long have you been teaching English?

Table 24. *Teaching Experience of Instructors.*

| Years | Number | Percentage |
|--------------|---------------|-------------------|
| 1-5 | 10 | 40% |
| 5-10 | 12 | 48% |
| 15-20 | 2 | 08% |
| 25-30 | 1 | 04% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

From the results, it can be easily deduced that fifteen teachers (15) have a long teaching experience, since they have spent from five to thirty (5-30) years in this profession. Whereas, ten (10) teachers have a short experience in teaching.

1.3.2. Section Two : Learners' Speaking Skill and Errors

Q3. How do you manage a speaking task? Focusing more on;

- a. Teacher- Learner Interaction
- b. Learner- Learner Interaction

Table 25. *Teachers' Management of Speaking Tasks.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| A | 19 | 76% |
| B | 4 | 16% |
| a + b | 2 | 08% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

The results gained indicate that nineteen (19) teachers state that their main focus in the management of speaking tasks is teacher- learner interaction. On the other hand, four (4) teachers have chosen option « b » to denote that they focus more on applying learner- learner interaction when they teach the oral skills, and only two teachers state that they focus on both types of classroom oral interaction.

Q4. What kind of errors do students make more?

- a. Grammatical errors
- b. Morphosyntactic errors
- c. Phonological errors
- d. Lexical errors
- e. Semantic and Pragmatic errors
- f. Unsolicited uses of L1

Table 26. *Kinds of Learners' Errors.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| a | 24 | 96% |
| b | 6 | 24% |
| c | 11 | 44% |
| d | 10 | 40% |
| e | 7 | 28% |
| f | 9 | 36% |

Regarding teachers' answers, about 96% of learners' errors are grammatical ones, followed by phonological errors (44%), lexical errors (40%), then, unsolicited uses of L1 (36%). However, they stated that the remaining two options (e and b) represent the least percentages describing kinds of errors made by the learners; semantic and pragmatic errors represent 28%, and only 24% are morphosyntactic errors.

Q5. a. Do you correct students' errors when they are speaking?

a. Yes

b. No

Table 27. *Teachers' Corrections of Students' Errors.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| a | 23 | 92% |
| b | 2 | 08% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

The table above illustrates that the majority of teachers, twenty three out of twenty five (92%), claim that they always correct the students' errors when they are speaking. Whereas, the remaining two respondents (08%) state that they do not correct the learners' errors during their speaking tasks.

b. If so, which errors you focus on?

The majority of respondents who opted the first choice (69.56%) said that they tend to focus more on grammatical errors; while (39.13%) of teachers focus on errors related to phonology and pronunciation which would lead to misunderstanding. Only two teachers focus on errors which result from interference of mother tongue (08.70%), and other three instructors (13.04%) correct lexical errors. Only one teacher focuses on errors related to vocabulary (04.35%), semantic (04.35%) and morphosyntactic errors (04.35%), and two teachers said they correct all types of learners' errors (08.70%).

c. Are there times when you choose not to correct errors? When is that and why?

Instructors indicate that they choose not to correct the learners' errors when the main objective is communication, in other words, when the focus is on content to give learners the chance to express their ideas and opinions... i.e. when the idea is more important than the speech. Also, teachers avoid overcorrection to reduce the emotional pressure learners may suffer from and to use the TL without being interrupted, embarrassed or disrupting the flow of the discussion and the learners' ideas. Moreover, when the errors do not interfere with the meaning of the message. Furthermore, teachers sometimes find CF a time-consuming task and it hinders the lessons' process. In addition to its negative impact on the development of the learners' speaking skill, in the sense that it functions as an affective psychological factor. Then, at the end teachers approve the students' ideas and correct their errors when they are done expressing their ideas.

1.3.3. Section Three : Teachers' Corrective Feedback

Q6. How often do you give your students corrective feedback during their speaking tasks?

Table 28. *Teachers' Frequency of Corrective Feedback Provision during Speaking Tasks.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|------------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Always | 5 | 20% |
| Usually | 9 | 36% |
| Often | 4 | 16% |
| Sometimes | 7 | 28% |
| Rarely | 0 | 0% |
| Never | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

A clear majority of teachers (36%) claim that they usually give their students corrective feedback during their speaking tasks. In addition, (28%) of teachers state they sometimes provide CF. On the other hand, only five teachers (20%) opted “always” and the remaining respondents (4/ 16%) said that they “often” provide CF during the learners' speaking tasks.

Q7. How do you usually correct the learners' errors?

- a. Implicitly (you try to draw the learner's attention to the error without informing him directly).
- b. Explicitly (you draw the learner's attention to the error made overtly).

Table 29. *Types of CF Adopted by Teachers.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| a | 10 | 40% |
| b | 13 | 52% |
| a + b | 02 | 08% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

While thirteen teachers (52%) use explicit corrective feedback strategies with their students, i.e. they draw the learner's attention to the error made overtly, ten (10) teachers state that they apply implicit strategies when they give their students corrective feedback; that is to say, they try to draw the learner's attention to the error without informing him directly (40%). Only two teachers (08%), state that they use both forms of error correction strategies.

Q8. a. Please, take the time you need to read carefully the following six different types of corrective feedback and their description in the table below, which is a FB type scheme done by Ellis (2009). Then, write down the numbers from 1 to 6 according to the CF you usually prefer to use in the classroom. The most frequently (1) to the least frequently (6).

| <i>CF Strategy</i> | <i>Description</i> | <i>Example</i> | <i>Frequency</i> |
|--|---|--|------------------|
| Recast (explicit) | The corrector incorporates the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect utterance and changes and corrects the utterance in some way (e.g. phonological, syntactic, morphological or lexical) | L: I went there two times. T: You've been. You've been there twice as a group? | |
| Repetition (implicit) | The corrector repeats the learner utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress. | L: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you. L: I'll show you. | |
| Clarification request (implicit) | The corrector indicates that he/she has not understood what the learner said. | L: What do you spend with your wife? T: What? | |
| Explicit correction (explicit) | The corrector indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error and provides the correction. | L: On May. T: Not on May, In May. We say, "It will start in May." | |
| Elicitation (implicit) | The corrector repeats part of the learner utterance but not the erroneous part and uses rising intonation to signal the learner should complete it. | L: I'll come if it will not rain. T: I'll come if it? | |
| Paralinguistic signal (implicit) | The corrector uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error. | L: Yesterday I go cinema. T: (gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past) | |

Table 30. Teachers' Preferences of Corrective Feedback Strategies.

| CF Strategy | Frequency | | | | | | | | | | | | Total |
|------------------------------|-----------|-----|---|-----|---|-----|---|-----|---|-----|---|-----|-------|
| | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | | |
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | |
| Recast | 4 | 16% | 2 | 08% | 3 | 12% | 7 | 28% | 7 | 28% | 2 | 08% | 25 |
| Repetition | 9 | 36% | 3 | 12% | 4 | 16% | 2 | 08% | 3 | 12% | 4 | 16% | 25 |
| Clarification Request | 5 | 20% | 2 | 08% | 5 | 20% | 4 | 16% | 4 | 16% | 5 | 20% | 25 |
| Explicit Correction | 9 | 36% | 1 | 04% | 1 | 04% | 3 | 12% | 4 | 16% | 7 | 28% | 25 |
| Elicitation | 2 | 08% | 9 | 36% | 8 | 32% | 2 | 08% | 1 | 04% | 3 | 12% | 25 |
| Paralinguistic Signal | 3 | 12% | 8 | 32% | 5 | 20% | 4 | 16% | 4 | 16% | 1 | 04% | 25 |

The teachers' answers tabulated above reveal that the highest percentage (36%) concerning the most frequently used CF strategy is devoted for both « repetition » and « explicit correction » which were selected by nine (9) teachers for each CF strategy. Whilst on the contrary, seven (7) teachers declare that the least frequently CF type used is « explicit correction » with a percentage of about 28%.

b. Do you think that the CF strategies that you use most frequently are more effective? Please, justify your answer ?

Teachers who selected « repetition » as their most frequently adopted CF strategy, explain that they think it is more effective since it involves the learner in the correction of their own errors and it gives him the opportunity to self-correct, as a result, the learner gets maintained in the learning process. Repetition raises the learners' awareness towards their errors to avoid repeating them, improves their level, and enhances their oral proficiency. Inasmuch as repetition is an implicit CF strategy, it considers the learners' personalities, feelings and emotions. On the other hand, the nine (9) teachers who state that explicit CF is their preferable strategy, justified their choice as being more beneficial because it explains the rule

briefly and makes learners know the correct form directly and easily. So, the students' utterances do not need a repair another time and they will use them in future time correctly

Q9. After giving the corrective feedback, most of students uptake is :

- a. Needs-repair uptake (i.e. an uptake that produces an utterance still in need of repair.)
- b. Uptake with repair (i.e. an uptake that produces an utterance with repair of the error which was the focus of the teacher's feedback.)

Table 31. *The Nature of Learners' Uptake Following the Teachers' CF.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| a | 4 | 16% |
| b | 19 | 76% |
| a + b | 2 | 08% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

The participants' answers show that 76% from the sample (19 teachers) demonstrate that most of the students' uptake following their corrective feedback is a successful one i.e. an uptake with repair, in which the students repair the error which was the main focus of the teachers' FB. In the other side, four teachers (16%) indicate that the nature of the students' uptake after providing the CF is a needs-repair uptake, in other words, the students produce utterances still in need of repair. And just two teachers (08%) point out that both types of learners' uptake are experienced in the classroom environment following their CF strategies.

Q10. Do you use reinforcement statements following the learners' repaired utterances ?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Table 32. *Teachers' Reinforcement of Learners' Repaired Utterances.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| a | 23 | 92% |
| b | 2 | 08% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

This table identifies that most of the teachers (92%) declare that they tend to afford learners sufficient reinforcement statements to approve their repaired utterances. Whereas the remaining ones (08%) mention that they do not use any reinforcement statements following the learners' successful uptakes.

Q11. Who should perform the correction in the classroom setting ?

- a. The learner himself (self-correction)
- b. Another learner (peer-correction)
- c. The Teacher (teacher-correction)

Table 33. *Teachers' Choice of Corrector.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|------------------|---------------|-------------------|
| a | 04 | 16% |
| b | 02 | 08% |
| c | 05 | 20% |
| a + c | 09 | 36% |
| b + c | 01 | 04% |
| a + b + c | 04 | 16% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

The above results show that the respondents had multiple choices to answer the question regarding the choice of corrector in the classroom setting. According to the teachers' views; 36 % of the teachers declared that the best choice is the learner himself as well as the teacher, and another 20 percent of the teachers said that they prefer the teacher to perform the

correction; 16% of instructors stated that they prefer self-correction, other 16% indicated that it's better to involve all the participants in the correction process (the learner himself, another learner and the teacher as well). While 08% of teachers opted the second choice devoted to peer-correction. Another 04% of the whole sample (one teacher) said that s/he apply both peer- and teacher-correction.

Q 12. When should learners' errors be corrected ?

- a. Online CF (immediate feedback at the same moment of making the error, during the interaction)
- b. Offline CF (feedback is given after a task has been completed i.e. the correction is delayed)

Table 34. *Teachers' Preferences Concerning the Timing of CF.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| A | 12 | 48% |
| B | 7 | 28% |
| a + b | 6 | 24% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

Regarding the question when to correct, it can be easily noticed that the highest percentage of teachers (48 %) claim that they use immediate FB at the same moment of making the error during the students' oral interaction. In contrast, seven (7) teachers believe that CF should be delayed and given after the speaking task has been completed; "offline CF". In addition to a closest percentage (24%) which shows that six (6) teachers use both timings for correcting the learners' errors.

Please, justify your answer ?

On the one hand, eleven teachers out of twelve (44%) explained that online CF is better because:

- Immediate FB draws the learner's attention to the error made directly.
- It involves a simultaneous contrast between the error and the correct form.
- It makes the learner remember and memories the correction.
- Online FB is more useful as the learner is still interested in the interaction, because delayed feedback may lead the student to forget that he made an error, even the teacher may forget the learners' error to be corrected

On the other hand, the seven teachers (24%) who opted offline CF justified their choice as follows:

- Offline CF does not interrupt the speaking activity or the oral interaction.
- It gives learners a stressless atmosphere to practice the target language.
- Delayed correction leads to a better understanding of the error.
- Online CF confuses the learner, makes him anxious and stressed, and as a result it hinders communication, and stops the learners' flow of ideas.

The remaining six teachers (24%) explained that they adopt both options to correct the learners' errors because:

- Both timings are effective and it just depends on the situation or the error's context to decide which time is the appropriate one to provide the correction.
- It depends on the nature of the course as well as the learner's profile i.e. learner's type of personality.

Q13. What do you take into consideration when providing oral CF ?

The most shared answers between the majority of teachers (96%) regarding this question are that they tend to take into consideration:

- The learner’s level; to decide what to correct for instance serious errors.
- The language i.e. the simplicity of explanation; correcting the error and providing examples to understand the oral FB.
- The appropriate time; to avoid interrupting the oral interaction.
- The appropriate atmosphere and the context in which learners are engaged in.
- The learners’ psychology, personality and emotional aspect; the ability to accept the FB and to avoid embarrassing them.
- Using CF strategies that provide learners opportunities to self-correct the error, or ones that push peer-correction, and only teacher intervention when necessary.

Only one teacher (04%) did not answer this question.

Q14. To what extent is the provision of teachers’ oral CF useful in affecting the EFL learners’ speaking skill ?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
useful _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ **useless**

Table 35. *Teachers’ Opinions Regarding The Usefulness of Oral CF in Improving the Learners’ Oral Performance.*

| Option | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Total |
|-------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|
| Number | 14 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 25 |
| Percentage | 56% | 16% | 12% | 04% | 04% | 04% | 04% | 100% |

The vast majority of teachers (12) claim that the provision of oral CF is useful to the first degree in affecting positively the EFL learners' speaking skill. And (4) teachers chose option "2", "3" teachers selected the number three to indicate the usefulness of CF. Whereas the grades "4", "5", "6" and "7" were opted by only one teacher for each grade.

Q15. Do you agree that the use of different CF strategies has a negative impact on the development of learners' speaking skill (learners may stop speaking in order to avoid being corrected by the others)?

Table 36. *Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Responses Regarding the CF's Negative Impact on The Learners' Speaking Skill.*

| Option | Number | Percentage |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Totally agree | 5 | 20% |
| Partially agree | 5 | 20% |
| Agree | 3 | 12% |
| Neither agree nor disagree | 2 | 08% |
| Partially disagree | 4 | 16% |
| Disagree | 5 | 20% |
| Totally disagree | 1 | 04% |
| Total | 25 | 100% |

The table above illustrates that five teachers (5) totally agree that the use of CF has a negative impact on the development of learners' speaking skill. The same percentage (20%) partially agree too, and three teachers (12%) agree that providing CF hinders the development of the learners' speaking skill. Contrastively, five other teachers (20%) disagree, and other four teachers (16%) partially disagree. In addition, only one teacher (04%) totally disagree. The remaining two teachers (08%) are neutral and they choose the option "neither agree nor disagree".

1.3.4. Section Four : Suggestions and Comments

Only eleven (11) respondents out of the whole sample (25) answered this part. Instructors in this section tried to highlight the importance of the oral CF in SLA in general, and in the learners' speaking skill in particular. Also, teachers debated key issues regarding the oral CF provision; as what errors to correct, the appropriate CF strategy (implicit or explicit), the proper timing for correction (immediate or delayed), and the effective techniques that allow time and opportunity for repair as well as the choice of corrector. Teachers emphasized that they should take into consideration the students' personalities (extroverts and introverts), feelings and motivation. For this reason they should take into account the learners' individual differences, in other words, the EFL teacher should be flexible and above all patient, cheerful, kind and severe at the same with the learners' errors. Two teachers in this part highlighted the importance of the errors as being a natural and a common characteristic in the process of FL learning. In addition, two other teachers shed light on the affective damage oral CF can cause among L2 learners in the classroom setting like embarrassment, anger, inhibition, anxiety and feelings of inferiority and, consequently, its negative impact on the learning process.

1.4. Interpretation of the Results

The first section contains factual questions concerning the teachers' backgrounds. Question one, regarding the highest educational qualification obtained, reveals that most of the instructors (24) have MA (Magister) and only one who has Ph.D. (Doctorate), this mainly means that the teachers of Guelma University are highly educated and teaching EFL is of great importance. The answers of Q2, regarding the teaching experience, impart that more than half of the instructors (60%) are experienced ones who have worked as teachers between five to thirty (5-30) years. They have numerous experiences of teaching English as well as working in this current University. So that, their responses will be beneficial and confidential.

In the classroom oral interaction, the vast majority of teachers (76%) indicate that their primary focus while managing the classroom speaking tasks is teacher- learner interaction, this may be due to their attempts to encourage and make their students speak, to present new language, to evaluate and correct the learners' performances as well. However, (16%) of the teachers state that they focus more on learner- learner interaction, because it may provide their students more opportunities for authentic communication using the TL. Also, to fuel learners' motivation, to improve peer relationship and to develop the skills of team-work in order to create a collaborative learning atmosphere in the classroom setting through interaction between learners to work together. On the other hand, only two teachers (08%) declare that they emphasize both types of classroom oral interaction. This may be because they prefer to differ their teaching methods to make classes more dynamic, energetic and interactive and also to adopt different roles in the speaking activities.

Concerning the learners' practice of the speaking skill and their linguistic errors, almost all the teachers (96%) state that the common type of errors students make more when they are orally performing are grammatical errors. This may be due to the teachers' experience in teaching EFL during which they experienced that the biggest learning difficulty learners suffer from is related to the TL grammar.

With regard to the question whether the teachers correct the learners' errors when they are speaking or not, the results show that the majority of participants, twenty three out of twenty five (92%), claim that they try to correct the students' errors; this mainly means that teachers are aware of the students' needs in order to be exposed to the correct form of the TL, and they try to improve their speaking proficiency as well as to encourage them to learn more about the FL. 08% of the respondents declare that they do not try to correct students' errors during their oral communication, which may lead them to repeat the same error each time because they may not be able to distinguish between the wrong and the correct forms, or they may think

that what they have performed is correct since they did not receive any sort of error correction. Teachers tend to focus more on grammatical errors since they are the biggest problem language learners encounter when they are speaking. In addition to errors related to phonology and pronunciation which may lead to misunderstanding or affect the meaning of the message being communicated, also, errors that are frequently repeated. In this case, teachers seem to be aware of the major speaking difficulties and language problems learners undergo in order to be overcome. At the same time, the instructors point out that there are times, in which they choose not to correct the learners' errors, especially when the primary instructional objective is communication, because correcting those errors hinders the oral communication or the oral interaction. In other words; teachers claim that CF is better delayed for some time to give learners more freedom to express their ideas, points of view, opinions... Also, to create a less stressed atmosphere for learners to practice the TL without interrupting the flow of classroom discourse and the learners' chain of ideas, inhibiting the learners' participation or embarrassing them, particularly, when these errors do not interfere with the exact meaning of the message or the information conveyed. This principally means that teachers are flexible regarding the learners' errors and sensitive to the learners as well ; they tend to take into consideration the learners' emotional aspect as well as giving them chances to ameliorate their oral communicative competence, and only intervening and helping when necessary at the appropriate time.

Teachers confirm that they give students CF during their speaking tasks (Q6) to varying frequencies. The high percentage (36%) is devoted to the second option which states that teachers usually provide CF to their students. Besides, seven teachers (28%) state that they sometimes give FB. Further, five teachers (20%) opted the first answer "always" to specify their frequency of CF provision. The last percentage (16%) indicates that four respondents "often" provide CF during the learners' speaking tasks. On the other hand, neither "rarely"

nor “never” is selected, to infer that the EFL teachers recognize the importance of the oral CF in improving the learners’ oral proficiency. Moreover, they are aware of the students’ errors and they provide them the adequate error correction strategy with sufficient explanation or proper example in the appropriate time. Thirteen teachers (52%) support giving explicit CF, this may be because learners should identify the linguistic error which was made through direct indication in addition to knowing the correct form. A less percentage 40% is devoted for the teachers’ corrections through giving CF implicitly. This may be due to the teachers’ attempts to attract the learners’ attention to the error without interrupting the flow of interaction. Furthermore, to encourage and facilitate self- and peer-repair, in order to involve learners in the correction of their errors to enable them better remind the correct language items. The lowest percentage 08% is devoted to teachers’ corrections both implicitly and explicitly. In other words; through providing the correct form and through showing the error because these two forms of correction are appropriate to make students learn from their errors. Also this signifies that these two teachers are flexible ones while reacting to the learners’ errors. That is; they vary the way they correct and they adapt flexibly a wide variety of CF strategies to the individual learner.

According to teachers’ answers, regarding the most frequently used CF strategies, reveal that the highest percentage (36%) is dedicated for both « repetition » and « explicit correction » which were selected by nine (9) teachers for each CF strategy. Actually, this question reports conflicting outcomes; first, teachers who opted « explicit correction » (direct FB) as their most frequently adopted strategy, for the reason that it clearly points out the error, it involves a brief explanation of the rule and eventually it provides the correction. Also, it diminishes confusion, misunderstanding or the difficulty to remember the meaning of error codes used by teachers. Therefore, this type is more helpful for learners in order to acquire the correct forms more effectively. Second, teachers who state that « repetition » is their

preferable strategy, on the basis that it is more effective than explicit CF, because it just provides an indication that an error occurred, unlike the explicit CF, it does not provide the correct form. This means it gives learners the opportunity to self-correct, so it requires learners to enter into the learning process through problem-solving. As a result, this leads to a long-term acquisition to avoid repeating those errors. Consequently ; their oral performance is improved. Furthermore, it is better as learners' emotions are not affected because it considers the learners' personalities, attitudes and styles. In addition, communication is not inhibited as it let students speak to enhance their fluency. Contrariwise, the common shared CF strategy as the least frequently used one is « explicit correction » (28%) which was opted by seven (7) instructors. This mainly means that the EFL teachers are aware of the negative effect of the explicit correction strategy as embarrassing learners, demotivating them, frustrating, hurting their feelings, causing anger, inhibition, anxiety and even feelings of inferiority, undermining their self-confidence and damaging their self-esteem too.

The vast majority of teachers (76%) agree that most of the students' uptake after providing the oral CF is an uptake with repair; they do not repeat the same error but rather they repair the error when they receive a kind of correction on it. This signifies that the provided CF is functional and received effectively as well. This also indicates that learners show acceptance to the teachers' CF as they correct their errors, and they have positive attitudes towards that, besides they are aware of its importance. Moreover, they benefit from the FB process. On the other hand, 16% from the sample show that the learners' uptake following their oral CF is a needs-repair uptake, in which students repeat the same corrected error or produce another one. This may be due to the teachers' way of providing the oral CF, the ambiguity of the oral CF statements, or due to the learners' lack of attention and concentration. In order to emphasize the correct responses the learners uttered in response to the teacher's CF, to encourage the learners, to enhance the development of L2 competence and support L2 learning, almost all

the teachers (92%) use post-repair reinforcement expressions and statements. This mainly proves that the teachers are fully conscious of the significance of reinforcement.

Second language teachers in Guelma University harmonize in opinion concerning the selection of the best participant in the correction process as being performed by the learner himself and the teacher (36 %). This may be due to the teachers' full knowledge of the importance of motivating the language learner to play an active role in the correction process. To be involved in the errors' correction for a better learning, and to be given the opportunity to self-correct since they prefer to do so. But if the learner is not able to self-repair the error, the EFL teachers eventually provide the correction to facilitate its acquisition and prevent mistaking those errors as correct L2 forms. Also, they are not going to internalize them into their interlanguage system, besides, language fossilization can be easily prevented. To provide such error correction, nearly half of the instructors (48 %) insist on using online CF. This shows that the teachers are aware of the appropriate time of correction. In addition, they recognize the importance of online FB and its immediate impact on the learners' speaking skill.

Most of the EFL teachers at Guelma University (96%) claim that; in the oral CF provision, they take into consideration various aspects such as; the learner's level as well as the learner's psychology, the simplicity of the oral CF language, the appropriate time and atmosphere, and also; the employment of CF types that allow sufficient time for the learner to self-repair the error. This mainly signifies that these teachers are knowledgeable of the key effectual aspects for an effective provision of CF. Furthermore; the vast majority of teachers (12) agree that the provision of oral CF is useful in affecting positively the EFL learners' speaking skill. This means that, a regular CF provision leads to achieve speaking automaticity that is free from errors, since the EFL teachers give oral feedback to their learners. So that, learners recognize the gap or the difference between their interlanguage system and the TL. At the same time,

the EFL teachers point out that the use of the oral CF has a negative impact on the development of the learners' speaking skill. So, this entails that teachers know that CF can only be used to a limited extent. Because overcorrection may lead students to stop speaking in order to avoid being corrected by the others. In this case, teachers are aware of the advantages and disadvantages of the oral corrective feedback provision.

2. Answers to The Research Questions

The present study has shown the status of teaching the speaking skill among first year LMD students of English. It has highlighted the implementation of the oral CF by teachers when teaching English in this subject area in order to improve the learners' oral proficiency.

Accordingly, this dissertation has tried to answer the following research questions:

1. Does teacher's corrective feedback have a positive effect in improving learners' speaking skill?
2. What are the types of corrective feedback that are commonly used in the English classroom ?
3. Which type of corrective feedback has a better effect on the improvement of the speaking skill?
4. When is it more appropriate to give oral corrective feedbacks ?

The questions are answered as follows:

1. The teachers' oral corrective feedback has a positive effect in improving the learners' speaking skill. Because it is considered by both teachers and their learners to be a key factor that improves the learners' oral engagement in the oral classroom interaction to continue working on these speaking tasks. At the same time, the oral CF enables the

EFL learners to detect the erroneous points on their oral productions to be repaired instantly, and then, to perform accurately.

2. The oral CF strategies that are commonly used in the English classroom are « repetition » and « explicit correction ». EFL Teachers use repetition, an implicit CF strategy, with more introvert learners to avoid affecting negatively their learning process. Whereas the explicit correction as a direct FB is most frequently used with extrovert and self-confident students, since they don't fear of negative evaluation and welcome the others' corrections.
3. The type of the oral CF that has a better effect on the improvement of the learners' speaking skill is « the explicit FB ». Because this type of oral feedback overtly indicates that an error occurred, identifies directly the error in order to draw the learner's attention to it, and finally provides the correction. In this case, it reduces confusion, misunderstanding or the difficulty to remember what has been said. So that, it makes learners recognize their linguistic errors easily, as well as to acquire the correct forms more effectively.
4. The best timing to provide the oral corrective feedback is immediately; « online corrective feedback », at the same moment of making the error during the oral interaction. Because it provides a simultaneous contrast between the wrong and the correct forms of the TL. Also, it is more appreciated for its immediate impact on the learners' speaking skill.

3. Suggestions and Recommendations

In the light of the results of the present study, the following recommendations are made:

- Speaking instruction should be offered more attention, time and efforts in the EFL classroom to develop this main language skill and its sub-skills.

- Learners need to be encouraged to produce the TL and also they should be given enough opportunities to practice the speaking skill on a daily basis in the EFL classes.
- Students should become the centre of the learning process and also the speaking tasks. Hence, teachers have to focus more on learner- learner interaction. In this way, learners can become more independent and more involved in learning the speaking skill. This requires an inevitable change in teacher's role from an « authority figure » (in teacher- learner interaction) to a « facilitator of learning ».
- Teachers should pay more attention to the learners' errors and the inappropriate linguistic resources in order to be repaired and fixed up through the different types of error correction strategies.
- EFL teachers are advised to implement oral CF in teaching speaking to their learners, taking into consideration that students should focus on accuracy in initial stages, and then focusing on fluency during performing the speaking tasks.
- Teachers should be prepared to correct linguistic errors as well as to avoid error correction depending on courses' instructional objectives and considering the situational context.
- Teachers have to determine the learners' attitudes towards their oral CF, also to estimate and negotiate with them the worth of the oral CF.
- Teachers with L2 learners in early stages of language learning need to use more explicit error correction techniques.
- Teachers are recommended to employ more implicit types of oral CF with advanced students and L2 proficient learners, since these are more appropriate for them.
- Teachers need to be able to apply more implicit oral CF to correct learners' errors. Since it seems more desirable as learners do not feel any "direct criticism" from the correction provided and, accordingly, their emotions are not so seriously affected.

- Teachers should vary the participant in the correction process (self-, peer- and teacher-correction).
- Teachers have to focus on the learner since it's important to give him the opportunity to self-repair. Teachers have to give enough time and provide appropriate cues for the learner to process the information and self-correct. Finally, the least effective CF strategy to correct the learners' erroneous utterances is to give them the correction.
- Teachers should be flexible and vary the way they correct the oral errors. That is; adopting a variety of oral CF strategies according to the individual learner. Since the oral CF on errors must take account of learners' cognitive and affective needs.
- Teachers should make sure that their oral CF is clear and apparent to the learners in order to be fully understood and to benefit from this CF.
- Teachers have to ascertain both immediate and delayed oral CF, to decide the most appropriate timing of the oral CF according to the particular learner.
- Supportive reinforcement should be offered in the CF process, not only to emphasize the learners' repaired utterances but also to encourage them and consequently increase their motivation and involvement in speaking and learning the FL as well.
- Teachers need to investigate the potential affective damage oral CF can cause among L2 learners. The fact is that, CF can only be used to a limited extent to avoid its negative aspects and disadvantages.
- EFL Teachers should know when and how to correct errors and, above all, they should consider the learners' sensitiveness and personality. In other words; they should be much more concerned with learners' feelings and emotions when being orally corrected.

Conclusion

In analyzing data pertaining to teachers' oral CF in language teaching and learning, roughly all the participants in this study, consider oral corrective feedback an inevitable part of English language learning. Moreover, they argue that it is the first and most important pedagogical strategy to enhance the learners' speaking skill. According to teachers' teaching experience ; learners perform poorly on speaking tasks and they make linguistic errors, especially grammatical errors, and oral CF on their erroneous performances is valuable to promote learners' uptake with repair, to continue L2 acquisition in general, and to develop the speaking skill in particular.

General Conclusion

Teachers' oral corrective feedback in English language teaching and learning is considered to be an issue that numerous research studies had tackled and dealt with, but many questions still remain unanswered and just a little is known and understood regarding how the teachers' oral CF assists EFL learners' speaking skill. EFL students at Guelma University claimed having many speaking difficulties during classroom oral interaction, and the teachers' provision of oral CF on these inadequate oral productions is the appropriate simultaneous remedy. It provides the students with a comprehensible and a correct input which helps them to understand the spoken language accurately and then to use it appropriately for a better oral performance. Moreover, it enables them to realise their weaknesses in the FL to be overcome.

Throughout this present study, the main aim is to investigate the effect of the teachers' oral corrective feedback in enhancing the EFL learners' speaking skill. The foregoing discussion results in that the majority of the students sometimes practice the TL in the classroom setting (52.88%), but they encounter a lot of speaking problems (57%) as making errors when they are speaking. Therefore, their teachers undertake the oral CF as a tool to correct these errors (47.14%), as well as to improve their oral performance ; and the evidence is that they produce more uptake with repair (65.71%). Furthermore ; the provided oral CF should meet some features to be effective, in other words ; it should be immediate at the same moment of making the error. Also, it should meet the learners preferable type and way of presenting it. For instance it should be stated clearly « explicit correction » (55.71%), and the learners should not take it into consideration as an offending factor, but rather as a motivator for L2 learning. In general, oral CF evidently has a great impact on learners' development and on the ability to speak an L2.

In order to ensure that the teachers' oral CF is effective in enhancing the learners' speaking skill, another questionnaire was administered to the EFL teachers. The results of this questionnaire indicate that the majority of EFL teachers (76%) focus more on teacher- learner interaction to get involved whenever the learners err, to immediately give them the appropriate oral CF strategy during the oral interaction « online CF » ; in order to improve their oral performance and their communicative competence as well. This is confirmed by the results obtained concerning the nature of the learners' uptake following their oral CF as being an uptake with repair (76%). All in all, the analysis of the administered teachers' questionnaire, indicates that the oral corrective feedback is the most appropriate pedagogical strategy which EFL learners really need to ameliorate their oral proficiency in the FL.

Interestingly, a comparison of students' vs. teachers' responses shows that both teachers and their students share the same preferences, beliefs and attitudes towards the provision of the oral CF ; they appreciate it and do really consider it as an important part in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Both teachers and their students believe that oral CF has an effect on all aspects of students' English acquisition and the development of the language skills, particularly on the learners' speaking skill and their communicative competence. So, the earlier stated hypothesis was successfully confirmed.

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Appendices

Appendix One

Students' Questionnaire

University of 8 May 1945- Guelma-
Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of English language



MASTER DISSERTATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear students;

This questionnaire is designed to investigate **The Effect of Teacher’s Corrective Feedback on the Learners’ Speaking Skill**. We would appreciate your collaboration if you could answer the following questions.

BAHLOUL Khaoula

DAMDOUM F.Zahra

Please, use a cross (x) to indicate your chosen option in the appropriate box (es) or make a full statement when necessary.

May we thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Section One : Learners’ Background Knowledge

1. Age : Years.
2. How long have you been learning English?

.....

3. How could you describe your level in English?

- | | |
|--------------|--------------------------|
| a. Very good | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b. Good | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c. Average | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d. Bad | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b. Very bad | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Section Two: *Learners' Speaking Skill and Errors*

4. How often do you speak English in the classroom?
- a. Never
 - b. Rarely
 - c. Sometimes
 - d. Often
5. What type of classroom interaction do you enjoy more?
- a. Teacher- Learner Interaction
 - b. Learner- Learner Interaction
6. a. Do you find difficulties when you are speaking?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
- b. If yes, what are the speaking problems you most face? Are they;
- a. Mispronunciation problems
 - b. Problems in grammatical rules
 - c. Vocabulary problems
 - d. Mother tongue use
7. a. Do you resent when you make oral errors?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
- b. Does making oral errors make you doubt your level in English?
- a. Yes
 - b. No

Section Two: *Teachers' Corrective Feedback and Learners' Attitudes*

8. How often does your teacher correct your errors when you are speaking?
- a. Often
 - b. Sometimes
 - c. Rarely
 - d. Never

9. a. When your teacher gives you corrective feedback, does he;

a. Tell you about your mistakes (explicit feedback)

b. Reformulate what you said correctly (implicit feedback)

b. Which corrective feedback strategy you prefer more?

a. Explicit feedback

b. Implicit Feedback

10. After being provided with Teacher's CF, do you usually:

a. Produce an utterance with repair of error (i.e. Uptake with repair.)

b. Produce an utterance still in need of repair (i.e. Needs-repair uptake.)

11. Do you prefer more to be corrected by:

a. Yourself (Self- correction)

b. Your classmates (peer- correction)

d. Your teacher (Teacher- correction)

12. Do you resent from being orally corrected by the teacher or your peers in the classroom?

a. Yes

b. No

13. When you make errors during the classroom interaction, do you prefer?

a. An immediate oral corrective feedback at the same moment of making the error, during the interaction

b. A delayed oral corrective feedback; the correction would be given after the task has been completed

Please, justify your answer?

.....

.....

.....

.....

14. How do you feel when the teacher immediately corrects your oral errors?

- | | | | |
|----------------|----------------------|-----------------|----------------------|
| a. Anxious | <input type="text"/> | d. Uninterested | <input type="text"/> |
| b. Embarrassed | <input type="text"/> | e. Satisfied | <input type="text"/> |
| c. Disturbed | <input type="text"/> | | |

15. What do you think immediately after the teacher's corrective feedback?

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| a. You wish that you had not spoken at all. | <input type="text"/> |
| b. You think about the reasons why you make the error. | <input type="text"/> |
| c. You suppose that the teacher is not patient enough to wait for you till the end of your oral performance. | <input type="text"/> |
| d. You just listen, and decide to do not speak anymore. | <input type="text"/> |

16. a. Do you think that oral CF helps you to improve your oral performance?

- | | |
|--------|----------------------|
| a. Yes | <input type="text"/> |
| b. No | <input type="text"/> |

b. If yes, to what extent does the teacher's oral CF improve your speaking skill?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7



Thank You For Your Collaboration



Appendix Two
Teachers' Questionnaire

University of 8 May 1945- Guelma
Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages
Department of English language



MASTER DISSERTATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear teachers,

You are kindly requested to answer the following questionnaire, which is a part of the Master's degree dissertation. We are carrying out an investigation about **The Effect of Teacher's Corrective Feedback on the Learners' Speaking Skill**. We would be thankful if you could answer it with the maximum objectivity, since your answers will be confidential and very significant for the validity of the research we are undertaking. As such, we hope that you will give us your full attention and interest.

BAHLOUL Khaoula

DAMDOUM F. Zahra

Please, use a cross (x) in the appropriate box (es) to specify your chosen answer or make a full statement (s) where the gaps provided.

May I Thank you, in advance, for your collaboration.

Section One : Teachers' Background Knowledge

1. What is the highest educational qualification held ?

a. BA (Licence)

b. MA (Master/ Magister)

c. Ph.D. (Doctorate)

2. How long have you been teaching English ?

.....

Section Two : *Learners' Speaking Skill and Errors*

3. How do you manage a speaking task ? focusing more on ;

a. Teacher- Learner Interaction

b. Learner- Learner Interaction

4. What kind of errors do students make more ?

a. Grammatical errors

b. Morphosyntactic errors

c. Phonological errors

d. Lexical errors

e. Semantic and Pragmatic errors

f. Unsolicited uses of L1

5. a. Do you correct students' errors when they are speaking ?

a. Yes

b. No

b. If so, which errors you focus on ?

.....

c. Are there times when you choose not to correct errors ? When is that and why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

Section Three : *Teachers' Corrective Feedback*

6. How often do you give your students corrective feedback during their speaking tasks ?

| | |
|-----------|----------------------|
| Always | <input type="text"/> |
| Usually | <input type="text"/> |
| Often | <input type="text"/> |
| Sometimes | <input type="text"/> |
| Rarely | <input type="text"/> |
| Never | <input type="text"/> |

7. How do you usually correct the learners' errors ?

a. Implicitly (you try to draw the learner's attention to the error without informing him directly)

b. Explicitly (you draw the learner's attention to the error made overtly)

8. a. Please, take the time you need to read carefully the following six different types of corrective feedback and their description in the table below, which is a FB type scheme done by Ellis (2009). Then, write down the numbers from 1 to 6 according to the CF you usually prefer to use in the classroom. The most frequently (1) to the least frequently (6).

| <i>CF Strategy</i> | <i>Description</i> | <i>Example</i> | <i>Frequency</i> |
|--|---|--|------------------|
| Recast (explicit) | The corrector incorporates the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect utterance and changes and corrects the utterance in some way (e.g. phonological, syntactic, morphological or lexical) | L: I went there two times. T: You've been. You've been there twice as a group? | |
| Repetition (implicit) | The corrector repeats the learner utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress. | L: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you. L: I'll show you. | |
| Clarification request (implicit) | The corrector indicates that he/she has not understood what the learner said. | L: What do you spend with your wife? T: What? | |
| Explicit correction (explicit) | The corrector indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error and provides the correction. | L: On May. T: Not on May, In May. We say, "It will start in May." | |
| Elicitation (implicit) | The corrector repeats part of the learner utterance but not the erroneous part and uses rising intonation to signal the learner should complete it. | L: I'll come if it will not rain. T: I'll come if it? | |
| Paralinguistic signal (implicit) | The corrector uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error. | L: Yesterday I go cinema. T: (gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past) | |

b. Do you think that the CF strategies that you use most frequently are more effective? Please, justify your answer ?

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9. After giving the corrective feedback, most of students uptake is :
- a. Needs-repair uptake (i.e. an uptake that produces an utterance still in need of repair.)
 - b. Uptake with repair (i.e. an uptake that produces an utterance with repair of the error which was the focus of the teacher's feedback.)
10. Do you use reinforcement statements following the learners' repaired utterances ?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
11. Who should perform the correction in the classroom setting ?
- a. The learner himself (self-correction)
 - b. Another learner (peer-correction)
 - c. The Teacher (teacher-correction)
12. When should learners' errors be corrected ?
- a. Online CF (immediate feedback at the same moment of making the error, during the interaction)
 - b. Offline CF (feedback is given after a task has been completed i.e. the correction is delayed)

Please, justify your answer ?

.....

.....

.....

.....

13. What do you take into consideration when providing oral CF ?

.....

.....

.....

.....

14. To what extent is the provision of teachers' oral CF useful in affecting the EFL learners' speaking skill ?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
useful _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ **useless**

Only one more page !

15. Do you agree that the use of different CF strategies has a negative impact on the development of learners' speaking skill (learners may stop speaking in order to avoid being corrected by the others)?

| | |
|----------------------------|--|
| Totally agree | |
| Partially agree | |
| Agree | |
| Neither agree nor disagree | |
| Partially disagree | |
| Disagree | |
| Totally disagree | |

Section Four : *Suggestions and Comments*

We welcome your suggestions and comments. If you have any additions, please, write them down in the space provided.

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Thank you for your help!

ملخص البحث

الهدف من هذه المذكرة هو التعريف بدور رد الفعل التصحيحي للأستاذ في تحسين المهارة اللغوية و كفاءة التواصل للطلاب. المشكلة الرئيسية وراء هذا العمل هو أن معظم الأساتذة يسعون لتقديم التصحيح الشفهي لطلبتهم دون وعي مسبق بأثره الإيجابي أو السلبي على مهاراتهم الشفوية. لإجراء هذا البحث واثبات فرضيته التالية : "إذا تم منح التصحيح الشفهي للطلاب من طرف الأستاذ, فإن هذا من شأنه أن يعزز مهاراتهم الشفوية". تم اعتماد طريقة البحث النوعي, في هذه الدراسة وإستعمال إستبيانين كوسيلة لجمع المعلومات , تم توزيع أحدهما على الأساتذة والآخر على طلبة السنة الأولى بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة 8 ماي 1945 قالمة , و هذا لمعرفة و إستكشاف آراء و سلوكيات الطلبة و الأساتذة فيما يخص المهارة اللغوية ورد فعل الأستاذ التصحيحي الشفهي. أظهرت النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها, أن رد الفعل التصحيحي الشفهي هو وسيلة بيداغوجية فعالة لتحسين الأداء اللغوي, و أن كل من الأساتذة و الطلبة على وعي بمدى نجاعة التصحيح الشفهي للأستاذ. على ضوء هذه النتائج تم إثبات الفرضية السابقة الذكر على أن تحسين المهارة اللغوية يجب أن يترافق مع رد الفعل التصحيحي, كتقنية أولى للمساعدة في الحد من الأخطاء اللفظية . في الأخير أقترح بعض التوصيات في هذه الدراسة لمساعدة الأساتذة في كيفية تعليم مهارة التحدث للطلبة و تزويدهم بتصحيح شفهي فعال.

Résumé

L'objectif de cette thèse est d'identifier le rôle de rétroaction corrective orale des enseignants dans l'amélioration des compétences des étudiants de langue et de leurs compétences communicatives. Le problème principal dans ce travail est que la plupart des enseignants donnent une rétroaction corrective à leurs apprenants mais sans savoir si ça peut influencer sur les compétences langagières des étudiants de façon positive ou négative. Afin de réaliser cette recherche et de confirmer l'hypothèse suivante: « Si les étudiants reçoivent une rétroaction corrective orale par l'enseignant, alors ce si peut leurs donner et offrir des moyens qui renforcent leurs habilités langagières ». Pour cela on a adopté une méthode qualitative où deux questionnaires sont réalisés comme un outil de données, un des deux est destiné aux enseignants et l'autre aux étudiants de 1 ère année Anglais de l'Université de Guelma, afin d'identifier et d'explorer les attitudes des enseignants et des étudiants concernant les compétences langagières et la rétroaction corrective orale. Les résultats obtenus expliquent et signifient que la rétroaction corrective orale des enseignants est un moyen pédagogique très efficace pour l'amélioration des compétences langagières des étudiants, et montrent aussi que les enseignants et les étudiants sont conscients sur le rôle efficace de la rétroaction orale de l'enseignant. On se basant sur ces résultats, on a confirmé donc l'hypothèse déjà citée qui explique que pour une meilleure amélioration des compétences langagières il faut que celle ci doit être accompagnée d'une rétroaction corrective orale comme une première technique d'aide aux étudiants pour éviter les fautes de communication orale. À la fin, dans cette étude on a proposé quelques consignes dont le but est d'aider les enseignants dans leurs façons d'enseigner les compétences orales aux étudiants pour être douer à bien communiquer on leurs donnant des rétroactions correctives orales bien efficaces.