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Treatment of Error in Developing Speaking Skills

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Z á s a d y p r o v y p r a c o v á n í :

Studentka se bude ve své bakalářské práci zabývat otázkami práce s chybou ve výuce mluvení. V teoretické části práce nejprve definuje komunikativní kompetenci jako cíl cizojazyčné výuky a zaměří se na její rozvoj v ústním projevu prostřednictvím různých typů aktivit. Studentka dále prezentuje typologii chyb v angličtině a způsoby práce s nimi v aktivitách cílených na rozvoj plynulosti či přesnosti mluveného projevu. V praktické části práce studentka realizuje sérii observací ve výuce angličtiny s cílem zjistit, jak učitelé pracují s rozdílnými typy chyb a jak žáci na tyto intervence reagují.

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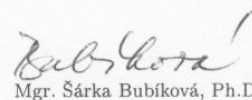
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Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní Knihovně.

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Abstract:

This thesis deals with the issue of error treatment during classroom speaking activities. The theoretical part aims to find out whether, which, when, how, and by whom learner errors should be corrected, which is based on the attitude of professionals. The aim of the practical part is to find out how teachers treat different types of errors in spoken language and how learners react to different types of error treatment. The practical part is based on a research conducted in educational institutions.

Key words: error treatment, error, speaking, speaking skills, classroom speaking activities, learner preferences

Abstrakt:

Tato práce se zabývá tématem práce s chybou ve výuce mluvení. Cílem teoretické části je zjistit zda, které, kdy, jak a kým by měly chyby být opravovány, což je založeno na názoru odborníků. Cílem praktické části je zjistit jak učitelé pracují s různými typy chyb v mluveném projevu a jak žáci reagují na různé způsoby práce s chybou. Praktická část je založena na výzkumu provedeném ve vzdělávacích institucích.

Klíčová slova: práce s chybou, chyba, mluvení, řečová dovednost mluvení, aktivity na rozvoj mluvení, preference žáků

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1. INTRODUCTION

This thesis deals with the issue of error treatment during classroom speaking activities. The theoretical part aims to find out whether, which, when, how, and by whom learner errors should be corrected, which is based on the attitude of professionals. First, the role of learner errors is presented in historical perspective, especially in relation to the notion of communicative competence. Speaking and its specifics are described in the next section. Then there are presented different error types and their treatment in activities aimed at development of the speaking skill and in connection with this is discussed correction priority and types of feedback. The related issue of motivation and anxiety concludes the theoretical part.

The aim of the practical part is to find out how teachers treat different types of errors in spoken language and how learners react to different types of error treatment. This is based on a research conducted in educational institutions. It was done by means of observations while errors and feedback were recorded in observation sheets. Learner preferences concerning feedback were gathered using a questionnaire. The practical part contains a definition of the observation sheet items.

Throughout this thesis, the participants of the teaching and learning process are referred to as teachers and learners. For the sake of simplicity they are referred to in the masculine. The term 'error' is used to refer generally to all the types of errors described below.

2. THEORETICAL PART

2. 1. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF LEARNER ERRORS

In the past, various approaches to teaching foreign languages were used. Each method reflected certain conviction of what was the aim of language teaching at that time. An outline of the dominant approaches and their view of learner errors follows.¹

The Grammar-Translation Method dominated language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s, and in some places it continues to be used today, even though there is no

¹ For a detailed description you can consult for example Richards and Rodgers 2001, Howatt and Widdowson 2004 or Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983.

justification for it. This method focuses on reading, writing and translating sentences into and out of the target language. Grammar is taught deductively and the native language is used for instruction. As for errors, accuracy has high priority. The Direct Method, one of the natural methods was applied mainly between 1860s and 1920s. It uses the target language only and focuses on conversation, reading and listening. Grammar is taught inductively and emphasis is put on correct pronunciation and grammar. Teachers are encouraged to correct errors.

Between 1930s and 1960s an approach called Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching was developed in Britain. These terms refer to an approach where the spoken language is emphasized. The target language is used in the classroom and grammar is taught inductively. The meaning of the words is induced from the way the form is used in a situation. Accuracy in pronunciation and grammar is crucial and errors must be avoided at all costs.

In 1950s The Audiolingual Method was developed in the US. It draws upon behaviourist psychology and it also emphasizes speaking but focuses mainly on form. The language is taught by systematic attention to pronunciation and by intensive oral drilling of its basic sentence patterns. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses so by memorizing dialogues and pattern drills the production of errors is minimized. Brooks compares an error to a sin: “Like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected.” (in Hendrickson 1978, p. 387) Similarly, *The Teacher’s Manual for German, Level One*, by the Modern Language Materials Development Center states that teachers should correct all errors immediately and that students should be neither required nor permitted to discover and correct their own mistakes. Many foreign language educators never questioned the validity of this approach. (Hendrickson 1978, p. 388)

Nevertheless, at the turn of 1960s and 1970s studies in applied linguistics, psychology and language pedagogy have conduced to a trend towards a different approach to language teaching; the communicative – sometimes referred to as functional-notional – approach. It influences language teaching until the present days. Let us discuss the communicative approach and its view of errors in the following two chapters.

2. 1. 1. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AS THE AIM OF FOREIGN AND SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

The idea of the communicative movement is that it gives more attention to language use than to language knowledge. Negotiation of meaning between learners in realistic situations is crucial. The prominent American linguist Noam Chomsky criticized standard structural theories of language and demonstrated that they were incapable of accounting for the fundamental characteristics of a language – the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences. British applied linguists also stressed that the functional and communicative potential of language were inadequately addressed. (Richards, Rodgers 2001, p. 153) In his book *Communicative language teaching*, Littlewood states that:

One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into more fully communicative view. (1991, p. 1)

The term communicative competence was proposed by Dell Hymes and developed by other researchers. He described communicative competence as “that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts”. The concept was expanded by Michael Canale and Merrill Swain who defined four components of communicative competence:

- grammatical competence
- discourse competence
- sociolinguistic competence
- strategic competence

(in Brown 2000, p. 246-247)

This model was later modified by Lyle Bachman. He described communicative language ability as “consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextualized communicative language use”. (1990, p. 84) The elements of communicative ability (appendix 1) as defined by Bachman are following:

- language competence (for its components see figure 1 below)

- knowledge structures
- strategic competence
- psychophysiological mechanisms
- context of situation.

He makes strategic competence a separate component of communicative language ability.

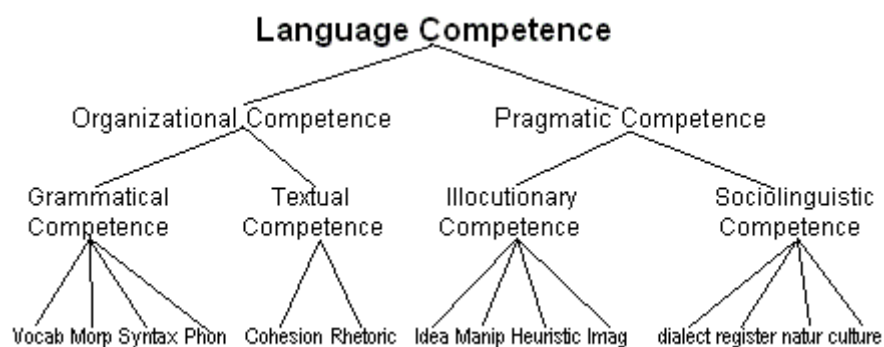


Figure 1: Components of language competence
(Bachman 1990, p. 87)

This approach makes communicative competence the aim of language teaching. On the contrary, the methods widely used in the past gave top priority to linguistic competence.

Communicative language teaching is usually referred to as an approach, not a method, as it can be interpreted in slightly different ways. There is not a theoretical model to be accepted universally and greater initiative is permitted to both the teachers and the students.

Goh and Burns also propose a model of second language speaking competence. It comprises:

- core speaking skills
- knowledge of language and discourse
- communication strategies

To the former belong pronunciation, speech function, interaction management, and discourse organization. For the description of each category see appendix 2. The latter compensate for gaps in linguistic knowledge. For example, when learners experience problems with vocabulary, they can ask for clarification or repetition which will help to negotiate the meaning and keep the interaction alive. On the basis of this model they define second language speaking development as

the increasing ability to use linguistic knowledge, core speaking skills, and communication and discourse strategies in order to produce utterances and discourses that are fluent, accurate, and socially appropriate within the constraints of cognitive processing.

(2012, p. 52-53).

The model of cognitive demands on speech production is presented in chapter 2. 2. 1.

Communicative language teaching falls into the category of humanistic approaches to language teaching, that emphasize whole-person development and involvement in learning processes. These approaches are linked with a constructivism. Constructivism is a psychological school of thought, a kind of cognitive approach. Its assumption is that individuals construct a personal meaning of the world, based on their experiences. Another recent psychological approach is that of social interactionism, which promotes that individuals learn through interaction with other people. Marion Williams and Robert L. Burden presented a social constructivist model of the teaching-learning process with four key sets of factors which interact with each other and influence the learning process – teachers, learners, tasks and contexts. (1997, p. 43)

2. 1. 2. THE ROLE OF ERRORS

As already mentioned, the communicative approach brought a different view of learner errors. Many foreign language educators have rejected the obsessive concern with error avoidance which characterised Audiolingualism. They hold that errors are a natural and necessary phenomenon in language learning and that teachers should accept wide range of deviance from so-called ‘standard’ forms and structures. (Hendrickson 1978, p. 389-390) Howatt and Widdowson, in their book *A History of English Language Teaching*, introduce Corder’s view:

[...] errors, far from being the evidence for failure that American contrastive analysis had assumed in the 1940s and 1950s, were in fact markers of success. When learners made the kind

of systematic mistakes that Corder called 'errors' (the others were merely 'slips of the tongue') it was because they had moved on to the next stage of acquisition which was not fully under control yet. [...] learners (unconsciously) construct hypotheses as to how the language works and then try these hypotheses out to see if they are confirmed or not. Errors therefore are the traces of failed hypotheses which will, in time, die out as the system progresses – just like the 'errors' of infants acquiring their mother tongue. (2004, p. 335-336)

As per Finocchiaro and Brumfit, one of the distinctive features of communicative language teaching is that "language is created by the individual, often through trial and error". Learners are allowed to communicate by whatever linguistic means available, even if it means making errors, and the idea that every mistake made by a learner makes a repetition of that error more likely has been rejected, because learners would be terrified of speaking at all. (1983, p. 92-93) This agrees with Edge, who uses the term 'learning steps' to address errors because he thinks that the teacher's job is not just to point out differences between students' language and standard English but also to encourage the growth of the language by appreciating the learning steps. He points out that if students know what they say will always be compared to standard English, they will be careful not to say anything unless they are sure it is correct. This means that they will have very little opportunity to work out new better ways of saying things. (1990, p. 15)

Kolář and Šikulová also state that an error in teaching-learning processes can be understood at least in two ways as:

- an undesirable phenomenon which is a proof of learner's inattention, unpreparedness, incompetence, or uninterest
- a common component of human activity when a learner attempts to manage new knowledge and procedures

(2009, p. 115)

Thus errors are at present considered to be a necessary and even desirable part of the learning process as they signalize that learning takes place. Often they are the evidence of learner's interlanguage. This phenomenon, also referred to as approximative system or idiosyncratic dialect, is a learner's second language system that is structurally between the native and the target language, when through a process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, learners approximate the target language (Brown 2000, p. 215). Brown also summarizes the sources of error:

Error – overt manifestations of learners’ systems – arise from several possible general sources: interlingual errors of interference from the native language, intralingual errors within the target language, the sociolinguistic context of communication, psycholinguistic or cognitive strategies, and no doubt countless affective variables. (ibid, p. 218)

Errors serve as valuable feedback for the teacher, too. They inform him about

- whether his teaching methods are efficient or not
- to which extent learners mastered the subject matter and whether some structures need re-teaching
- how to proceed further

Concerning fossilisation, “research suggests that learners who receive no instruction seem to be at risk of fossilising sooner than those who do receive instruction.” (Thornbury 1999, p. 16) Brown stresses that fossilization is a normal and natural stage and should not be viewed as terminal. It is a product of positive affective and cognitive feedback on deviant items and this internalization of incorrect forms happens in the same way as the internalization of correct forms. Many learners tend to take charge of their attainment and seek means for acquisition. Therefore teachers should attach great importance to the feedback they give to learners, but also bear in mind that there are other forces in the process of internalization which they cannot influence. (2000, p. 231-233)

Different types of errors that can appear in learner’s spoken language will be discussed in chapter 2. 4. after investigation into specifics of speaking and classroom speaking activities.

2. 2. THE SKILL OF SPEAKING

Speaking is one of the four language skills, besides listening, writing and reading, that form the communicative competence. They rarely appear in isolation, therefore it is vital to integrate them in teaching, too. CEFR discriminates between oral production and spoken interaction. Oral production activities include:

- public address (information, instructions, etc.)
- addressing audiences (speeches at public meetings, university lectures, sermons, entertainment, sports commentaries, sales presentations, etc.)

and they can involve:

- reading a written text aloud;
 - speaking from notes, or from a written text or visual aids (diagrams, pictures, charts, etc.);
 - acting out a rehearsed role;
 - speaking spontaneously;
 - singing.
- (p. 58)

Examples of spoken interactive activities include:

- transactions
 - casual conversation
 - informal discussion
 - formal discussion
 - debate
 - interview
 - negotiation
 - co-planning
 - practical goal-oriented co-operation
- (p. 73)

In the introduction to his book *Speaking* Bygate proposes that speaking is in many ways an undervalued skill, presumably for the following reasons: the skill is taken for granted due to the fact that almost all people can speak; speaking is considered to be a ‘popular’ form of expression which uses unprestigious colloquial register; speaking is transient and improvised and therefore viewed as superficial. However, speaking deserves the same attention as literary skills as learners need to be able to speak with confidence to carry out the basic affairs. By this skill they are frequently judged and they also make or lose friends through it. It is also the means of social ranking, professional advancement and of business, and a medium through which much language is learnt. (1991, p. VII)

This corresponds to Nunan, who says that:

To most people, mastering the art of speaking is the single most important aspect of learning a second or foreign language, and success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the language. (1991, p. 39)

Bygate stresses the distinction between knowledge and skill in the teaching of speaking. He compares it to learning to drive – the driver needs to know how to operate the controls but he also needs to be able to use the controls to guide the car smoothly and manage the variations in road conditions safely. Similarly, when we speak, we know how to assemble sentences but we also have to produce them and adapt them to the circumstances, which means making decisions quickly and implementing them

smoothly. (1991, p. 3) The difference between knowledge and skill is that while both can be understood and memorized, only a skill can be imitated and practised. (ibid, p. 4)

Bygate also discriminates between two types of skills: motor-perceptive and interaction skills. Motor-perceptive skills include perceiving, recalling and articulating sounds and structures in the correct order – it is the context-free kind of skill, a bit like learning to drive without ever going out on the road. Interaction skill is then the skill of using knowledge and motor-perceptive skills to achieve communication. They involve making decisions about communication. Then he identifies two demands which affect the nature of speech. First of them are processing conditions – the fact that speech takes place under the pressure of time. It makes a difference whether communication is prepared or composed off-hand. The second are reciprocity conditions – the relation between the speaker and listener in the process of speech. In a reciprocal exchange the speaker will often have to adjust the vocabulary and message to take the listener into account and he also has to be flexible in communication and participate actively, ask questions, react, and so on. (ibid, p. 5-8)

Speaking is most closely related to listening which plays an important role in its development, mainly in connection with spoken interaction. Kang Shumin claims that features of spoken English undoubtedly hinder learner's comprehension and affect the development of their speaking skills (in Richards, Renandya 2002, p. 205). Let us discuss the nature of speaking and its impact on teaching speaking skills in greater detail.

2. 2. 1. SPECIFICS OF SPOKEN LANGUAGE

Brown and Yule elaborate on the differences between spoken and written language. The advantage of written language is that it has been described by generations of grammar writers and dictionary-makers and it is possible to say whether a written sentence is correct or not. The rules of writing English sentences are well known and thoroughly described but as for speaking there is not a secure teaching tradition to lean upon and no influential description of spoken English. Therefore many teachers themselves are worried about the demands of teaching the spoken language. Most speakers of English produce spoken language that is syntactically simpler than writing, containing only

lightly premodified noun phrases and very general vocabulary. Therefore they suggest that students should be encouraged to talk from an early stage because the level demanded is not that strict as that of written language. (1983, p. 1, 3, 4, 7, 9) They argue that:

If native speakers typically produce short, phrase-sized chunks, it seems perverse to demand that foreign learners should be expected to produce complete sentences. Indeed it may demand of them, in the foreign language, a capacity for forward-planning and storage which they rarely manifest in speaking their own native language. 'Correctness' in terms of complete sentences, seems an inappropriate notion in spoken language. (p. 26)

Ellis and Brewster also believe that learners need to be given opportunities to speak as soon and as much as possible, although the reasons they state are maintenance of learner's initial motivation and feeling that they are making progress. (2002, p. 105)

Moreover, Brown and Yule make a distinction between functions of language. Whereas the primary function of written language is transactional, to convey information, the primary function of spoken language is primarily interactional, to establish and maintain social relations. This is demonstrated in figure 2. They also make a distinction between short speaking turns and long speaking turns – here appears the difference in demand of processing conditions as mentioned above. They assume that what the student has learned about the nature of primarily interactional speech in the native language can be transferred to the foreign language and that explicit teaching of the spoken form should be concerned with the teaching of extended transactional turns. (1983, p. 23-24)

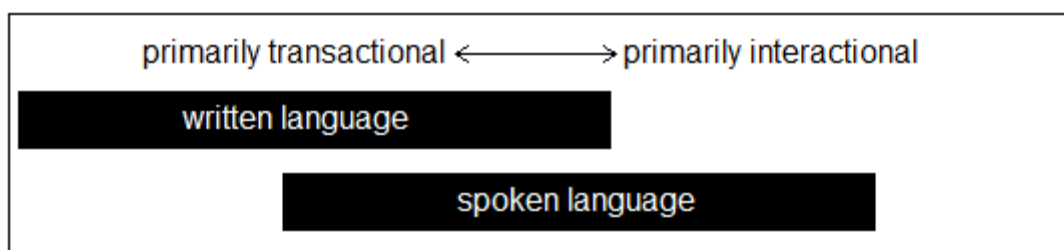


Figure 2: Functions of language

(Brown, Yule 1983, p. 23)

Bygate summarizes common language features which are the result of processing conditions of oral language:

- adjustments: hesitations, false starts, self-correction, rephrasings, and circumlocution;
- syntactic features: ellipsis and parataxis;
- repetition: via expansion or reduction;
- formulaic expression.

He believes that these features may in fact *help* learners to speak, and hence help them to *learn* to speak and in addition, these features may also help learners to sound *normal* in their use of the foreign language. (1991, p. 20-21) This is actually in contradiction with Shumin whose view has been presented above. Bygate’s argument seems to be more powerful.

We have seen that speaking is very complex and demanding process. Levelt proposed a model of speech production which describes cognitive processes of language learners when producing speech. The stages of the model, that are activated concurrently, are shown in figure 3.

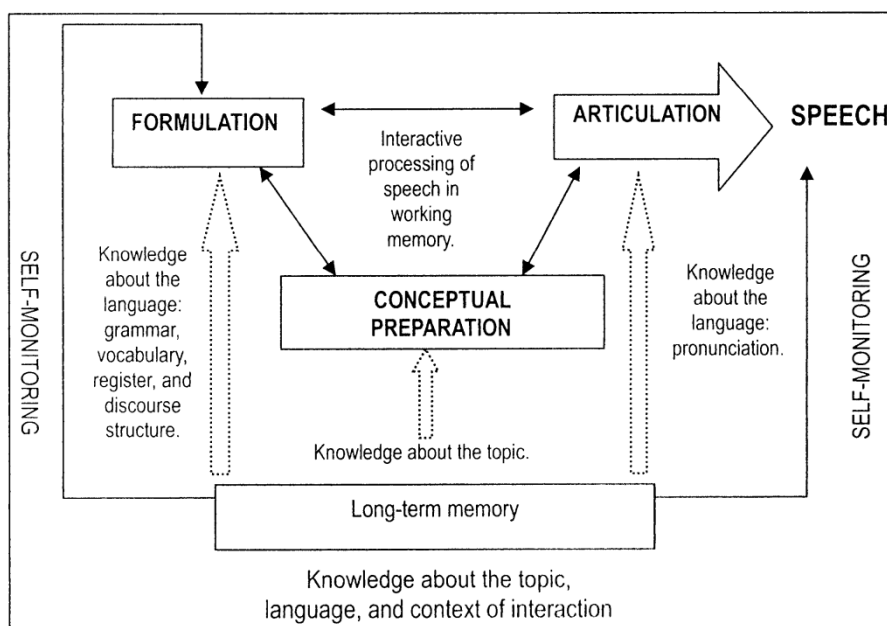


Figure 3: Cognitive demands on language learners when producing speech
(Levelt in Goh, Burns 2012, p. 36)

Under time pressure, learners are unable to produce speech that is both fluent and accurate. The major aim is then an immediate transfer of meaning. There might not be enough time to retrieve knowledge from long-term memory, therefore learners can

produce errors in items the rules of which are known to them. Goh and Burns stress that “when learners, such as beginners, can only focus on either meaning or form at any one time, expecting them to do well in both may frustrate and discourage them” (2012, p. 45). The issue of motivation and anxiety is dealt with below. The task of the teacher is then to prepare different types of activities to balance accuracy and fluency.

2. 3. CLASSROOM SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

The quality of learners’ speech can be judged according to three characteristics: accuracy, fluency and complexity (Bygate and Skehan in Goh, Burns 2012, p. 42). However, some authors view accuracy as a component of fluency, rather than an independent item (Hieke, Van Ek in Richards 1990, p. 75-76).

As for speaking activities applied in lessons, it seems suitable to make a distinction between accuracy focused activities and fluency focused activities. It depends on whether the aim of the particular activity is to practice a grammatical construction that was dealt with previously, or whether the aim is to encourage learners to speak fluently and get their thoughts across. “The teacher needs to develop a repertoire of activities providing a balance between control and creativity, repetition and real use and provide varied models of spoken English.” (Ellis, Brewster 2002, p. 106)

According to Harmer, in accuracy work it is a part of the teacher’s function to point out and correct the mistakes the students are making. He calls this ‘teacher intervention’ – a stage where the teacher stops the activity to make the correction. (2007, p. 143)

On the other hand, during fluency work it is usually undesirable to interrupt the activity and correct an error. We have to let the learners communicate and we should not insist on complete precision. Harmer claims that

[...] part of the value of such activities lies in the various attempts that students have to make to get their meaning across; processing language for communication is, in this view, the best way of processing language for acquisition. Teacher intervention in such circumstances can raise stress levels and stop the acquisition process in its tracks. (ibid, p. 143)

However, if we decide not to interrupt an activity, it does not have to mean that we will not correct the mistakes at all. Correction can be delayed. During the task the teacher can make notes of errors he has heard. After the activity has finished, the teacher can

discuss the errors with the class or he can write them on the board and ask for correction.

Harmer also presents the communication continuum, where some activities occur further towards the communicative end and other activities may be less communicative and appear towards the opposite end of the continuum. As for error correction, communicative activities should be treated similarly as fluency activities. (ibid, p. 70)

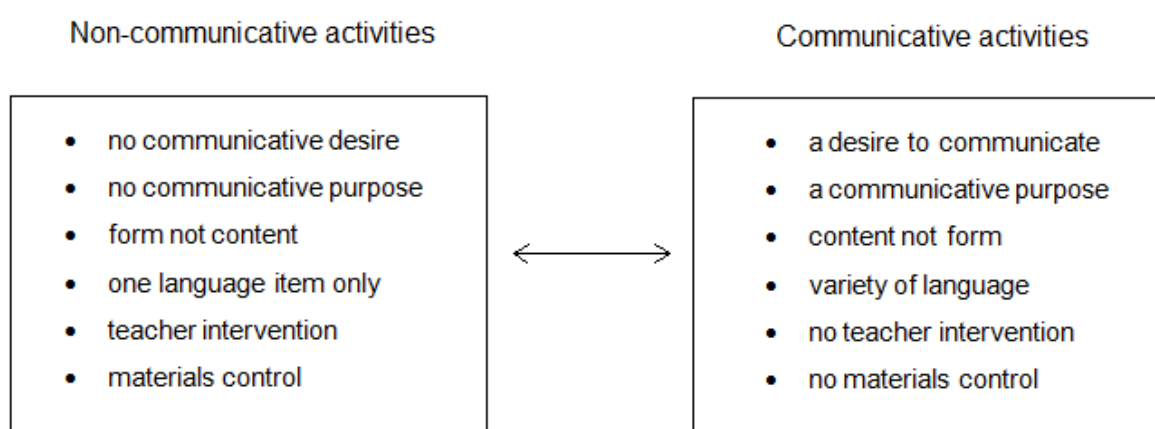


Figure 4: The communication continuum

(Harmer 2007, p. 70)

Gower also distinguishes between accuracy and fluency as aspects of speaking but besides that he presents a division of classroom speaking activities based on the degree of control as follows:

1. Controlled activities – repetition practice to improve the accurate use of words, structures and pronunciation.
2. Guided activities – model dialogues which learners can change to communicate their own needs and ideas using language which has been taught beforehand.
3. Creative or freer communication – opportunities for predicted language items, or general fluency practice. These activities increase motivation and help bridge the gap between the artificial world of the classroom and the real world. Learners must have a reason for speaking in order for the activity to be truly communicative; there must be either an opinion gap and/or an information gap.

(1995, p. 99-101)

Yet, a commonly used distinction is that of Littlewood. He classifies four types of language-learning exercises. Pre-communicative activities fulfil the preparatory function. Structural activities contain mechanical drills, while quasi-communicative activities take account of both structural and communicative fact about language.

During communicative activities learners are required to use their pre-communicative knowledge and skills in order to use them for the communication of meanings. In functional communication activities is the learner required to get the meaning across with whatever resources available. On the other hand, in social interaction activities the learner is encouraged to develop greater social acceptability. However, Littlewood reminds that there is no clear dividing line between these categories and that they represent differences of emphasis and orientation rather than distinct divisions. (1981, p. 85-86)

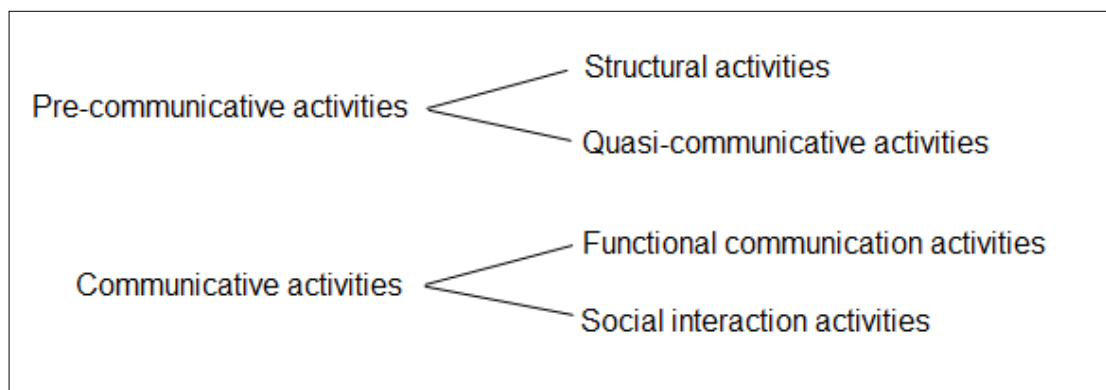


Figure 5: Speaking activities

(Littlewood 1981, p. 86)

As for organizational forms, teaching can take place frontally, in groups or pairs and learners can also work individually. Individual work obviously cannot be used for teaching speaking.

The advantage of frontal teaching, from the point of view of speaking and error correction, is that the teacher can hear all utterances and therefore all errors. On the

other hand, learners have less chance to say something and the conditions, especially for spoken interaction, are not as good as in smaller groups. Some learners with higher anxiety (chapter 2. 5.) may also feel uncomfortable when speaking in front of the whole class.

Pair work and group work allows for greater learner independence, autonomy, cooperation and acquisition. Learner talking time is increased and some learners may perform better without constant supervision and correction of the teacher. On the contrary, the teacher's control of the class is lower, learners may not keep instructions and the teacher does not have such a good overview of learner errors. Though, if teachers want to improve their learner's fluency, they do not have to pay attention to all errors. It has been shown by previous research that learners use a lot more language and make use of more language functions when working in small groups than during frontal activities. Learners also do not produce more errors and are able to correct one another (Nunan 1991, p.51). Before pair work and group work, the teacher has to give clear instructions or demonstrate the activity. During the activity, the teacher can monitor, which means listening to a particular group to catch at least some errors, helping with different kinds of difficulties if necessary and checking that everyone knows what to do. After the activity, the teacher should give feedback either by commenting on the performance or correcting specific errors. It can also be done using demonstration of the activity by selected groups. If teachers want to improve their learner's fluency, they do not have to pay attention to all errors.

2. 4. ERROR TYPES

If we want to treat errors appropriately, we have to know which error types can appear in learners' spoken language. Aspects of division may vary.

Edge classifies errors according to the teacher's knowledge of his learners into:

- slips, which a student can self-correct;
- errors, which a student can't self-correct, but where it is clear which form the student wanted to use, and where the class is familiar with that form;
- attempts, where students have no real idea how to structure what they want to mean, or where intended meaning and structure are not clear to the teacher.

(1989, p. 11)

The most frequently used distinction seems to be between mistakes and errors, while the former can be self-corrected. Brown uses this distinction but points out that the learner's capacity for self/correction is observable only if the learner actually self-corrects, otherwise there are no means to identify error vs. mistake (2000, p. 217-218). Therefore Edge's distinction – according to the teacher's knowledge of his learners – seems to be more reasonable.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) suggests following definition:

Errors are due to an '*interlanguage*', a simplified or distorted representation of the target competence. When the learner makes errors, his performance truly accords with his competence, which has developed characteristics different from those of L2 norms. *Mistakes*, on the other hand, occur in performance when a user/learner (as might be the case with a native speaker) does not bring his competences properly into action. (p. 155)

The principal curricular document for basic education is the Framework Education Programme for Basic Education. Its foreign language education requirements are based on CEFR. (p. 13)

As Edge's classification of errors is based on the teacher's knowledge of his learners, and similarly the classification used in CEFR is related to learner's competence, it is not possible for the observer to define whether the learner's performance is in accord with his competence or whether he just did not activate his competence. That is why I did not use this distinction in the practical part.

Also a distinction between communicative errors and non-communicative errors has been made. Burt and Kiparsky classify errors into two categories:

- global error – causes a listener to misunderstand a message or to consider it incomprehensible
- local error – does not significantly impede communication of a message

(in Hendrickson 1978, p. 391)

Hendrickson then modified this distinction and

defined a *global error* as a communicative error that causes a proficient speaker of a foreign language either to misinterpret an oral or written message or to consider the message incomprehensible with the textual content of the error. On the other hand, a *local error* is a linguistic error that makes a form or structure in a sentence appear awkward but, nevertheless,

causes a proficient speaker of a foreign language little or no difficulty in understanding the intended meaning of a sentence, given its contextual framework. (ibid)

He also reminded that earlier research proved that teachers tend to overestimate the degree to which errors impair communication (ibid).

Now let us look at whether and how different error types should be corrected.

2. 4. 1. CORRECTION PRIORITY

As already mentioned, the teacher always has to judge the right time for correction depending on the objective of the particular activity. Brown and Yule believe that when a learner is trying to formulate and structure a long turn, the last thing a teacher should be thinking of is correcting pronunciation or intonation, since it is a very stressful task in which a learner needs all the support. The teacher can note the errors and deal with them separately. If the message is not clear, the person who should be asking for clarification is the listener, not the teacher. (1983, p. 53)

Generally it is suggested that communicative errors receive top priority for correction, however, it might be a great dilemma for teachers. (Hendrickson 1978, p. 390)

Burt argues persuasively that the global/local distinction is the most pervasive criterion for determining the communicative importance of errors. She claims that the correction of one global error in a sentence clarifies the intended message more than the correction of several local errors in the same sentence [...] Burt suggests that only when their production in the foreign language begins to become relatively free of communicative errors, should learners begin to concentrate on remediating local errors, if the learners are to approach near-native fluency. (in Hendrickson 1978, p. 391)

Another type of error that was supposed to have high priority for correction was an error that stigmatizes the learner from the perspective of native speakers. (ibid, p. 391) Nonetheless, during the past years the perspective on this issue seems to be changing. According to Howatt and Widdowson there are grounds for questioning the justification for setting native-speaker norms as objectives, since the language is mostly used for international communication between non-native speakers and effective communication in lingua franca uses of English does not seem to depend on native speaker norms. Therefore it is necessary to reconsider the notion of communicative competence in contexts of lingua franca use of the language. (2004, p. 360) An error that can stigmatize the learner is often a pronunciation error. Brown declares clearly:

We all know people who have less than perfect pronunciation but who also have magnificent and fluent control of a second language, control that can even exceed that of many native speakers. [...] The acquisition of the communicative and functional purposes of language is, in most circumstances, far more important than a perfect native accent. (2000, p. 59-60)

The practical part deals with the issue of pronunciation error in greater detail.

Teachers can also give priority to errors that occur more frequently and to those that they consider to be basic. The criteria for a basic error might vary with different teachers. Some of them could be whether the error occurs in an item on which the activity focuses or in an item which already received a great deal of practice.

If we consult the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, we find suggestions and thought-provoking questions about:

- different attitudes that may be taken to learner errors
- the action that may be taken towards errors
- why it may be useful to observe and analyse learner errors, e. g. the importance of errors in different aspects of communicative competence. (p. 155 - 156)

However, none of the suggestions is determined as the only correct option.

2. 4. 2. TYPES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

If we decide to correct an utterance, we have to choose the most suitable way of giving feedback. As touched upon previously, it is desirable if learners are given the opportunity to self-correct because they have to think about the problem and when they get it right, it might be easier for them to remember the correct structure. This would be possible with 'slip'. This approach is recommended for instance by Edge (1989, p. 24) and Harmer (2007, p. 144) and it has been aptly summarized by Hendrickson who stated that "while few language educators would deny the teacher an active role in correcting errors, it has been suggested that he or she should not dominate the correction procedures." (1978, p. 395)

If the learner is not able to correct himself, we can ask other learners in the class if they can correct the utterance. This can be very beneficial because all students are involved, they have to pay attention and learn from other people's errors. It also helps to develop cooperation and independence in the class. Such approach to correction is called peer

correction. Yet, Harmer warns about possible negative consequences of peer correction that have to be taken into consideration when working with every individual class:

This works well where there is a genuinely cooperative atmosphere; the idea of the group helping all of its members is a powerful concept. Nevertheless, it can go horribly wrong where the error-making individual feels belittled by the process, thinking that they are the only one who doesn't know the grammar or vocabulary. We need to be exceptionally sensitive here, only encouraging the technique where it does not undermine such students. (2007, p. 145)

In case none of the learners is able to correct the mistake, the teacher has to provide further help but does not necessarily have to give the correct answer directly. Edge demonstrates a few ways of pointing out the error in the sentence *The motorcycle was invent in 1885*:

- As the teacher say *in...vent...*, he holds up three fingers as the word has three syllables. The teacher points to the first finger when saying *in* and to the second finger when saying *vent*. When he gets to the third finger, he pauses and looks questioningly at the class waiting for somebody to add *ed*.
- The teacher repeats the sentence up to the error and then asks somebody to finish it.
- The teacher repeats the sentence including the error and shows by an expression where the error is and then asks for correction.

(1989, p. 28-29)

Mareš and Křivohlavý (in Kolář, Šikulová 2009, p. 116, my translation) suggest that the teacher use various corrective techniques of giving feedback on error. Some of them are cited below.

- Invite the learner to try to give the answer or to solve the task again.
- Provide directions how to approach the problem differently to reach the correct answer.
- Explain why the learner made an error but let him self-correct.
- Initiate a discussion about an error. Discuss a typical error and together with other learners deduce procedures of its correction.
- Simply tell the correct answer.
- Not to correct learner's activity immediately but with hindsight after going through a certain unit.

We can see again that giving a chance for self-correction, and learners' active participation in feedback procedures is suggested. However, these authors are aware of the fact that at school the situation is often different:

- teachers conduct the most of feedback activities themselves and do not train learners to do it; learners are not capable of detecting errors
- learners do not take responsibility for the outcomes of their own work
- teachers do not give any feedback on error.

(ibid, p. 117, my translation)

Harmer suggests possible ways of showing incorrectness. These relate especially to accuracy work and the type of error called ‘slip’:

1. Repeating: we ask the learner to repeat the utterance, perhaps by saying *Again?*. This can be coupled with intonation and expression.
2. Echoing: we repeat what the learner has said, emphasizing the part containing an error.
3. Statement and question: we can say for example *That’s not quite right.* to indicate that something is wrong.
4. Expression: when we know our learners well, we can use a facial expression or gesture, for example a wobbling hand. The expression should never appear to be mocking.
5. Hinting: if the teacher and learners share metalanguage, we can just say the word *tense* to indicate an error in tense.
6. Reformulation: a technique used both for accuracy and fluency focused activities. Teacher can repeat a corrected version of learner’s utterance, reformulating the sentence but without making a big issue of it.

(2007, p. 144-145)

After freer fluency focused activity we can get back to particular errors but we can also comment on the performance as a whole. Roger Gower summarized his suggestions of feedback on free activity in the following way:

- Indicate how each person communicated, comment on how fluent each was, how well they argued as a group, and so on.
- Sometimes you might record the activity on audio or video cassette and play it back for discussion. Focus on possible improvements rather than mistakes – in fact if it is taped, sometimes they can be asked to do a rough version first, then discuss improvements, then re-record.
- Note down glaring and recurrent errors in grammar, pronunciation, use of vocabulary. Individual mistakes might be discussed (in private) with the students concerned and you might recommend suitable remedial work to do at home. Mistakes which are common to the class can be mentioned and then practised another day when you have had a chance to prepare a suitable remedial lesson.

(1995, p. 103)

We have seen that correction can be done in many different ways and according to different criteria. In the practical part of this paper I used an observation sheet to record the type of feedback, for which I created a taxonomy based on the above alternatives. Then I recorded the correcting person and defined it as the person who is the eventual provider of the correct model and I separated it from the agent of intervention, the person who interrupts the activity.

2. 5. MOTIVATION AS A CONSEQUENCE OF FEEDBACK

In the past, not much attention was paid either to motivation of learners or to motivation of teachers. For example, the Grammar-Translation method often created frustration for students. (Richards, Rodgers 2001, p. 6) Finocchiaro and Brumfit also contrast the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative approach from the point of view of motivation. When teaching according to the Audiolingual Method, the teacher controls the learners and prevents them from doing anything that is in conflict with theory. Intrinsic motivation is expected to spring from an interest in the structure of the language. In communicative language teaching the teacher helps in any way that motivates learners to work with the language and intrinsic motivation is thought to come from an interest in what is being communicated by the language. (1983, p. 92-93)

It is evident that the issue of motivation is fundamental in the discussion of feedback and correction. Williams views the teacher's role in motivation as the provider of feedback. Any action, or lack of action, may be interpreted as a form of feedback, thus, feedback can be given by means of praise, by any relevant comment or action, or by silence. This involves number of variables such as the intention of the teacher, the way in which it is given and the way in which it is construed by the learner. Feedback that is interpreted as informational rather than controlling is likely to increase learner's motivation towards certain tasks. Relying on rewards and praise as motivators can have potentially negative effect, particularly if learners are already intrinsically motivated. (1997, p. 134-136)

Feedback on error is a part of evaluation. One of the functions of evaluation is the motivational function. When providing feedback, we have to be extremely sensible and aware of the impact it can have on learners. It can encourage learners in learning but, if

used inadequately, it can also disgust learners and discourage them from further work. As emphasized by Edge, correction is a way of reminding students of the forms of Standard English, not criticism or punishment (1989, p. 20).

Kolář and Šikulová propose that “teaching-learning process should be about the search for efficiency of various forms of evaluation” (2009, p. 95, my translation) and that “quality and form of evaluation are always derived from the objective of the particular content unit” (p. 37, my translation)

As for speaking, Brown and Yule warn about possible consequences of heavy emphasis on correctness:

A necessary corollary of an educational system which puts great emphasis on ‘correctness’ in speaking a foreign language must be that many students feel themselves to be failures, since only relatively few, exceptional, individuals will achieve this ability to hold conversations in which they produce exclusively ‘correct’ and ‘complete’ forms.

This concerns native-like pronunciation as well; an approach where relaxed attitude to ‘correctness’ is adopted and more students can attain success is more reasonable. (1983, p. 22-23)

Motivation is also interconnected with the issue of anxiety and risk-taking. We know that making guesses is important for language acquisition. Learners have to overcome fear of making errors, for which is important that learners

feel comfortable as they take their first public steps in the strange world of a foreign language. To achieve this, one has to create a climate of acceptance that will stimulate self-confidence, and encourage participants to experiment and to discover the target language, allowing themselves to take risks without feeling embarrassed. (Dufeu in Brown 2000, p. 150)

Young identified sources of anxiety that can be the reasons why learners may not be willing to communicate in the language, which would hinder their learning and acquisition:

- Personal and interpersonal beliefs (e.g., fear of failure, competitiveness, communication apprehension, negative social evaluation).
- Learner beliefs about language learning (e.g., perception of mistakes, views of instructional activities, priorities and preferences).
- Instructor beliefs about language learning (e.g., the role of instructors, relationships with learners).
- Instructor–learner interactions (e.g. manner of error correction).
- Classroom procedures (e.g. oral presentations, skits).
- Language testing (e.g. test format, test items, match between practice and testing).

(in Goh, Burns 2012, p. 28)

We can see that errors, error correction, speaking and learner preferences play an important role.

In my research I used a questionnaire (appendix 4) to find out the preferences of learners regarding error correction. Many questions are directly linked with the problem of motivation. As mentioned above, teachers have to be very sensible when deciding both extent and manner of feedback. These factors are recorded in the observation sheets.

2. 6. CONCLUSION OF THE THEORETICAL PART

Let us try to answer the questions raised in the introduction. Usually there is not one definite answer since many factors have to be taken in account. Therefore the answers are mostly formulated as suggestions.

1. Should learner errors be corrected?

Thought-out correction seems to help learners increase their level of proficiency. If teachers did not correct learner errors at all, learners might keep on using incorrect structures without knowing that their message might have been misinterpreted. Then it could be difficult for the learners to abandon the incorrect structures.

2. Which learner errors should be corrected?

Still, it does not mean that all errors necessarily have to be corrected. Correcting every error could have severe effects on motivation of learners. It is suggested that errors which significantly hinder communication receive top priority in correction. It is the task of the teacher to decide which errors to correct, depending on various aspects from the focus and aim of the activity, type of the activity, type of the error, up to learner's affective state.

3. When should learner errors be corrected?

Errors do not have to be corrected immediately after they appear. For example during activities that aim to develop fluency it might not always be desirable to interrupt the activity. Sometimes learners should be given the possibility to try to communicate a

message by all means, only with help of the listener as it happens in real life. Correction can be postponed – the teacher can give feedback after the activity finishes.

4. How should learner errors be corrected?

Various ways of showing incorrectness are described above, again depending on the type of activity. Less direct forms of correction seem to be more effective. Furthermore, we have to be very sensitive when giving feedback, as inappropriate treatment might be discouraging.

5. By whom should learner errors be corrected?

Errors can certainly be corrected by the teacher. However, different ways might be more effective. First, the opportunity for self-correction should be given to the learner. If he is not able to correct himself, other learners should be invited to do so but peer correction can be effective only in cooperative atmosphere where learners do not feel uncomfortable about it.

As we have seen, once a learner produces an error, the teacher has to make a large number of decisions. Brown demonstrates this very clearly in his model for classroom treatment of speech errors (appendix 3).

3. PRACTICAL PART

3. 1. RESEARCH

As mentioned in the introduction, this research was designed to find out how teachers treat different types of errors in spoken language and how learners react to different types of error treatment. The outcomes of the research will be compared to the theory elaborated in the theoretical part. The data will also be contrasted with some other research, related to the issue of classroom speaking and carried out in the past in a larger scale by experts.

3. 1. 1. APPROACH TO RESEARCH AND RESEARCH QUESTION

Based on the aim of the research, two research questions were raised:

1. How do teachers treat different types of errors in spoken language?

2. How do learners react to different types of error treatment?

Quantitative approach to research is used, as it works with numerical data.

3. 1. 2. METHODOLOGY

In order to answer research question number one, I decided to carry out a series of structured observations. The data were recorded in observation sheets. I designed the observation sheet items according to the theoretical part of this thesis. They were successfully piloted using recorded lessons. Research question number two is not possible to answer by means of observations. I understand the learner's reaction within the meaning of the impact on their affective state, so the inner reaction. The outer, observable reaction is only the ability to self-correct, and is recorded in the observation sheet. Therefore I designed a questionnaire which would enable learners to express their personal opinions and preferences concerning feedback on error during speaking. The next step was to conduct series of observations and distribute the questionnaires, then to analyse the data collected and interpret them.

3. 1. 3. SAMPLE

Research was conducted in two educational institutions – two primary schools. For the sake of reliability I cooperated with four teachers – with two teachers in each institution. Observations were conducted in seventeen lessons in total. For the sake of ethics I assigned a number to each teacher. I observed four lessons with teacher 1, 2, 4 and five lessons with teacher 3. They were lessons of learners from a spectrum of grades, all grades from the third to the ninth were covered. As for questionnaires, I collected them from one hundred and fifty learners.

3. 1. 4. DATA COLLECTION – OBSERVATIONS

As mentioned above, the first instrument I worked with was an observation sheet where I entered the observed situations. For completed observation sheets see appendix 5. Let me explain the content of the observation sheets and abbreviations used.

Two types of observation sheets were used depending on the organizational form, one for frontal teaching and another one for pair or group work. Each observation sheet has

a heading showing the observation sheet number, the same one being for frontal and group work which occurred in one lesson. There is also the date, teacher, grade, and an observer. At the bottom of each observation sheet is information about the duration of speaking activities in the particular lesson. The figures are in minutes and they show the approximate time of speaking activities, which gives us some view of the lesson as a whole. We have to keep in mind that the duration of speaking activities does not equal to student talk time.

Below you can find explanatory notes for the content of the frontal teaching observation sheet.

In the column *Error* is recorded the part of the utterance in which the error occurred. When the location of the error was not obvious, I added the intended correct version on the right side of the column, after a hyphen.

Description of activity allows to get the rough picture of the activity.

Activity type indicates a type of activity in which an error occurs. Typology of activities is based on Littlewood's division. I also defined another type called 'other'. It includes interaction that is not classifiable or not intended as a prepared classroom speaking activity. For example a one-word answer to teacher's question *How do you say ... in English?* or interaction of organizational character such as *Have you corrected our exams yet?* Even though Littlewood's division should be valid for all types of activities, I separated 'reading aloud' and 'other' to see whether these receive a specific treatment as they are specific activities in comparison to the remaining two types of activities.

- P = pre-communicative activity
- C = communicative activity
- R = reading aloud
- O = other

Aim shows the focus of an activity. I distinguished accuracy focused activities which can be defined similarly as Harmer's non-communicative activities, and fluency focused activities defined similarly as Harmer's communicative activities (figure 4). The aim of

“reading aloud“ is always accuracy and the aim of the activity type “other“ doesn’t apply (/).

- F = fluency
- A = accuracy

Error type describes in which aspect of communicative competence an error appears. By appropriacy I mean a deficiency in sociolinguistic and illocutionary competence, for example in register.

- P = pronunciation
- G = grammar
- L = lexis
- T = textual competence
- A = appropriacy

By *type of feedback* I mean a way of giving feedback. I created the typology of feedback on the basis of Harmer’s and Edge’s division.

- C = reformulation – the teacher gives correct version of the utterance
- REF = reformulation of the whole sentence
- R = teacher asks learner to repeat the utterance
- E = teacher repeats what the learner has said, emphasizing the part containing an error
- S = statement or question and language used EN/CZ – teacher says for example *That’s not quite right.* to indicate that something is wrong
- EX = facial expression or gesture
- H = hinting – teacher uses metalanguage
- F = the teacher repeats the sentence up to the error and then asks somebody to finish it
- EXP = explanation and language used – EN/CZ
- X = no feedback

Manner of feedback indicates appropriacy. If there was no feedback at all, it does not apply (/).

- √ = tactful or supportive feedback
- X = improper or rude feedback

Type and agent of intervention shows the intervening person who interrupts the activity and subsequently it indicates whether space for self correction is given.

- TC = direct correction by the teacher providing correct model
- TI = direct intervention by the teacher giving space for self correction and potentially for peer correction
- PC = direct peer correction
- PI = direct peer intervention
- X = no intervention

Correcting person indicates who eventually provides the correct model.

- T = teacher
- S = self-correction
- P = peer correction
- Ls = choral answer
- X = none

Effect of error on communication distinguishes two types of error according to its effect on the transfer of message and a possible communication breakdown. It is based on Burt and Kiparsky's distinction. A global error causes a misunderstanding or makes the message incomprehensible. A local error does not significantly obstruct communication of a message. Global errors cannot therefore be recorded in the activity type 'pre-communicative activity' as defined above, whereas local errors can be recorded in both these types. In the activity type "reading aloud" - in case all learners can see the text - only local errors appear.

- G = global

- L = local

The observation sheet for group work consists of three columns. The first one describes instruction for the activity given by the teacher beforehand, the second one describes what the teacher does during the activity and in the third column is recorded feedback after the activity, in case it was given.

3. 1. 5. DATA COLLECTION – QUESTIONNAIRE

The second instrument used was a questionnaire. For an empty questionnaire see appendix 4. I collected one hundred and fifty completed questionnaires. The questionnaire was written in the Czech language in order to avoid any misinterpretations. I handed the questionnaires out at the end of the lessons and collected them immediately so the return was one hundred percent, however, a few questionnaires were incomplete so I could not use them. I informed the learners about the fact that it is anonymous and that they should tick only one answer, the most corresponding one. The register of the questionnaire is not suitable for very young learners, so in the third and fourth grade, the teacher reformulated the items so that the learners understood it well. The questionnaire is divided into three parts, one concerning frontal teaching, the second one concerning group work and the third one was general.

3. 1. 6. DEFINING PHONOLOGICAL ERROR

A definition of phonological error is a very complex issue. It is mainly due to the fact that opinions about what actually is considered a phonological error may vary. There is a discussion regarding the target pronunciation which would function as a model to be approximated. This may not be as easy to determine as, for example, in the case of grammar. Therefore I had to create a definition in order to refer to it when recording errors in the observation sheets.

For a long time, as the model served the standard accent of Standard English – Received Pronunciation (RP) or General American (GA) accent in the United States. English Language Teaching mostly used to prepare learners to communicate with native speakers of English. However, in the last few decades, second language speakers outnumbered first language speakers. Therefore a question, whether the traditional goal

of ELT is still relevant, arises. The language gained the status of lingua franca and is used as an international language.

In reaction to this, Jennifer Jenkins proposed a pronunciation target for lingua franca use of English. She reminds that RP is not necessarily the most easily understood accent of English, even for L1 speakers who speak other varieties of English and therefore more weight should be given to intelligibility in EIL and less to acceptability and appropriacy for L1 speakers (2000, p. 95). She discriminates between teachability and learnability. Some phonological features can be categorized as teachable because of clear-cut rules, other features can be categorized as learnable (acquirable) outside the classroom after a good deal of exposure to the language. There seems to be a one-to-one correspondence between what is crucial to EIL intelligibility and teachability. Hence when an item is not relevant to EIL intelligibility, it is rarely learnt regardless of the time and effort spent on it in the classroom. Learners are unlikely to be motivated to make substantial effort and master the item. In reverse, where an item is widely unteachable, it is also irrelevant to EIL. (2000, p. 2, 120, 133)

Jenkins conducted a research the aim of which was “to identify those segmental and suprasegmental features that obstruct the intelligibility of pronunciation in ELF (but not EFL or ENL) interaction when pronounced with L₁ influence” (2007, p.22). She argued that those features that are systematically pronounced incorrectly and do not impede intelligibility for an NNS listener, should be considered legitimate features of the speaker’s regional accent, putting it on an equal footing with regional NS accents. This would also give NNSs the same right to express their geographical identity as has always been enjoyed by NSs. She called her pronunciation proposals the Lingua Franca Core (figure 6) where she assigned those items that are important for successful communication. She also contrasted it with features typically considered necessary for EFL communication. Jenkins stressed that the LFC should not be viewed as a norm or model for imitation and believes that the model is not the LFC but the local teacher whose accent incorporates both the core items and the local version of the non-core items. Also it is important not to discourage learners who want to gain a NS accent for practical or personal reasons. (ibid, p. 22-26)

	EFL target Traditional syllabus	ELF target Lingua Franca Core
1. The consonantal inventory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • all sounds close RP/GA • RP non-rhotic /r/ • GA rhotic /r/ • RP intervocalic [t] • GA intervocalic [r] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • all sounds except /θ/, /ð/ but approximations of all others acceptable • rhotic /r/ only • intervocalic [t] only
2. Phonetic requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rarely specified 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • aspiration after /p/, /t/, /k/ • appropriate vowel length before fortis/lenis consonants
3. Consonant clusters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • all word positions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • word initially, word medially
4. Vowel quantity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • long – short contrast 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • long – short contrast
5. Tonic (nuclear) stress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • important 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • critical

Figure 6: EFL and ELF pronunciation targets: core features

(Jenkins 2002 in Jenkins 2007, p. 23)

The aim of ELT is the communicative competence, which implies flexible usage of language in various situations with various interlocutors. Based on the ELF and EFL targets above, I summarized the items which I find important for successful communication with different interlocutors and used them as a reference for phonological errors recorded in the observation sheets:

- consonant sounds close RP/GA; usual substitutions of /θ/, /ð/ permissible
- stronger aspiration after /p/, /t/, /k/ if important for intelligibility
- initial and medial consonant clusters not simplified, simplification of final consonant clusters permissible
- all vowel sounds close RP/GA
- appropriate vowel length before fortis/lenis consonants
- contrast between long and short vowels
- tonic (nuclear) stress

3. 1. 7. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION – OBSERVATIONS

In this chapter I will elaborate on the data collected in the frontal teaching observation sheets.

We can see that the amount of fluency focused activities was smaller in comparison with accuracy focused activities. However, the division is very rough as it states the position on a continuum, rather than a category. Most of the activities that I labelled as fluency focused lies close the middle of the continuum. No remarkable differences in the treatment of pre-communicative and communicative activities were observed.

One hundred and seventy-two errors were recorded. Forty-two errors remained uncorrected, which is roughly one quarter. Only two global errors were recorded and were both corrected. Nine errors were located in the activity type labelled as ‘other’ and five of them remained uncorrected so no distinct difference in treatment of these special activity types was found and this is also the case with ‘reading aloud’, where seven out of thirty-seven errors were not corrected.

Postponed correction was used in two cases. It happened in relation to activities where learners were reading or singing from a textbook.

In all the recorded errors, the agent of intervention was the teacher. In forty-eight cases out of the total number, the chance for self-correction was given. In half of these cases learners were able to self-correct. In seventeen cases learners were not able to self correct. However, it seemed that sometimes they were not given enough time to think about the error. In five cases was the correct model provided chorally by more learners and in two cases by a peer learner.

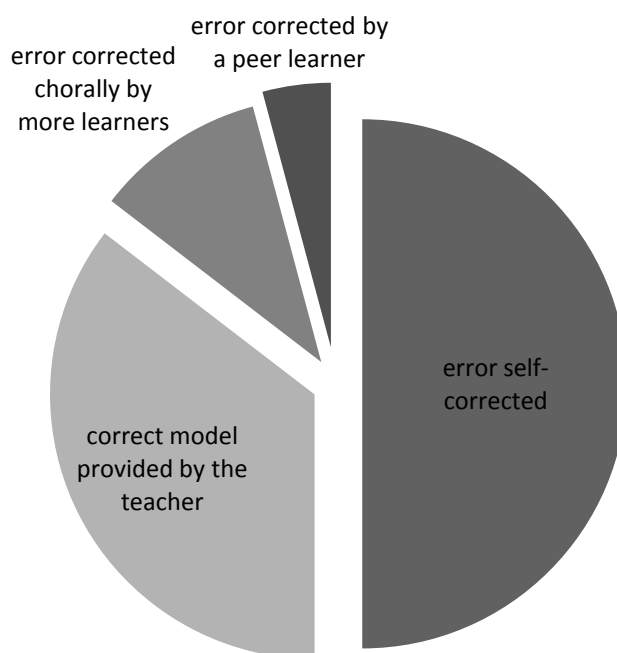


Figure 7: Correcting person when chance for self-correction given

The most common type of feedback was direct correction providing the correct model but other types also appeared, mainly statement or explanation in the Czech language. In five cases was used English. This was done by teacher 3 in the sixth and the ninth grades. I find this appropriate taking into consideration the level of the learners. The manner of feedback was appropriate in the overwhelming majority of correction, only in one case I found the manner slightly inappropriate. It related to teacher 2.

As for group work, it appeared in five out of the seventeen observed lessons, only in the lessons of teacher 3 and teacher 4. The instructions were always clearly given. In all of the cases the teacher was monitoring the activity and in one case was also participating. The number of activities in groups was nine. After four of the activities there was a sufficient feedback and after the remaining activities no feedback was given. As mentioned previously, even when the teacher is satisfied with the activity, he should briefly comment on it so that the learners know that they did well.

3. 1. 8. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION – QUESTIONNAIRE

I collected one hundred and fifty questionnaires in the following ratio: teacher 1 – forty, teacher 2 – nineteen, teacher 3 – fifty-four, teacher 4 – thirty-seven. I used the tallying

technique to count the number of answers. Below follows the analysis of the questionnaire items, stating the number of answers with the ratio of answers for each teacher (teacher 1 + teacher 2 + teacher 3 + teacher 4). The most frequent answers are highlighted in bold.

Item A) 1.

- a. – 28 answers (5+4+18+1)
- b. – **104** answers (33+12+34+25)
- c. – 14 answers (1+1+1+11)
- d. – 4 answers (1+2+1+0)

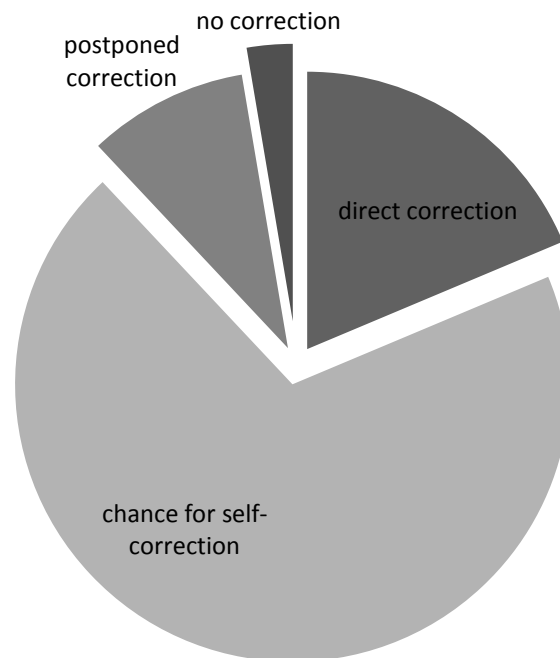


Figure 8: Learner preferences in correction

The first item shows that the majority of learners (104) want to be informed immediately that they made an error but they want to be given an opportunity for self-correction. Twenty-eight answers relate to direct correction providing the correct model. Fourteen answers relate to postponed correction. Only four learners do not want to be corrected at all. This corresponds to a survey by Philip Harmer, which also proved preferences in direct correction as opposed to postponed correction. (in Harmer 2007, p.

143) However, as mentioned in the theoretical part, professionals suggest that in some cases postponed correction might be more effective. Teachers have to pay attention to learner's preferences as well as to their belief about what is the best treatment as regards the particular activity and the individual learner.

Item A) 2.

- a. – 28 answers (7+4+7+10)
- b. – 30 answers (8+3+14+5)
- c. – **92** answers (25+12+33+22)

This item shows that most of the learners do not care whether they are corrected by their teacher or their peers. Still, many learners prefer to be corrected by their peers and the amount of learners who prefer teacher correction to peer-correction is similar. This suggest that it would be worth for the teacher to find out the preferences of the particular group and think about the reason of the results mainly in connection with the atmosphere and relationships within the group.

Item A) 3.

- a. – 7 answers (3+2+2+0)
- b. – **84** answers (19+9+21+35)
- c. – 52 answers (16+5+29+2)
- d. – 7 answers (2+3+2+0)

This item informs us that the most usual behaviour of learners at the time when they notice an error is to point the error out. However, large number of learners usually wait for the teacher to make the correction. Maybe this is because some of the learners themselves do not like to be corrected by their peers. Only seven answers relate to direct correction of peers and the same number of learners stated that they do not listen to other learners speaking which is not a positive finding and the teacher should consider the reasons for this behaviour and ways of preventing it.

Item B) 1.

- a. – **100** answers (24+13+32+31)

- b. – 47 answers (15+5+21+6)
- c. – 3 answers (1+1+1+0)

The first item concerning group work shows that most of the learners often correct each other. Forty-seven learners stated that they do not correct each other too much and only three learners stated that they never correct each other during group work.

Item B) 2.

- a. – **139** answers (38+14+51+36)
- b. – 11 answers (2+5+3+1)

The great majority of learners consider the feedback on group work sufficient, while eleven learners do not know whether they did well or whether they should improve something. This answer stated five learners of teacher 2 out of nineteen, which is 26.3 percent.

Item B) 3.

- a. – 74 answers (10+5+25+34)
- b. – **76** answers (30+14+29+3)

The opinions about the fact that in group work occur errors that remain uncorrected are contrasting, the number of answers is almost matching. Again it would be good to find out preferences of the particular group of learners. It can also point out to inappropriate teacher correction, though. If the learners are not satisfied with the way their teacher treats their errors during frontal teaching, either because of the manner or the frequency of correction, they then might appreciate the possibility of speaking without correction during group work. The figures suggest that it could be the case of teacher 2, and on the other hand, the majority of teacher 4 learners prefer their errors to be corrected which can refer to the fact that learners find their teacher's feedback appropriate and helpful to their learning. If this is the case, the teacher should explain why group work can also be beneficial to their learning.

Item C)

- a. – **148** answers (40+17+54+37)

b. – 2 answers (0+2+0+0)

This item that refers generally to both frontal teaching and group work shows that the overwhelming majority of learners are mostly satisfied with the way how their teacher treats their errors. Only two learners are not satisfied with the way how their teacher treats their errors. Both of these answers relate to teacher 2 and this opinion has 10.5 percent of teacher 2 learners.

3. 2. CONCLUSION OF THE PRACTICAL PART

Let us answer two research questions raised:

1. How do teachers treat different types of errors in spoken language?
 - Direct techniques of error correction prevail.
 - Teachers dominate the correction process.
 - The chance for self-correction is not given as often as it could be.
 - Minority of errors remains uncorrected. These errors are local errors only.
 - Postponed correction is not frequent.
 - Teachers provide feedback in appropriate manner.
 - After group work teachers do not always give feedback.
2. How do learners react to different types of error treatment?
 - Learners generally want to be corrected.
 - Learners usually want to be given the opportunity for self-correction.
 - When learners get a chance for self-correction, they are often able to correct themselves.
 - Many learners do not care whether they are corrected by the teacher or by other learners but considerable amount of learners form a definite opinion.
 - Most of the learners like to be active and point errors out but a great number of them usually let the teacher make the correction. Yet, this does not correspond to the observations where there appeared no direct peer intervention and small amount of peer correction.

- During group work learners like to be active in correction. Most of the learners find the feedback sufficient. Preferences concerning uncorrected errors are contrasting and differ by group.
- Learners are generally satisfied with the manner of feedback.

The question arises of whether the findings of this research can be generalized outside the sample examined. Bygate believes that given the difficulties in obtaining, generalizing and communicating specialist research results, as well as the fact that sophisticated teaching depends significantly on teacher's self-critical awareness, specialist research can have only limited relevance and that the most important factor is the teacher's own understanding of the effects of his own decisions. (1991, p. VII)

Regarding individual teachers, there are noticeable divergences with teacher 2. The learners of this teacher receive insufficient feedback after group works. They also enjoy speaking without constant correction which can point to impropriety of manner or frequency of error treatment during frontal teaching. This supposition supports the fact that the only inappropriate manner of feedback was recorded in connection with this teacher.

4. CONCLUSION

To draw conclusions it is necessary to contrast recommendations of experts with the reality observed in the classrooms and with learner preferences.

It is suggested that learner errors are corrected because it helps to increase the level of the language. This also corresponds to the reality as majority of learner errors are corrected and also learners themselves wish to be corrected.

It does not seem to be effective to correct all learner errors, though. The attention should be paid mainly to errors that hinder communication of the message. Teachers really correct most of learner errors, including global ones. No significant difference in treatment of different activity types was found. Experts suggest that in some activities postponed correction might be more suitable, but teachers use it only minimally. It would be worth considering whether it is really necessary to interrupt the activities so often as it can affect the flow of the activity and also it might discourage some learners.

Sometimes, during pair work or group work, it is not even manageable to catch all errors but it is recommended that learners are given opportunities to try to get the meaning across only with the help of the listener, similarly as in real life. On the other hand, many learners do not like the fact that a large number of their errors remain uncorrected. After group work, teachers should provide at least general feedback, which is not always the case and some learners are not sure about their performance.

It does not appear to be very effective to provide directly the correct model. Learners should usually be given the opportunity for self-correction. However, they are not given it very often although they would like to be. As mentioned previously, if learners are made aware of the fact that they made an error, they can think about what the problem was and they can often get the correct answer. Through self-correction they can learn from their errors.

Peer correction is also desirable because other learners are also forced to think about what the problem was but this type of correction can be used only in classrooms with cooperative atmosphere. The research showed that many learners do not care who corrects them but it is not the rule for all learners; some of them feel more comfortable when corrected by their peers and some do not. Learners are not used to correct each other very often, even they claim that they are active in pointing out errors. It would be worth to find out the reasons for preferences of the particular group of learners and work on improvement of the atmosphere as well as on active participation of learners in the correction process so that the potential of self-correction and peer correction could be made use of.

RESUMÉ

Tato práce se zabývá tématem práce s chybou ve výuce mluvení. Cílem teoretické části je zjistit zda, které, kdy, jak a kým by měly chyby být opravovány, což je založeno na názoru odborníků. Cílem praktické části je zjistit jak učitelé pracují s různými typy chyb v mluveném projevu a jak žáci reagují na různé způsoby práce s chybou. Praktická část je založena na výzkumu provedeném ve vzdělávacích institucích.

Teoretická část práce je rozdělena do jedenácti kapitol.

V první kapitole je přestaven pohled na chyby v průběhu minulosti až po současný pohled. Mezi metody, které se v minulosti používaly pro výuku jazyků patřily 'Grammar-translation', 'Direct' a 'Audiolingual'. Tyto metody se soustředily vždy na rozvoj jen některých řečových dovedností. Chyba byla většinou považována za něco čemu je potřeba se v každém případě vyvarovat.

Od konce šedesátých let však díky novým studiím v oblasti jazyka a psychologie nastal odklon od těchto metod k více komunikativnímu přístupu. Pro komunikativní výuku jazyků se stala cílem komunikativní kompetence, přičemž předchozí metody se zaměřovaly pouze na kompetenci lingvistickou. V souvislosti s komunikativní výukou jazyků se obvykle mluví o přístupu, spíše než o metodě, jelikož může být vnímán různými způsoby a neexistuje univerzálně přijímaný model. Komunikativní kompetence jako cíl cizojazyčné výuky je definována ve druhé kapitole. Tento přístup ovlivňuje pojetí výuky v současnosti. V souvislosti s tímto přístupem je zmíněna sociálně konstruktivistická teorie učení.

Třetí kapitola pak popisuje roli chyb v současném pojetí cizojazyčné výuky. Poukazuje na to, že chyby často signalizují, že proces jazykové akvizice probíhá a je tedy považována za přirozenou součást učení se cizímu jazyku. Jsou známkou toho, že žákova zjednodušená forma cílového jazyka se přibližuje modelu. Chyby jsou také důležitou informací o efektivitě učitelových metod.

V následující kapitole jsou popsány různé aspekty řečové dovednosti mluvení a důležitost výuky mluvení. Mluvení je rozděleno na ústní produkci a interakci a jejich podskupiny.

Pátá kapitola poukazuje na specifika mluveného projevu, například ve srovnání s psaným projevem. Každá promluva žáka cizím jazyce na něj klade vysoké kognitivní požadavky, přičemž při ústním projevu je omezen časově. Toto jsou důvody proč žáci často dělají chyby i v případě že ve skutečnosti znají všechna pravidla.

Různé způsoby rozlišování aktivit zaměřených na rozvoj mluvení jsou popsány v šesté kapitole. Způsob opravování chyb by se měl lišit v závislosti na cíli aktivity, u některých aktivit zaměřených na plynulost projevu například může být vhodnější aktivitu nepřerušovat a vrátit se k chybě zpětně. Jsou zde zmíněny také různé organizační formy výuky a jejich klady a zápory z pohledu práce s chybou.

Pokud chceme přistupovat k chybám vhodně, měli bychom znát jednotlivé typy chyb, které se mohou v mluveném projevu vyskytnout. Různé taxonomie jsou popsány v sedmé kapitole.

V další kapitole se diskutuje, které chyby měly mít při opravování prioritu. Jsou to zejména chyby, které výrazným způsobem naruší komunikaci.

Devátá kapitola navrhuje způsoby, jak může být provedena intervence a chyba opravena. Nejprve ale ukazuje možnosti, kým chyba může být opravena. Bývá efektivnější, pokud chyba není opravena přímo, ale když je žákovi nejprve dána možnost se opravit sám. Pokud není schopen chybu opravit, je vhodné nechat jeho spolužáky, aby jej opravili. Pokud ale ve třídě nepanuje příjemná atmosféra pro spolupráci, nemusí tento způsob opravování některým žákům vyhovovat.

Desátá kapitola upozorňuje, že je vždy nutné být při opravování chyb velice citliví, protože nevhodný přístup k žákům může mít za důsledek demotivaci žáků. Může dokonce způsobit, že žáci se budou bát mluvit, pokud si nebudou úplně jistí, že neudělají chybu. Taková situace samozřejmě brání žákům v učení a akvizici.

Závěr teoretické části se snaží odpovědět na předem vytyčené otázky a shrnout informace z předchozích kapitol. Závěrem této části je, že žáci by měli být opravováni, protože to pomáhá zvýšit jejich úroveň jazyka. Jak už bylo zmíněno, opraveny by měly být zejména chyby, které vedou k nesrozumitelnosti zprávy nebo nedorozumění. Ne všechny chyby musí být opraveny okamžitě a ne všechny chyby musí opravovat učitelé.

Žáci by měli být aktivně zapojeni do procesu poskytování zpětné vazby, zejména by měla být žákovi dána možnost se nad chybou zamyslet a opravit se sám.

Praktická část práce je rozdělena do deseti kapitol.

Nejdříve je nastíněn cíl a typ výzkumu a jsou definovány výzkumné otázky. První otázka zní: Jak učitelé pracují s různými chybami žáků ve výuce mluvení? Druhá otázka zní: Jak žáci reagují na různé způsoby práce s chybou? Ke zodpovězení otázek je použit kvantitativní přístup k výzkumu, jelikož výzkum se opírá o statistická data a výpočty.

Následně je popsána metodologie výzkumu. Pro zodpovězení první výzkumné otázky se zdála být nejvhodnější série observací. Byly navrženy observační archy, do nichž byly zaznamenány pozorované situace. Druhá výzkumná otázka již nemohla být zodpovězena pomocí observací. Reakcí na způsob opravování chyb rozumím zejména vnitřní nepozorovatelnou reakci, to znamená vliv na jejich postoje či preference ohledně práce s chybou. Proto byl navrhnut dotazník. Vnější pozorovatelná reakce je pouze schopnost žáka se opravit, což je zaznamenáno v observačních arších.

Výzkum byl proveden ve dvou institucích – dvou základních školách. Observace byly provedeny celkem u čtyř učitelů a celkem bylo provedeno sedmnáct observací. Co se týče věku žáků, observace byly provedeny ve všech ročnících od třetího do devátého. Z důvodu etiky výzkumu bylo každému učiteli přiděleno v této práci číslo 1 – 4. Dotazníky byly vybrány od sto padesáti žáků.

V páté kapitole je rozepsán obsah observačních archů po jednotlivých položkách. Byly použity dva druhy archů, jeden pro frontální výuku, druhý pro skupinovou práci. Každý arch má hlavičku kde je uvedeno číslo archu, datum pozorování, ročník, číslo učitele a pozorovatel. Pod každým archem je pro představu o hodině také uvedena přibližná doba trvání aktivit zaměřených na mluvení.

Šestá kapitola popisuje práci s druhým nástrojem výzkumu, dotazníkem. Dotazníky byly rozdány na konci vyučovacích hodin a hned vybrány. Žáci byli informováni, že dotazník je anonymní a bylo ověřeno, že rozumí všem otázkám. Dotazník byl rozdělen do tří částí, první se týkala frontální výuky, druhá skupinové práce a třetí byla všeobecná.

Následující kapitola vysvětluje, jakým způsobem je v této práci definována výslovnostní chyba. V nedávné době anglický jazyk získal status světového jazyka, což ovlivňuje pohled na výslovnostní chybu.

Osmá kapitola analyzuje a interpretuje data získaná observacemi. Přibližně čtvrtina zaznamenaných chyb nebyla opravena. Byly pozorovány pouze dvě chyby, které měly vliv na pochopení zprávy, obě byly opraveny. Ve všech případech upozornil na chybu učitel. Žákům byla někdy dána možnost se opravit, ale žáci by měli tuto možnost dostat častěji. Pokud ji dostali, často se byli schopni sami opravit. Co se týče skupinové práce, ne vždy byla po skončení aktivity poskytnuta zpětná vazba.

Další kapitola zpracovává data získaná z dotazníků. Říká nám, že žáci chtějí být opravováni, ale chtějí nejprve dostat možnost se zamyslet nad chybou a opravit se sami. Většinou je žákům jedno zda je opravuje učitel nebo spolužáci, preference různých skupin se ale mohou více vyhraňovat. Většina žáků považuje zpětnou vazbu po skupinové práci za dostatečnou. Valná většina žáků je také spokojena s celkovým přístupem jejich učitele k chybám žáků.

V závěru praktické části jsou shrnuty výsledky výzkumu. Jsou zde zodpovězeny výzkumné otázky položené na začátku.

V závěru celé práce jsou porovnány závěry teoretické a praktické části. Zdá se být vhodné, aby chyby byly opravovány a že žáci si přejí být opravováni a to také bylo zjištěno při observacích. Není nutné opravovat všechny chyby, můžeme ale věnovat větší pozornost těm, které nějak narušují komunikaci a ty které se objevují často. Výzkumem bylo zjištěno, že toto odpovídá skutečnosti. Záleží ale také na typu aktivity. Výzkum ukázal, že převažují přímé techniky práce s chybou a že učitelé zaujímají dominantní pozici při opravování chyb žáků. Není ale doporučeno, aby většinu zodpovědnosti za opravování měl učitel a aby bylo často použito přímé korekce. Ačkoli výzkum ukázal, že někdy je žákům umožněno se opravit, ale většinu zodpovědnosti nesou učitelé. Žáci vykazují zájem podílet se aktivně na opravování, ale často se tak neděje. Proto je třeba zjistit důvody u konkrétních skupin žáků a zamyslet se zda by nebylo efektivnější zapracovat na zlepšení atmosféry ve třídě, aby mohl být lépe využit potenciál který má opravování sebe sama a svých spolužáků.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Components of communicative language ability in communicative language use

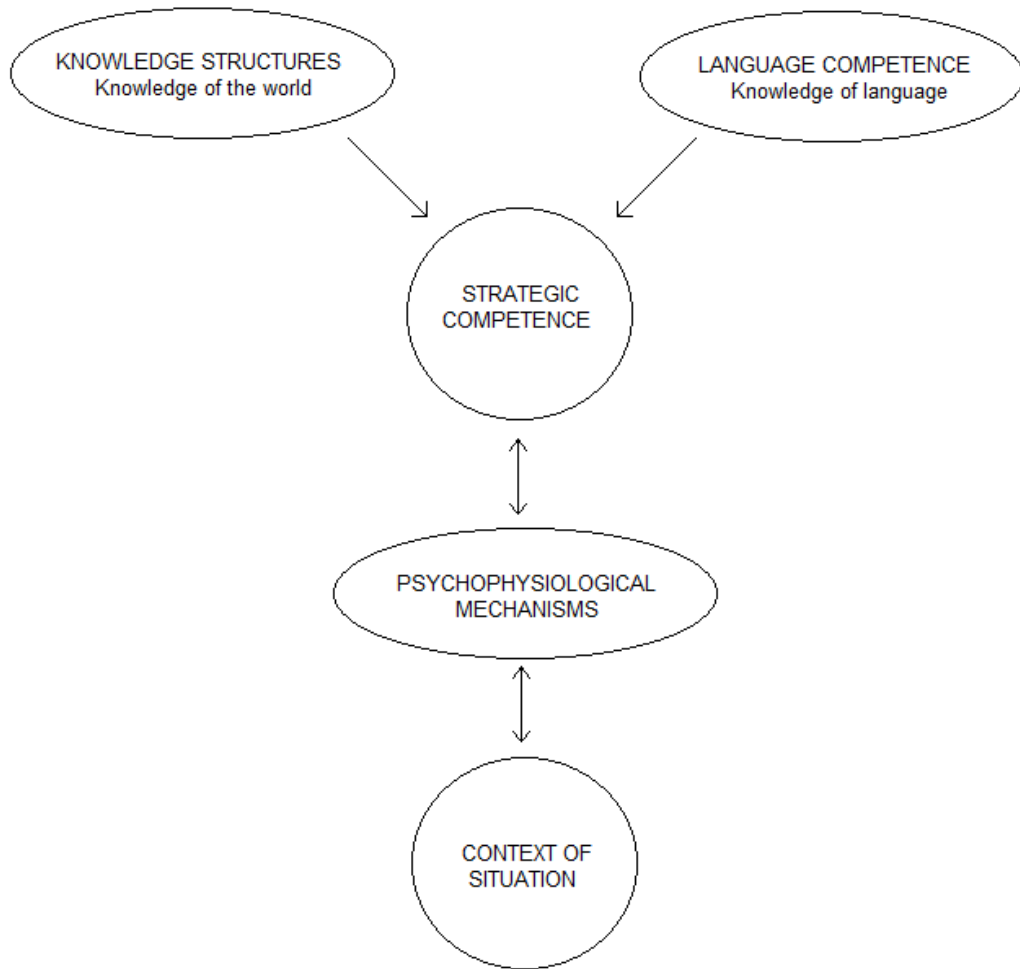
Appendix 2 – Four categories of core speaking skills

Appendix 3 – A model for classroom treatment of speech errors

Appendix 4 – Questionnaire

Appendix 5 – Observation sheets

Appendix 1



Components of communicative language ability in communicative language use

(Bachman 1990, p. 85)

Appendix 2

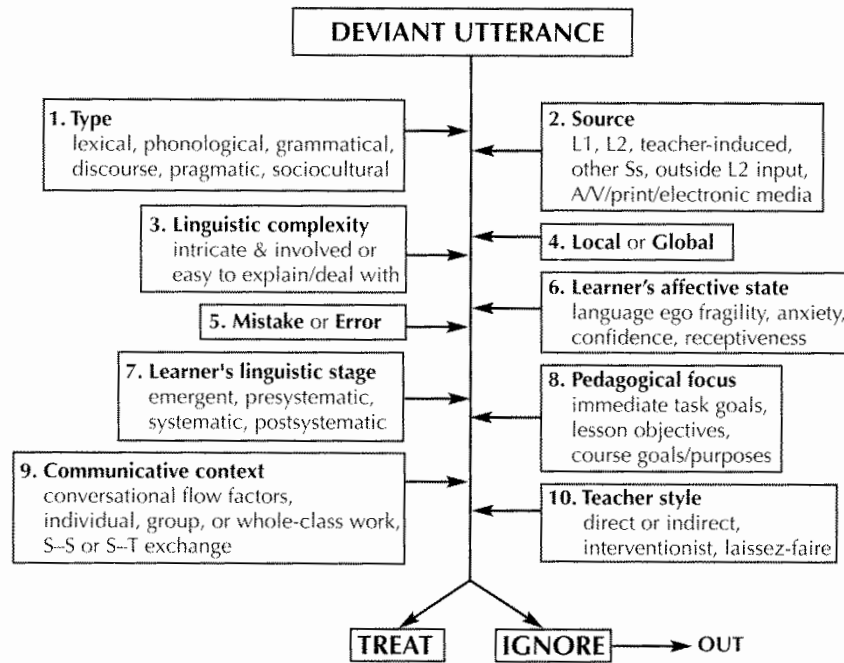
Core skill	Specific skills*
a. Pronunciation Produce the sounds of the target language at the segmental and suprasegmental levels.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Articulate the vowels and consonants and blended sounds of English clearly.• Assign word stress in prominent words to indicate meaning.• Use different intonation patterns to communicate new and old information.
b. Speech function Perform a precise communicative function or speech act.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Request: permission, help, clarification, assistance, etc.• Express: encouragement, agreement, thanks, regret, good wishes, disagreement, disapproval, complaints, tentativeness, etc.• Explain: reasons, purposes, procedures, cause and effect, etc.• Give: instructions, directions, commands, orders, opinions, etc.• Offer: advice, condolences, suggestions, alternatives, etc.• Describe: events, people, objects, settings, moods, etc.• Others.
c. Interaction management** Regulate conversations and discussions during interactions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Initiate, maintain, and end conversations.• Offer turns.• Direct conversations.• Clarify meaning.• Change topics.• Recognize and use verbal and non-verbal cues.
d. Discourse organization Create extended discourse in various spoken genres, accordingly to socioculturally appropriate conventions of language.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Establish coherence and cohesion in extended discourse through lexical and grammatical choices.• Use discourse markers and intonation to signpost changes in the discourse, such as a change of topic.• Use linguistic conventions to structure spoken texts for various communicative purposes, e.g., recounts and narratives.

* These are important speaking skills within each category of core skills. The lists are not exhaustive.
** Some linguists refer to this as "discourse management."

Four categories of core speaking skills

(Goh, Burns 2012, p. 59)

Appendix 3



WHEN?	immediately	end of utterance			much later
WHO?	T	another S	whole class	self	
HOW?	fact indicated	location indicated	correction modeled	type/source indicated	metalinguistic explanation
a. input to S					
b. manner	indirect/unintrusive			direct/intrusive	
c. S's output	none	rephrase utterance			
d. follow-up	none	"okay"	"good"	[gush]	
• affective					
• cognitive	none	acknowledge	verbalize	further clarification	

A model for classroom treatment of speech errors

(Brown 2000, p. 240)

Appendix 4

DOTAZNÍK – Mluvení v anglickém jazyce.

A) Frontální výuka – učitel/ka pracuje s celou třídou společně

1. Pokud udělám chybu, preferuji když:
 - a. mě učitel okamžitě opraví.
 - b. učitel signalizuje, že jsem udělal/a chybu, ale dá mi možnost se zamyslet a opravit se sám/sama.
 - c. mě učitel neopravuje, ale pouze si zapisuje chyby, které jsem udělal/a a chyby projdeme, až domluvíme.
 - d. mě učitel vůbec neopravuje.

2. Když mě opraví spolužáci sami nebo učitel nechá spolužáky mě opravit, tak:
 - a. je mi to příjemnější než když mě opraví učitel.
 - b. je mi to méně příjemné než když mě opraví učitel.
 - c. je mi to jedno.

3. Když si myslím, že spolužák udělal chybu:
 - a. rovnou ho opravím.
 - b. pouze upozorním na chybu.
 - c. opravu nechám na učiteli.
 - d. neposlouchám, když spolužáci mluví.

B) Práce ve skupinách a dvojicích

1. Při práci ve skupinách nebo dvojicích:
 - a. se často vzájemně opravujeme.
 - b. se příliš neopravujeme.
 - c. se nikdy neopravujeme.

2. Informace od učitele o tom, jak jsem si při mluvení vedl/a:
 - a. je pro mě dostačující, vím, co jsem zvládl/a dobře a co bych naopak měl/a zlepšit a jak.
 - b. není pro mě dostačující, nevím, jestli bych měl/a něco změnit nebo ne.

3. To, že se ve skupinové práci vyskytnou chyby, které nejsou ihned opraveny, mi:
 - a. vadí, preferuji když jsou chyby co nejdříve opraveny.
 - b. nevadí, preferuji když můžeme mluvit bez neustálého opravování.

C) Všeobecně, způsob, jakým můj učitel /moje učitelka opravuje moje chyby, mi:

- a. spíše vyhovuje.
- b. spíše nevyhovuje, protože

_____.

Appendix 5

OS1: Date: 20 May 2013

Class and teacher: 8th year, Teacher 1

Observer: Eva Benešová

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
[mountain] - mountain	How do you say...?	O	/	P	/	X	X	X	/
[area] - area	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[clues] - clues	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[flooded] - flooded	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[looked] - looked	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	X	X	X	/

speaking activities: 10 min

OS2: Date: 20 May 2013

Class and teacher: 7th year, Teacher 1

Observer: Eva Benešová

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
Do you are from?	asking questions	C	F	G	L	S - CZ	TI	S	√
[studi] - study	asking questions	C	F	P	L	X	X	X	/
Do you have children?	asking questions	C	F	G	L	X	X	X	/
I wear today	describing clothes	P	A	G	L	X	X	X	/
black sock	describing clothes	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
[swi:tʃ:t] - sweatshirt	describing clothes	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[swi:tʃ:t] - sweatshirt	describing clothes	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√

speaking activities: 15 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
[gʌsts] - guests	How do you say...?	O	/	P	L	C	TC	T	√
batman - boatman	answering questions about a text	P	A	L	L	E	TI	S	√
petrolman – petrol attendant	answering questions about a text	P	A	L	L	S - CZ	TI	Ls	√
[bʌzi] – busy	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	S – CZ	TI	T	√
[ʌislend] – island	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[ð] island – the island	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	EXP – CZ	TI	S	√
that's impossible – that's 1 pound	completing and matching a statement with a person	P	A	L	L	S – CZ	TI	T	√
shopman – shop assistant	completing and matching a statement with a person	P	A	L	L	C	TC	T	√
[heɪr] - hair	completing and matching a statement with a person	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[wɜ:k] - work	completing and matching a statement with a person	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[pɪləts] – pilots	completing and matching a statement with a person	P	A	P	L	S – CZ	TI	T	√
[wɜ:k] – work	completing and matching a statement with a person	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[wɜ:k] - works	asking a teacher to check a sentence	O	/	P+G	L	EX	TC	T	√

speaking activities: 15 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
I'm bad.	answering questions	P	A	A	L	X	X	X	/
I can bananas	answering questions	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
What?	answering questions	P	A	A	L	X	X	X	/
pour the glass with water	answering questions	P	A	G	L	REF	TC	T	√
[fiv] hundred thousand - five	working with textbook	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[letr] – later	working with textbook	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
was find – was found	exercise on passive voice	P	A	G	L	EX	TI	T	√
were arrest – were arrested	exercise on passive voice	P	A	G	L	EX	TI	T	√
jeans is made	exercise on passive voice	P	A	G	L	EXP-CZ	TI	S	X
[pɔɪrɪz] – pairs	exercise on passive voice	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
are grown – grow	exercise on passive voice	P	A	G	L	EXP-CZ	TI	S	√
to take – are taken	exercise on passive voice	P	A	G	L	EXP-CZ	TI	S	√
taken – are taken	exercise on passive voice	P	A	G	L	EXP-CZ	TI	S	√
are transport – are transported	exercise on passive voice	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
are keep – are kept	exercise on passive voice	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
[ʃi:p] - ship	exercise on passive voice	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[kɒmfəteɪbl] - comfortable	making complaints	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
sausages is	making complaints	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√

OS4: Date: 20 May 2013

Class and teacher: 9th year, Teacher 2

Observer: Eva Benešová

[sem] - same	answering questions	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
I'm locking – I lock	answering questions	P	A	G	L	F	TI	T	√
me don't starter	answering questions	P	A	G	L	X	X	X	/

speaking activities: 20 min

OS5: Date: 27 May 2013

Class and teacher: 9th year, Teacher 2

Observer: Eva Benešová

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
[jʌnuəri] - january	answering questions	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
I borrowed book.	make up a sentence	P	A	G	L	S – CZ	TI	S	√
[oʊn] - own	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[letr] - later	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[kloʊtɪs] - clothes	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[ʌnfəɪr] – unfair	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[ʌnstli] – honestly	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[hɜ:] - here	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
she must – she has to	questions about a text	P	A	G	L	S – CZ	TI	S	√
she wants Maria go to a concert	questions about a text	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√

speaking activities: 10 min

OS6: Date: 27 May 2013

Class and teacher: 6th year, Teacher 1

Observer: Eva Benešová

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
[drived] – drove	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[knev] – knew	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	EXP – CZ	X	T	√
had eating – had eaten	exercise on past perfect	P	A	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	P	√
shelf – cupboard	exercise on past perfect	P	A	V	L	EXP – CZ	TI	Ls	√
drive – drove	questions about a trip	C	F	G	L	C	TC	T	√
the eat – food	questions about a trip	C	F	V	L	C	TC	T	√
at midnight – at noon	questions about a trip	C	F	V	G	S - CZ	TI	P	√

speaking activities: 15 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
[sleiging] – sledge	What do you do in winter?	C	F	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[sʌks] – socks	What do you do in winter?	C	F	P	L	X	X	X	/
I'm reading – I read	What do you do in winter?	C	F	G	L	EXP – EN	TI	T	√
[kʌp] – cap	What do you do in winter?	C	F	P	L	S – EN	TI	T	√
What are you doing in autumn?	What do you do in autumn?	C	F	G	L	EXP – EN	TI	T	√
dragon – kite	What do you do in winter?	C	F	V	L	C	TC	T	√
on autumn – in autumn	What do you do in winter?	C	F	G	L	C	TC	T	√
[sʌks] – socks	What do you do in winter?	C	F	P	L	C	TC	T	√
dragon – kite	What do you do in winter?	C	F	V	L	C	TC	T	√
double [vi:] - w	spelling a word	P	A	P	L	E	TI	Ls	√

speaking activities: 10 min

OS7: Date: 27 May 2013

Class and teacher: 9th year, Teacher 3

Observer: Eva Benešová

Instruction before the activity	Actions of the teacher during the activity	Feedback after the activity
discuss weather, clothes and activities in winter	monitoring	two pairs demonstrate it aloud
discuss weather, clothes and activities in autumn	monitoring	two pairs demonstrate it aloud
two groups, one person in one group reading aloud a text and then all members answering questions related to the text	monitoring and sometimes correcting pronunciation	
the same, the groups swap places	monitoring and sometimes correcting pronunciation	

speaking activities: 30 min

OS8: Date: 27 May 2013

Class and teacher: 5th year, Teacher 3

Observer: Eva Benešová

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
Mrs teacher	greeting	O	/	A	L	X	X	X	/
my mother is name	answering questions	C	F	G	L	C	TC	T	√
head – a head	translating vocabulary	O	/	G	L	H	TI	S	√
feet – foot	translating vocabulary	O	/	V	L	EXP - CZ	TI	S	√
a tree is – there is a tree	picture description	P	A	G	L	REF	TC	T	√
a cat on – there is a cat on	picture description	P	A	G	L	EXP - CZ	TI	S	√
It's color bird blue.	picture description	P	A	G	L	REF	TC	T	√
[det] – dad	presenting a project	C	F	P	L	X	X	X	/
[dʒi:rs] – years	presenting a project	C	F	P	L	X	X	X	/
it has – it had	presenting a project	C	F	G	L	C	TC	T	√
I from – I'm from	presenting a project	C	F	G	L	C	TC	T	√
[li:vd] – lived	presenting a project	C	F	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[prɔjekt] – project	presenting a project	C	F	P	L	C	TC	T	√
was small – it was small	presenting a project	C	F	G	L	EXP - CZ	TC	T	√
[lɪvɪd] - lived	presenting a project	C	F	P	L	C	TC	T	√

speaking activities: 25 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
Mrs teacher	greeting	O	/	A	L	X	X	X	/
teacher is white T-shirt	differences between two people	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
Jirka is black jeans	differences between two people	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
Mrs teacher better	differences between two people	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
he is stay on one leg	differences between two people	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
it's a clothes	guessing clothes	C	A	G	L	X	X	X	/
he can wear on head	guessing clothes	C	A	G	L	X	X	X	/
he wear it in summer	guessing clothes	C	A	G	L	X	X	X	/
three words – three letters	guessing clothes	C	A	V	L	C	TC	T	√

speaking activities: 15 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
twenty thirteen - 2013	answering questions	P	F	G	L	X	X	X	/
protect – to protect	roleplay - questioning a guide	P	F	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	T	√
princess – princesses	roleplay - questioning a guide	P	F	G	L	X	X	X	/
What name has ...?	roleplay - questioning a guide	P	F	G	L	X	X	X	/
When Queen Elizabeth died?	answering questions about a text	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
When did Queen Elizabeth died?	answering questions about a text	P	A	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	T	√
fifteen five four – 1554	answering questions about a text	P	A	G	L	S – CZ	TI	S	√
When Walter died?	answering questions about a text	P	A	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	T	√
[servd] – served	answering questions about a text	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[dʒevls] – jewels	answering questions about a text	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[kʌt] – caught	answering questions about a text	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[revns] - ravens	answering questions about a text	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	√

speaking activities: 15 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
Mrs teacher	greeting	O	/	A	L	X	X	X	/
I playing football	exercise on present simple/continuous	P	A	G	L	R	TI	S	√
You are reading? – Do you read?	exercise on present simple/continuous	P	A	G	L	EXP - CZ	TI	S	√
Do you reading? – Are you reading?	exercise on present simple/continuous	P	A	G	L	EXP - CZ	TI	S	√
[det] – dad	reading from a handout	R	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[vorks] – works	reporting data from a questionnaire	C	F	P	L	X	X	X	/
he is like – he likes	reporting data from a questionnaire	C	F	G	L	S – EN	TI	S	√
he dad – his dad	reporting data from a questionnaire	C	F	G	L	C	TC	T	√
he is working – he works	reporting data from a questionnaire	C	F	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	T	√
[her] – her	reporting data from a questionnaire	C	F	P	L	X	X	X	/
is work – works	reporting data from a questionnaire	C	F	G	L	S – EN	TI	T	√
[kʌp] - cap	find unsuitable word	P	A	P	L	R	TI	Ls	√

speaking activities: 15 min

OS11: Date: 29 May 2013

Class and teacher: 6th year, Teacher 3

Observer: Eva Benešová

Instruction before the activity	Actions of the teacher during the activity	Feedback after the activity
spelling of individual letters	monitoring	choral repetition of letters where were problems
questionnaire – asking other learners questions	monitoring	

speaking activities: 15 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
a apple – an apple	singing from a textbook	R	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
[ð] umbrella – [ði:] umbrella	singing from a textbook	R	A	P	L	EXP – CZ	X	T	√
[qit] – quiet	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[behind] - behind	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√

speaking activities: 10 min

OS12: Date: 29 May 2013

Class and teacher: 4th year, Teacher 4

Observer: Eva Benešová

Instruction before the activity	Actions of the teacher during the activity	Feedback after the activity
pairwork – describe where is the toy	monitoring	

speaking activities: 5 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
dog it horse – dog and horse	answering questions	C	A	V	L	C	TC	T	√
short – shorts	clothes in a picture	P	A	V	L	C	TC	T	√
[ʃrt] - shirt	clothes in a picture	P	A	P	L	EXP – CZ	TI	S	√
No, I have.	answering questions about clothes	P	A	G	L	S – CZ	TI	S	√
skirt – shirt	answering questions about clothes	P	A	P	L	S – CZ	TI	S	√
skirt – shirt	answering questions about clothes	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[ʃu:] – shirt	answering questions about clothes	P	A	P	L	R	TI	S	√
cap red – red cap	answering questions about clothes	P	A	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	S	√
[pɪrɪts] – pirat's	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[pɔlicɪ] – police	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[kɔvbɔɪs] – cowboy's	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[vhɔ] - whose	asking questions about clothes	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√

speaking activities: 20 min

OS13: Date: 29 May 2013

Class and teacher: 3rd year, Teacher 4

Observer: Eva Benešová

Instruction before the activity	Actions of the teacher during the activity	Feedback after the activity
pairwork - answering questions about clothes	participating, monitoring	

speaking activities: 5 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
wind – windy	answering questions	P	A	V	L	S - CZ	TI	T	√
[driv] – drive	answering questions	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[wɔrk] – work	answering questions	P	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
I'm going to football.	answering questions	C	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
there not – there isn't	answering questions	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
[kɔud] – kud	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[pesid] – passed	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[fʌl] – full	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[flɔr] – flour	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
[gɔu] – goes	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[wɔlkid] – walked	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
biscuit – basket	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	S – CZ	TI	S	√
[ʃu:z] – choose	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	X	X	X	/
sausage – sausages	answering questions about food	P	A	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	T	√
there aren't any bread	answering questions about food	P	A	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	S	√
country – counter	answering questions about food	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
there isn't pictures	describing the classroom	P	A	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	T	√

speaking activities: 30 min

OS15: Date: 30 May 2013

Class and teacher: 4th year, Teacher 4

Observer: Eva Benešová

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
[kʌpbɔrd] - cupboard	reading a project	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[frɪdʒe] - fridge	reading a project	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√

speaking activities: 5 min

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
[li:] - lie	activity on past tenses	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
pay – paid	activity on past tenses	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
[gʌŋ] – gone	activity on past tenses	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[sʌŋ] - sang	activity on past tenses	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[uniform] – uniform	answering questions about clothes	P	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[previous] – previous	What does it mean...?	O	/	P	L	X	X	X	/
you – your	exercise on present perfect	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
he - it	exercise on present perfect	P	A	G	L	EXP – CZ	TI	T	√

speaking activities: 30 min

OS17: Date: 6 June 2013

Class and teacher: 4th year, Teacher 4

Observer: Eva Benešová

Error	Description of an activity	Activity type	Aim	Error type	Effect of error on communication	Type of feedback	Type and agent of intervention	Correcting person	Manner of feedback
Yes. – Yes, I am.	answering questions	C	A	A	L	C	TC	T	√
Yes, I can. – Yes, I do.	answering questions	C	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
I'm fine. - I'm ten.	answering questions	C	A	A	G	S – CZ	TI	Ls	√
[temperʌtur] – temperature	reading from the board	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
this is – this	roleplay	P	A	G	L	C	TC	T	√
[loud] – loud	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[nov] – now	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√
[slep] - sleep	reading from a textbook	R	A	P	L	C	TC	T	√

speaking activities: 15 min

OS17: Date: 6 June 2013

Class and teacher: 4th year, Teacher 4

Observer: Eva Benešová

Instruction before the activity	Actions of the teacher during the activity	Feedback after the activity
roleplay – at the doctor – in groups	monitoring	one group demonstrated it aloud teacher asked whether it was ok and learners said yes

speaking activities: 5 min