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Developing Speaking Skills in Lower-Secondary Learners: Focus on Feedback

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Zásady pro vypracování

Studentka se ve své bakalářské práci bude zabývat rozvojem řečové dovednosti mluvení v kontextu výuky angličtiny na 2. stupni základní školy, a to z hlediska poskytování zpětné vazby žákům. V úvodu teoretické části práce nejprve představí koncept komunikační kompetence jako obecně přijímaný cíl cizojazyčné výuky, který dále za využití relevantních dokumentů konkretizuje pro rozvoj mluvení na daném stupni vzdělávání. Následně studentka definuje mluvení jako řečovou dovednost a bude diskutovat současný pohled na rozvoj této dovednosti. Další část bude věnována zpětné vazbě a jejímu poskytování při výuce mluvení. Studentka nejprve vymezí pojem zpětná vazba, představí různé techniky jejího poskytování v cizojazyčné výuce obecně a specificky při mluvení. Důležitým úhlem pohledu bude soulad mezi cílem učební aktivity a zpětnou vazbou. V praktické části práce studentka realizuje empirické šetření, jehož cílem bude zjistit, jaké techniky poskytování zpětné vazby učitelé ve výuce mluvení využívají a zda je poskytnutá zpětná vazba v souladu s cílem aktivity. Pro sběr dat studentka využije strukturované pozorování.

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ANNOTATION

This bachelor thesis deals with development of speaking skills in lower-secondary learners with a focus on feedback. The theoretical part introduces communicative competence which is more specified for developing speaking skills in lower-secondary learners. Furthermore, it discusses varieties of speaking tasks through which the speaking skills can be developed. Finally, it defines feedback and discusses different techniques of teacher's provision of feedback and their efficiency during speaking activities. The practical part examines which feedback techniques are used in practice and if they are in alignment with the aim of the activity.

KEYWORDS

communicative competence, speaking tasks, feedback, alignment

ANOTACE

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá rozvojem dovednosti mluvení u žáků na druhém stupni základní školy se zaměřením na zpětnou vazbu. Teoretická část nejprve představuje komunikační kompetenci, která je více konkretizována pro rozvoj mluvení na 2. stupni základní školy. Dále rozebírá různé typy mluvních aktivit, které pomáhají rozvoji řečové dovednosti. Na závěr definuje pojem zpětná vazba a diskutuje různé techniky poskytování a jejich efektivnost během mluvních aktivit. Praktická část zkoumá, jaké techniky poskytování zpětné vazby jsou používány v praxi a zda tyto techniky jsou v souladu s cílem aktivity.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

kunikační kompetence, mluvní aktivity, zpětná vazba, soulad

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CC- Communicative competence

CEFR- Common European Framework

ELT – English language teaching

FAP EE- Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education

SLSC – Second language speaking competence

INTRODUCTION

In a modern globalized world, to learn a foreign language has become a must as people from different countries meet each other and need to find a means to connect with each other. When learning a foreign language, all four language skills—reading, writing, listening and speaking—are vitally important. This thesis focuses on the last skill, that is speaking. Many teachers believe that language input is the most important when learning English, however, researchers have found out that output is important as well especially when learners are motivated to speak. (Goh and Burns 2012, 16) In order to become better at the foreign language and not to remain at a low level, it is of course essential to have an opportunity to speak but also it is necessary to receive feedback. Feedback can be provided through self-evaluation, peer feedback or it can be provided by a teacher.

This bachelor thesis consists of a theoretical and a practical part, and it deals with development of speaking skills in lower-secondary learners in terms of providing feedback. Since one of the reasons why people fail when developing speaking skills is an inappropriate way of providing feedback, therefore the main focus is placed on feedback. (Brookhart 2008, 2; Hattie 2011, 2) As Goh and Burns state: “Clearly, besides language input, learners also need feedback in the form of questions, comments, repetitions, confirmation checks, requests for clarifications, and reformulations”. (2012, 18) Feedback influences the process of learning and not receiving suitable feedback can result in inaccurate forms when speaking, furthermore, the learner can be fluent but not accurate or socially appropriate. (Goh and Burns 2012, 19) Therefore, teachers should provide feedback to every learner and help to produce the correctly formed sentences. (Goh and Burns 2012, 19)

The first chapter of this thesis deals with a communicative competence as a general aim of foreign language teaching and the participants of this development – the role of the teacher and the role of the learner. The next chapter focuses on speaking tasks because the tasks play an essential role in development of learner’s speaking skill and the problem which can arise during speaking activities is the usage of mother language (L1). It seems easier and more natural for learners to use their own language but if they use L1 most of the time, they will have a small chance to improve their speaking skills in English. (Ur 2012, 118) Therefore, teachers should use appropriate speaking tasks in order to avoid this problem. There are many different types and kinds which are described in this chapter. The following chapter focuses on feedback, as feedback is an important part of learning process. There is discussed the

definition, the importance of alignment with the aims and different parts which make feedback effective. The last subchapter provides and discusses different techniques of providing corrective feedback and their effectiveness.

The practical part consists of research at a Czech lower-secondary school. It aims to find out what feedback techniques a teacher uses in English lessons and whether feedback is in alignment with the aim of the activity. Research is conducted through observations by the author of this thesis and focuses on one teacher and her provision of feedback to lower-secondary learners.

THEORETICAL PART

1. DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND ITS PARTICIPANTS

When teaching speaking skills, not only choosing accurate activities but also giving feedback to students on their spoken output is of high importance as it helps them to improve their speaking. By obtaining feedback on their oral output, students realize what mistakes they make and thus what they should focus on more. (Goh and Burns 2012, 160) The aim is not a communicative skill but the ability to use this skill. (Choděra 2013, 74) Above all, the aim is to teach learners to be competent in using appropriate language to the social situation they are in. (Littlewood 1991, 20) In other words, the goal of ELT (English language teaching) is development of learners' competence to be able to communicate effectively which cannot be done without accurate feedback.

1.1 Communicative competence

The term *communicative competence* was developed by Hymes. (1972 in Richards and Rodgers 2001, 159) He developed this term to stand in contrast to Chomsky's theory of competence and the difference between *competence* ("nonobservable ability to do something" (Brown 2000, 30)) and *performance* ("concrete manifestation or realization of competence" (Brown 2000, 30)).

Hymes stated that communicative competence is about knowledge of the language and skills used in that language. (Goh and Burns 2012, 51) Later, Hymes added the socio-cultural factor which means that speaking is about interaction with other people. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 159) He claimed you need not only knowledge but also the ability to use this knowledge in communication. (Hedge 2000, 45) Consequently, new terms for what it means to know and what it means to be able to use the language have been developed to be more accurate. (Hedge 2000, 45)

The concept of communicative competence was further developed by Canale and Swain (1980 in Goh and Burns 2012, 51) who identified four components of communicative competence which are: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and added strategic competence. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 160)

Strategic competence includes communication strategies which help learners when they cannot express themselves because of the lack of knowledge. They must change the original intention, or they must find other devices for expressing their thoughts. (Hedge 2000, 52)

Later, the model of communicative competence was further developed by Bachman who proposed the construct Communicative Learning Ability (CLA). (1990 in Richards and Rodgers 2001, 160; Bachman 1990, 81) Another view on communicative competence involves Faerch, Haastrup, and Phillipson who include *fluency* in the components of communicative competence, and it is described as “the ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriate slowness, or undue hesitation”. (Hedge 2000, 54) Fluency is, of course, an essential part of speaking but experts (Mackey 2012, Richards 1990) place fluency separately into CAF model which includes complexity, accuracy and fluency. (Mackey 2012, 68)

There is another framework of communicative competence introduced by Usó-Juan and Martinez Flor who developed Celce-Murcia and Olshtain’s view of discourse competence more. The framework puts discourse competence in the middle of the scheme, and it is being shown by arrows that it includes linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic competence (the framework can be seen in Appendix A). All these parts build discourse competence which enables to interpret and produce spoken or written language. (Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor 2008, 160-161) The teacher should help learners to fulfil these competences in order to achieve the expected outcome.

This thesis deals with lower-secondary learners and as far as the expected outcomes are concerned, there are different speaking scales according to which you can assess learners. For instance, Luoma mentions The National Certificate Scale or The American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Speaking scale. (2004, 60-62)

This thesis follows a consensus of developing communicative competence according to The Common European Framework (CEFR) and Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education (FEP EE) which is a document describing expected outcomes for all subjects taught at elementary schools in the Czech Republic. CEFR is a resource for learners and teachers to help them to set the aim for developing language skills. (Luoma 2004, 71) It describes what learners should know to manage their skills effectively and achieve their goals. (Council of Europe 2001, 1) The skills are divided into six levels: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2. (Luoma 2004, 71) At lower-secondary learners, the level A2 is expected after finishing

secondary school. What A2 level learner should know according to CEFR and what the expected outcomes are according to FEP EE, is included in the appendices. (see Appendix B, C)

1.2 Second language speaking competence

The relation between second language speaking and communicative competence was further highlighted by Johnson who defined that a second language speaker must be able to fulfil his/her aim and he/she needs to be very accurate in terms of setting, topic, linguistic context etc. The speaker does not know in advance what will be said so he/she must react quickly, appropriately and accurately. (Johnson in Goh and Burns 2012, 51) Accuracy and ability to use speech effectively help the speaker to fulfil his/her aim. Thus, the speaker needs to be aware of the relationship with the listener and other participants which can help him/her to decide the amount and the type of information. (Goh and Burns 2012, 52) Johnson emphasizes the importance of communication strategies in second language speaking, for instance, asking for clarification or repetition which prevent the speaker from stopping the conversation when he/she does not fully understand. (Goh and Burns 2012, 52)

Many experts (Goh and Burns 2012, Harmer 2015, Hedge 2000) agree that speaking competence is very complex and each part of this competence depends on another part. Goh and Burns introduce the model Second language speaking competence which consists of three parts and their subcomponents: knowledge of language and discourse, core speaking skills and communication strategies. (see Appendix D) This model was created in order to take into a consideration learner's ability to produce fluent, accurate, and socially appropriate utterances. (Goh and Burns 2012, 53)

As this thesis deals with speaking, I have decided to focus closely on the second language competence by Goh and Burns. In the next subchapters each part of this model is discussed.

1.2.1 Knowledge of language and discourse

To begin with, learners must have ample knowledge of the language to speak well and convey the message efficiently. The SLSC model consists of four types of knowledge: grammatical, phonological, lexical and discourse knowledge.

To start with, grammatical knowledge is crucial for development of any language skill, therefore, this knowledge cannot be underestimated, and enough attention should be paid to it. Learners must understand the syntactic and semantic part of the grammatical aspect to produce accurate grammatical structures and meanings. For instance, when creating questions in English, the position of subject and verb is swapped or there is a need to use an auxiliary verb. (Goh and Burns 2012, 54) Furthermore, when having a face-to-face interaction, learners must have the grammatical knowledge in order to be able to interpret utterances and respond appropriately. (Rost 2001 in Goh and Burns 2012, 54)

Not only grammatical knowledge is important for the development of any language skill, but also phonological knowledge is needed “for three levels of production: word, utterance, and discourse”. (Goh and Burns 2012, 54) The authors stated the aspects of phonological knowledge including segmental features of pronunciation at the word level and suprasegmental features like stress, rhythm, and intonation. (Goh and Burns 2012, 55)

When developing learners’ lexical knowledge, we must make a distinction between their productive vocabulary, used when speaking or writing, and their receptive vocabulary which means understanding of listening and reading. (Goh and Burns 2012, 55) Learner’s productive vocabulary is usually smaller than receptive vocabulary therefore, learners may suffer from the lack of vocabulary and inability to express themselves precisely. Furthermore, knowledge of denotative and connotative meanings of certain words is considered as important, especially when complemented by fixed formulaic and idiomatic expressions. These expressions are used to express discourse organization, vagueness and modality. (Goh and Burns 2012, 55)

Since spoken texts are produced in different genres, styles and have different communicative purposes and social contexts, it is vital for the learner to know how these purposes and contexts influence the kind of discourse they produce. (Goh and Burns 2012, 56) They need to know the linguistic sources which can help them to form coherent spoken texts which are also adequate to the context and to the participants of the interaction. (Goh and Burns 2012, 56) In addition to that, learners must be complemented by pragmatic knowledge and sociocultural practices, which means “to be aware of the norms in communication in different societies, even when these societies speak the same language”. (Canale and Swain 1980 in Goh and Burns 2012, 56) Therefore, learners should practice different types of interactions and produce appropriate discourse. (Goh and Burns 2012, 58)

1.2.2 Core speaking skills

Knowing about grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and discourse is not enough for the learner, he/she must be able to put this knowledge in action in order to communicate effectively. In SLSC, there are four speaking skills– pronunciation skills, pragmatic competence, interaction-management skills, discourse-organization skills which include other specific aspects, and these are called core speaking skills. The table describing what core speaking skills include is in Appendix E. (Goh and Burns 2012, 58)

To begin with, pronunciation skills mean “the ability to pronounce words and phrases clearly”. (Goh and Burns 2012, 59) This means, pronunciation is based on a clear articulation of individual sounds, vowels, and consonants. But this is not enough, learning stress and intonation is vital as it has an impact on intelligibility. (Goh and Burns 2012, 60) Pronunciation skills can be developed through different ways, for instance, imitation of the teacher or audio-recorded native speaker, reading aloud, or phonetic drilling. (Council of Europe 2001, 153)

Next, the important part of learners’ pragmatic competence is knowing how to express and interpret speech functions which include, for instance, disagreement, explaining, describing, offering, giving instructions and many others. The list of these phrases can be found in language syllabuses or coursebooks. (Goh and Burns 2012, 60) When developing speech functions skills, it should be with respect to the cultural background which is linked with pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence. (Goh and Burns 2012, 61)

When learner is having a conversation, it is essential to know how to smoothly transfer to another topic. Therefore, the part of interaction-management skills includes recognitions of non-verbal clues such as body language and gestures. (Goh and Burns 2012, 61)

Another issue that has to be taken into account is discourse-organization skills containing coherence which refers to the quality speech which enables the listener to understand the message easily. Cohesion is also included in discourse-organization skills and this means the speech is meaningfully structured. Therefore, learners need to further focus on developing discourse markers such as on top of that, on the other hand or to conclude. (Goh and Burns 2012, 62)

To conclude this subchapter, the pragmatic and cultural aspects are closely connected with speech functions, interaction management and discourse organisation skills. Therefore, it shows the complexity of the second language competence. (Goh and Burns 2012, 63)

1.2.3 Communication strategies

Learners can be afraid of having face-to-face interaction when they cannot prepare what they want to say in advance. They might be afraid of not being able to react quickly or not being able to express themselves as they want. This can lead to stop communicating or completely give up. How can this be prevented? Learners need to work on the ability to use communication strategies, so that the interaction does not stop, and it reflects learners' strategic competence. (Goh and Burns 2012, 63)

There are two types of communication strategies. The first type is when the learner does not want to speak too much, which means he/she uses reduction strategies. The second type is called achievement strategies which help the learner to convey the message through resources which are available at that moment and to achieve his/her communication goals. (Goh and Burns 2012, 63) Goh and Burns divide the communication strategies into three categories: cognitive, metacognitive and interaction strategies. (2012, 64)

Cognitive strategies are used to mentally manipulate the information and achieve the communication goals. When the learner does not know the word during an interaction, he/she may use a paraphrase which means to describe the thing or person in order to get the correct meaning or create a new word. This category also includes approximation. (Goh and Burns 2012, 64, 66) Another strategy is usage of language chunks or it may be called time-creating devices, for instance, the fillers or pauses, in order to get more time. (Bygate 1991, 18; Goh and Burns 2012, 64)

Metacognitive strategies are used to control thinking and speech production. Learners can decide in advance what they want to say or make notes in order not to be completely unprepared. During the conversation the learner may notice that the other speaker does not completely understand, for instance, to some wrongly pronounced words. After this, the learner can do a self-evaluation which will help him/her to realise the mistakes. (Goh and Burns 2012, 64)

Interaction strategies are strategies used to express a comprehensive speech. “These strategies include making comprehension checks, repeating an utterance, giving examples, and using gestures and facial expressions.” (Goh and Burns 2012, 65) During the oral interaction, listening is important as well because problems can appear in both processes. Therefore, when the learner does not understand, he/she can use interaction strategies, for instance, asking for a repetition, to understand clearly what has been just said. Interaction strategies may not be natural to all learners; therefore, these strategies should be developed during the lessons to rise knowledge of these strategies and usage in the communication. (Goh and Burns 2012, 65)

Since communication strategies are a part of practical part of this thesis, the table of communication strategies and specific strategies is included in the appendix. (see Appendix F) The process of developing learners’ competence involves teacher and learner and the following subchapters focus on the roles of each of them.

1.3 Role of the teacher

Teachers have been considered as role-models to teach and show learners how to manage their language skills independently. (Council of Europe 2001, 144) According to Harmer, we can find teachers in different roles during lessons which are: a controller, monitor and evidence gatherer, prompter and editor, resource and tutor, organiser/task-setter. (2015, 116) Unlike Harmer, Ur distinguishes eight roles of the teacher: instructor, activator, model, provider of feedback, supporter, assessor, manager, motivator. (2012, 17) Some of these roles overlap with Harmer’s definitions but what is more, important is that all the roles should give enough space for learner’s effective development. As far as feedback is concerned, in teacher-centred approach mostly the teacher is feedback provider. Nowadays the focus in the lessons has been shifted on learners (learner-centred approach more about this approach below).

The teacher as the feedback provider is one of the topics of this thesis and it is discussed more in the third chapter – Feedback.

1.4 Role of the learner

As it was mentioned above, these days the learner-centred approach is encouraged and used. This concept can be defined from different points of view. Firstly, when the learners are older

and know their needs when learning English, they get involved in setting the goal and creating the overall design of the course. (Hedge 2000, 34) This can help to develop their competence more effectively.

Secondly, as learner-centred approach enables learners to take part in the preparation of lessons, the chance that an activity would not be understood is low. (Hedge 2000, 34) For instance, learners receive a topic of the lesson and they should design speaking activities by themselves. Therefore, when the learners have an opportunity to be involved in creating that activity and can come up with their ideas, it prevents them from the misinterpretation of the activity. (Hedge 2000, 34)

Last point of view is about encouraging learners to work on themselves outside the class. In learner-centred approach learners can plan their tasks, perform and monitor themselves. (Hedge 2000, 35).

As far as a role of feedback provider is concerned, I am aware that learners can give feedback in pairs or groups to each other or they can do self-assessment, but this thesis focuses on a teacher as a feedback provider which is discussed in the third chapter.

2. SPEAKING TASKS

Speaking tasks are created in order to provide learners with opportunities to develop their second language speaking competence. The main goal during the activity is to enable learners talk a lot. Moreover, learners should talk themselves as much time as possible to stay in active roles. (Ur 2012, 117) Speaking involves creating a message, conveying it and interacting with other participants. (Lindsay and Knight 2006, 57)

Speaking activities provide learners not only with opportunities to practice speaking, but also help them to achieve fluency. Some tasks are easy to work out, some are more complex. (Goh and Burns 2012, 202)

To achieve the goal, which is a production of English, different kinds of activities can be provided such as role plays, drills, presentations or debates. During task-based activities the task is to achieve a goal by interaction between participants. This means that learners are in groups, pairs or individually and they need to achieve an observable result, such as notes, a drawing or a spoken summary. During task-based activities, there is more talking and balanced participation because learners need to cooperate in order to get a result. (Ur 2012, 121) The tasks should activate actions which learners will need to perform outside the classroom. These tasks are called pedagogical tasks and during these tasks learners comprehend, manipulate, produce or interact in the targeted language to achieve the outcome. (Nunan 2014, 458)

In CEFR there is an arrangement of speaking activities, but these activities are more types of performances which activate learner's communicative competence. (Council of Europe 2001, 58) This classification should be used as a base for designing speaking tasks. According to CEFR, speaking activities may involve reading a written text aloud, speaking from notes, or visual aids (diagrams, pictures, charts, etc.), acting out a rehearsed role, speaking spontaneously, singing. (Council of Europe 2001, 58) Furthermore, speaking interactive activities involve: transactions, casual conversation, informal discussion, formal discussion, debate, interview, negotiation, co-planning, practical goal-oriented co-operation. (Council of Europe 2001, 73)

As far as Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education in the Czech Republic is concerned, there is not a classification of speaking activities, only expected outcomes which were described in chapter 1.1

Tasks can be generally divided into guided and unguided according to Scrivener. (2011, 235) After this distribution, the speaking tasks can be more categorized according to Goh and Burns: communication-gap tasks, discussion tasks, and monologic tasks. (2012, 202)

2.1 Guided and unguided tasks

The tasks can be divided into two categories: guided and unguided tasks. Scrivener uses these two terms for writing, but this can be applicable for speaking as well. (2011, 235) During guided or controlled tasks the teacher suggests examples, useful language items, advice or frames the organisation of the task. (Scrivener 2011, 235) Unguided or free communication tasks are left without guidance or assistance though the task may be set so the learners can speak without boundaries as it is in real-life situations. (Scrivener 2011, 235)

2.2 Communication – gap tasks

Communication-gap activities draw from usual real-life communication when participants in interaction do not share same information and they have to close some of the gaps between them through communicating. (Goh and Burns 2012, 203; Thornbury 2005, 80; Lindsay and Knight 2006, 65) The gaps between participants force them to continue with the interaction and Goh and Burns divide communication-gap activities in information-gap and context-gap tasks. (2012, 203) During the information-gap tasks, a learner or group has a certain piece of information whereas another learner or group has complementary information. They need to negotiate and find out missing information, the gap, through questions, clarification, confirmation or repetition. (Bohlke 2014, 128; Goh and Burns 2012, 203; Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun in Richards and Rodgers 2001, 234) On the other hand, during context-gap tasks, learners in both groups get the same piece of information, such as a set of pictures. These tasks allow learners to create a context for information they share, for instance, the learner tells a story according to the pictures. Although the other learners have the same pictures, they have to listen closely to the story to catch the context. (Goh and Burns 2012, 204) Speaking from pictures is included in oral production according to CEFR, which means it is one of the expected outcomes. (Council of Europe 2001, 58)

Unlike Goh and Burns, Prabhu, Clark and Pattison distinguish three types of gap activities: information-gap, reasoning-gap and opinion gap activities. (in Nunan 1989, 66) The

information-gap activities are described the same way as above. The reasoning-gap activities involve “deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns”. (Prabhu, Clark and Pattison in Nunan 1989, 66) Authors give an example of figuring out a teacher’s timetable when knowing the timetable of the class. (Prabhu, Clark and Pattison in Nunan 1989, 66) In opinion-gap activities (for instance story completion or discussion) learners need to identify and express a personal preference, feeling, experience, opinion or attitude. (Prabhu, Clark and Pattison in Nunan 1989, 66) This kind of tasks overlaps with discussion tasks according to Goh and Burns which follow.

2.3 Discussion tasks

Discussion tasks allow the learners to share their personal ideas and draw from their own experience. They have to negotiate as well to reach a solution which is acceptable for everybody.

A formal debate is similar to a discussion but needs to be prepared in advance by learners because they need to think about arguments in favour of or against. Harmer states there are two debating teams; the first one has well-prepared arguments whereas the others from the audience pitch their ideas as the debate evolves. (2015, 390) Thornbury, on the other hand, states there are two teams, first is in favour of and the other has arguments against so both teams prepare their arguments in advance and learners from the audience are observers who vote for the winning team at the end of the debate. (2006, 69) Both authors mention balloon debate in which each participant represents, for instance, an occupation, hobby or a famous person, and one participant must be sacrificed because the balloon cannot take their weight. Therefore, each participant has to argue why he or she should stay. The arguments can be said during many rounds but at the end participants vote who will be sacrificed. (Harmer 2015, 390; Thornbury 2006, 69)

2.4 Simulations and role-plays

Group-discussion tasks can be reached through simulations in which learners represent themselves in a simulated situation, for instance, they are meeting their schoolmates after twenty years. (Thornbury 2006, 71; Thornbury 2005, 98; Littlewood 1991, 49) Simulations

include three phases: firstly, learners are given the context; secondly, the simulation itself in which they imagine being in the simulated situation and they need to rely on their knowledge and experience to achieve the simulated goal. (Bygate 1991, 81; Goh and Burns 2012, 207) Thirdly, follow-up work which means sharing the results orally or in a written form. (Bygate 1991, 81)

Harmer (2015) and Hedge (2000) include simulations and role plays together but other authors (Luoma 2004, Petty 1998, Scrivener 2005) distinguish simulations and role-plays separately.

Role-plays are set by the teacher who comes up with the setting, situation or materials and the roles but it is up to the students to choose the language. (Hedge 2000, 279) During role-playing learners adopt a person and pretend being them. Information about their adopted person can be specified on role cards. (Thornbury 2006, 71; Lindsay and Knight 2006, 67)

Scrivener believes that role-plays help to develop grammatical, functional and lexical aspects of language at the same time. (2005, 156) On the contrary, Ur mentions the limitations of role-plays which is unwillingness of learners to cooperate and they giggle or slow the conversation because it is unnatural to them. The second one is that learners are not given any expected result and it is up to them to develop the situation. In a successful case, learners will react spontaneously, they will get more into the conversation and become interested. However, having no specific direction can result in confusion what to do next. (1981, 10-11)

Advantages of role-playing for learners are motivation and fun. What is more, role-plays are suitable for shy learners because they can 'hide' behind the role as well as it supports their expressions. Another advantage is that it allows learners to broaden their range of language through different situations which they can experience outside the classroom. (Harmer 2015, 393)

2.5 Drills

Drills are activities which include imitation and repetition of words, phrases and whole utterances while teacher has a control over what learners say. (Thornbury 2005, 63; Lindsay and Knight 2006, 61) Drills, which can be done through a question and answer activity or choral repetition, are aimed to get learners used to specific words, phrases or utterances and move them from memory into long-term memory. (Thornbury 2005, 64; Lindsay and Knight

2006, 61; Harmer 2012, 109) Drilling may help with storing and restoring these words through fluent articulation which, according to Thornbury, can be seen as a fluency-enhancing technique. (2005, 64)

2.6 Monologic tasks

Monologic tasks are defined by a monologue which can be defined as “an extended piece of discourse that an individual produce for an audience in formal or informal situations.” (Goh and Burns 2012, 211) Monologic tasks are performed individually but it is convenient to handle these tasks in small groups. Not only does it reduce the anxiety and stress which learners may experience, but also it gives more learners a bigger chance to talk and improve their speaking skills. (Goh and Burns 2012, 211) During monologic tasks, learners speak on a topic and they are not interrupted. Harmer, Lazaraton and Thornbury call this kind of task ‘presentations’. (Harmer 2015, 391, Lazaraton 2014, 113; Thornbury 2005, 94) Presentations need to be prepared in advance to enable the learner to talk from the notes rather from a script. (Harmer 2015, 391) Learners should choose a content with teacher help or input and ideally, they should be encouraged to talk about something they like or are interested in. (Lazaraton 2014, 113) Both Harmer and Lazaraton agree that it is important to maintain not only active speaking but also active listening. (2015, 391; 2014, 113) Therefore, both authors suggest giving tasks to the listeners, for instance, they will evaluate the strengths and weaknesses according to the criteria they have previously agreed on. (Harmer 2015, 391; Lazaraton 2014, 113) Furthermore, this can be followed by questions or sharing views on the topic or personal experiences. (Goh and Burns 2012, 212) Harmer highlights the importance of feedback whether from the teacher or listeners in order to give a chance to the speaker to analyse the performance and avoid mistakes next time. (2015, 391)

Another technique of monologic task is a storytelling, which is an essential part of our lives. (Goh and Burns 2012, 213; Harmer 2015, 393) Harmer claims that storytelling is extremely useful for language learners because they are able to talk about a book they have read or what happened at school, therefore it is not that unnatural as some other activities can seem. (2015, 393) Consequently, coursebooks start including personalized narrating tasks. (Thornbury 2005, 96) According to Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education in the

Czech Republic, students are expected to be able to tell a simple story: “tell a simple story or event; describe people, places and things from daily life”.¹ (MŠMT 2017, 27)

Tasks should be aimed to develop all parts of second language speaking competence equally in order to increase learner’s ability. (Goh and Burns 2012, 220)

As it was already stated that feedback is an important part of learning process, the next chapter focuses on feedback itself.

¹ This part was translated from Czech to English by the author of this thesis.

3. FEEDBACK

3.1 Feedback definition

Feedback occurs in different fields of study. For example, in nature we can see animals exchanging information about their behaviour, then they react according to that feedback. Feedback which is described in this thesis is information for the learners whether what they do is desirable in their social environment. (Reitmayerová and Broumová 2007, 10)

A short but brief and clear definition of feedback is by Kluger and DeNisi who explained feedback as “actions taken by an external agent to provide information regarding some aspect(s) of one’s task performance”. (Kluger and DeNisi in Hattie 2011, 1) This definition says that feedback can be delivered by anybody who is participating in the communication and through various ways. Feedback can be provided by peer assessment, self-assessment, teacher assessment or through a written or oral form. As it was stated earlier, this thesis focuses on oral feedback provision by a teacher. Feedback is an essential part of developing communicative competence and when it is provided appropriately it improves learning processes and outcomes. (Shute 2008, 154) Moreover, Brookhart, Hattie and Mareš agree that feedback information which is not provided correctly can influence learning in a negative way. (Brookhart 2008, 2; Hattie 2011, 2; Mareš 1955, 99)

So, what is effective feedback? To begin with, there is no versatile feedback which suits to all learners every time. The feedback depends on learners, the task, the class atmosphere, therefore it is variable. (Brookhart 2008, 5) However, there have been settled principles which help to give effective feedback and one of them is specificity. Effective feedback should be concrete about learner’s performance and should describe ways to get the better performance, therefore teachers should provide constructive and descriptive feedback without judging notes. (Luoma 2004, 174, 189; Shute 2008, 157; Brookhart 2008, 26)

Next, when giving feedback, teacher must be sure the learners are able to comprehend what the teacher is saying, and they are paying full attention in order to support their future development. Sometimes the teacher must choose the most important part to highlight in order to meet understating from learners. (Brookhart 2008, 2) Moreover, giving feedback is also dependant on the audience. The teacher must decide whether it is better to provide feedback to the whole class or only to individual learners. (Brookhart 2008, 17)

Lastly, timing of feedback is an essential part of the process. The teacher must consider advantages and disadvantages of online (on-the-spot) correction or offline (after-the event) correction and decide what is more suitable in the current situation.

Online (on-the-spot) correction is when the teacher stops the learner, let him correct himself or correct him (this can be done in various ways which is discussed in subchapter 3.3) and ensures he/she understands the correction. (Harmer 2015, 158-159; Ur 2012, 96)

Offline (after-the-event) correction follows the activity but it is easy to forget what learners have said therefore, teachers write down notes to which they want to refer afterwards. (Harmer 2015, 159-160; Ur 2012, 96)

3.2 Feedback in accordance with aims

Feedback in accordance with aims, should inform learners about their performance as about positive aspects of the performance as what could have been improved in order to let them know what needs to be done to achieve the aim. (Starý and Laufková 2016, 80) According to Skalková feedback can evoke positive emotional reactions which encourages learners to more intensive work and believe in themselves. (2007, 177) Therefore, it can help them and motivate them to achieve those aims.

Hattie defines three questions which help to describe what information feedback should transmit. The questions are:

1. “Where am I going? (What are the goals?)
2. How am I going? (What progress is being made towards the goals?)
3. Where to next? (What activities need to be undertaken to make better progress?)”
(2011, 4)

The first question “Where am I going?” defines that when learners understand their goals, feedback becomes more powerful. When the learner does not know the goal, feedback can be something confusing and can be understood as something personal, not about the task or work.

The second question “How am I going?” is about progress feedback. It means that learners and teachers should reflect on what has been done in order to fulfil the goals.

The last question “Where to next?” defines that goals and challenges are bottomless and when the goal is achieved the learner should set another one. If he/she struggles, teacher’s feedback can help. (Hattie 2011, 4)

3.3 Feedback content

As far as feedback content is concerned, it depends on what and how the teacher wants to convey. Therefore, according to Brookhart, feedback content can be divided into following categories: focus, comparison, function, valence, clarity, specificity, tone. These aspects are discussed below, and the feedback content table is included in appendix. (see Appendix G) (2008, 6-7)

3.3.1 Focus

The first aspect to discuss is focus. This means it is about an aspect of learner’s performance on which feedback focuses. It can be divided into four levels: task, process, self-regulation, self as a person. (Hattie and Timperley in Brookhart 2008, 20) The discussion of these four levels follows.

Feedback about the task

Feedback about the task informs the learner about errors, quality of the work and whether the task has been fulfilled. This kind of feedback is so specific, it focuses on the particular task, that it does not contribute to further learning. (Brookhart 2008, 20) However, having correct information, it makes the base for the next two feedback levels, feedback about the process and self-regulation. (Hattie 2011, 6) Due to this, feedback should not stop this and should progress to the next level.

Feedback about the process

The second level of feedback informs learners about the process how they fulfilled the task. It informs them about the quality of the performance and suggests and gives advice about the learning process. (Hattie 2011, 6) According to Brookhart, this feedback is essential for learners because it helps them to acquire “learning how to learn” skill. (2008, 20)

Feedback about self-regulation

The third level of feedback focuses on self-regulation which helps learners to monitor and control their learning. (Brookhart 2008, 21) When they are able to self-regulate their learning, they can effectively use feedback information in order to achieve the desired outcome. (Hattie 2011, 6) This means it can encourage learners to think about their performance and to be more responsible for their learning.

Feedback about self as a person

The fourth level of feedback focuses on learner's "self" when it can express praise such as "You are a smart boy!". While it can be heart-warming, it does not bring any information which can be used in further learning. It usually contains little task-related information and it is not converted into commitment to the learning goals. (Hattie 2011, 7)

To sum up, the feedback classification shows that the three levels of feedback can ease learning process. Contrastively, the fourth level of feedback about "self" should not be represented in the lessons as it has rather negative impact when focusing on person rather than skills. (Hattie 2011, 7)

3.3.2 Comparison

When comparing learner's performance there are two types of comparison: norm-referencing and criterion-referencing. Criterion-referencing is used to give positive feedback as it compares learner's work with learning goal. What is more, it helps the learner to set the next goal. (Brookhart 2008, 22; Petty 1998, 402)

Norm-referenced feedback should not be involved as it does not include information which learner can use to improve. Norm-referencing means that learner's performance is compared to others. Therefore, there are winners and losers which says that student's ability is more important than the thorough strategic work. (Brookhart 2008, 23)

To make a complete overview, self-referenced feedback cannot be omitted. This feedback compares learner's current performance with the previous ones and it can have a positive impact on "struggling learners" as their progress can be more visible. (Brookhart 2008, 23)

To summarize, criterion-referenced and self-referenced feedback is encouraged to use as it brings information for further learning and is less judgemental. On the other hand, norm-

referenced feedback should be omitted as it does not bring beneficial information for learning and can divide learners into “winners and losers”.

3.3.3 Function

Students sometimes misinterpret feedback as evaluative rather than descriptive. Therefore, learners should have a lot of opportunities to receive and give feedback without a grade and judgemental comments involved. (Brookhart 2008, 24-25) In contrast, according to Ur, being non-judgemental is unrealistic and provision of meaningful feedback will involve some kind of judgement. (1991, 242)

Furthermore, feedback should be observational, teacher should describe what he/she sees, how close it is to the learning goal and give suggestions how to achieve the goal. (Brookhart 2008, 24-25)

3.3.4 Valence

Feedback should be positive but not overwhelmingly positive and saying good things about performance which is not good. “Being positive means describing how the strengths in a student’s work match the criteria for good work and how those strengths show what the student is learning.” (Brookhart 2008, 26) Being positive means identifying improvements and giving suggestions what to do about it because just informing the learner what has been done wrongly without suggestions does not help. (Brookhart 2008, 26) Positive feedback can support maintaining a positive classroom atmosphere which can help learner’s growth. (Kyriacou 2007, 74; Kyriacou 2009, 44;)

3.3.5 Clarity

Clarity of feedback is important as the teacher and the learner have different vocabulary, background and experience. The teacher has to make an effort to make the learner understand feedback information as he/she intends to. Therefore, the teacher should use simple vocabulary range and sentence structures to stay at the learner’s developmental level and should make sure the learner understands feedback information. If the teacher uses complex

structures and assumes the learner knows what is being said, he/she decreases the chances of learners' perceiving. (Brookhart 2008, 32)

3.3.6 Specificity

Specific feedback means to give a guidance to the learner but not to do the work for him/her. The teacher should not correct every error but give specific suggestions which will lead the learner to the next steps. The teacher should avoid vague comments such as "Try harder" or "This is great" but should use specific vocabulary including many nouns and descriptive adjectives or description of learning strategies which may be useful. In addition to rich vocabulary, teacher should explain why he/she thinks something is great or in which area the learner should try harder. (Brookhart 2008, 33-34) Therefore, the learner should understand what the problem has been and be able to improve the performance in order to achieve the aims. (Starý and Laufková 2016, 13)

3.3.7 Tone

The tone affects how the message will be heard so it depends on the choice of words and style. It is vital to imply a respect for the student as a learner and inspire curiosity or thought rather than discourage. On the other hand, the teacher should not give a positive comment just to make the learner happy even though he/she performed badly. It is essential to give constructive feedback and to stay positive in a sense "lighting the way forward". (Brookhart 2008, 35) The tone should show that there is a way forward and the learner can manage it. Learners prefer constructive criticism when they have information which can be used for improvement and they see and understand they can do it. (Brookhart 2008, 35)

To sum up, it is apparent that all the feedback content parts are closely related and connected. The result of connection of these parts should inform the learner about his/her current knowledge and skills so he/she gets to know what to do to achieve the aim. (Starý and Laufková 2016, 12)

Feedback should put emphasis on a successful work of the learner as an individual rather than having better results than others. Furthermore, it should give a feeling to the learner there is a way for improvement which leads us to corrective feedback. (Nelešovská 2005, 87)

3.3 Corrective feedback

The teacher identifies the nature of learner's problem through corrective feedback and suggests ways for improvement. (Kyriacou 2007, 61) Apart from mistakes, the teachers should mention what has been done correctly and why. (Ur 1991, 242) Corrective feedback is vital in the learning process because it can prevent mistakes from fossilization (that is to become permanent). (Ur 2012, 89) The learning process can be either facilitated or disrupted by feedback depending on ways of providing. (Brookhart 2008, 4)

Before the techniques of corrective feedback are introduced, it is vital to describe the kinds of mistakes. Authors who deal with correction (Bartram 1991; Brown 2007; Edge 1989; Thornbury 2005; Ur 2012) identify correction as correction of language form as it is difficult to distinguish mistakes in practice. But there are still classifications which can be introduced. Edge identifies three kinds of mistakes – slips (“careless mistakes”), errors (when the learner may know the correct form but is not able to self-correct) and attempts (when the learner does not have an idea how to structure what he/she wants to say). (1989, 9) Bartram identifies, on the other hand, two kinds – slip (the same as above) and mistake (when the learner fails in a correct application of known structure). (1991, 21) Ur, Brown, Thornbury, Council of Europe and Hedge “combine” Edge and Bartram's classification and they identify mistakes and errors with the same explanations as above. (Ur 2012, 88; Brown 2007, 257-258; Thornbury 2005, 92; Council of Europe 2001, 155; Hedge 2000, 289) On the other hand, Ur admits she uses these two terms interchangeably as it is difficult to distinguish when they occur. (2012, 88) Because this thesis focuses on feedback when developing speaking skills, therefore mistakes are not discussed further, and the terms might be used interchangeably as well.

Bartram and Ur agree the area of mistakes is demanding to distinguish; therefore, the teachers should stay patient, positive and encourage learners in order to simplify the learning process. (1991, 19; 2012, 89)

Corrective feedback techniques

In this subchapter there are techniques of corrective feedback introduced and discussed. These techniques are mentioned by Ur (2012) in the book *A Course in Language Teaching* (94-95) and by Brown (2007) in *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (277-288) who

discuss the same techniques. The techniques are: recasts, elicitation, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction and repetition.

1) Recasts: saying the correct version without an explanation

L: I reading a book.

T: I **am** reading a book. (Ur 2012, 94-95)

According to Ur, this technique is the most frequent because it is quick and causes minimal interruptions but also it is the least effective. The learner does not participate in the correction; thus he/she may not notice of the teacher's correction. (Ur 2012, 95) On the contrary, Bartram sees the positive side of recast as it simulates the real-life correction. (1991, 52) Bohlke (2014) and Bartram (1991) call recast as a reformulation and Bohlke indicates this is a gentle correction which focuses on the form. (2014, 127) Nevertheless, Bartram highlights the fact that learners need to be attentive to the subject matter and feedback which facilitate the learning process. (1991, 53)

2) Elicitation: a technique which prompts the learner to self-correct, provided he/she knows the correct form (Brown 2007, 278; Ur 2012, 95)

L: I reading a book.

T: Can you correct that?

L: I **am** reading a book. (Ur 2012, 95)

This technique is considered as more effective than recasts as it involves learner's active participation. (Ur 2012, 95) When the teacher asks the learner to correct him/herself, it shows the teacher believes he/she can do it and it also activates the learner to think where the mistake might be and what the correct answer is. (Ur 2012, 96)

3) Clarification request: a technique used to ask for a clarification

L: I reading a book.

T: I didn't understand, can you tell me more clearly? (Ur 2012, 95)

Clarification request is similar to elicitation, but it does not indicate specifically to correct the answer, therefore it gives the learner an opportunity either to correct the sentence or say it differently.

4) Metalinguistic feedback: this technique provides comments, information or explanations using grammatical or other terminology (Lyster in Brown 2007, 277; Ur 2012, 95) Bohlke calls this technique hinting as the teacher may use only a word *article* to alarm the learner to self-correct. (2014, 127)

L: I reading a book.

T: In the present continuous you need the verb *be* before the *-ing* form of the verb...
(Ur 2012, 95)

This technique gives learner necessary information to correct his/her mistake. At this point learner should be used to the specific terminology in order to understand the teacher's message.

5) Explicit correction: the teacher exactly states there has been a mistake and provides the correct form (Brown 2007, 278; Ur 2012, 95)

L: I reading a book.

T: No, that is incorrect. You should have said... (Ur 2012, 95)

During this technique, the learner does not actively participate but learners are required to concentrate on the correct form, so it stays effective.

- 6) **Repetition:** repetition of the wrong learner's utterance with raising intonation on the wrong word (Brown 2007, 278; Ur 2012, 95)

L: I reading a book.

T: I *reading* a book? (Ur 2012, 95)

This technique shows the learner where the mistake is thus the learner should think about the correct form and correct it. On the other hand, Bartram states that sometimes it may be difficult to say whether the teacher indicates the mistake or just sounds doubtful about the content. (1991, 51)

There are many techniques which teachers can use as the overview shows. Some of them involves learner's active participation which is considered as more effective. (Ur 2012, 96) Connected with a choice of the technique is frequency and timing of feedback. Teachers should be able to identify when and what is useful to correct to stay as much as possibly effective. Furthermore, sometimes it is more suitable to interrupt the learner and correct immediately, on the contrary, sometimes it is more convenient to wait till the end of activity. This all depends on the goal of the lesson, confidence of learners, frequency and gravity of the error. (Ur 2012, 96) Ur states to give effective feedback, the teacher should interrupt the learner and correct him/her in the way that he/she notices and accepts that in order to help them to facilitate the learning process. (2012, 96)

PRACTICAL PART

4. RESEARCH

4.1 Research aim

The empirical part aims to find out what kind of feedback and how the teacher gives to the lower-secondary learners when doing speaking activities and whether feedback is in alignment with the aim of the activity. Research questions were formulated in the following way:

- What techniques of feedback does the teacher use during speaking activities?
- Which aspects of communicative competence does feedback focus on?
- Is teacher's feedback in alignment with the aim of the activity?

4.2 Data collection instruments

For the data collection, observations were chosen as the most suitable tool. I went to the English lessons to observe speaking activities and as Richards and Lockhart state, observation involves visiting a class in order to observe different aspects of teaching, it is a way to gather information about teaching, thus the observer's function should be limited to gathering information. (1996, 12)

This research focuses on feedback when doing speaking activities therefore, observations are the most convenient tool for collecting data. It enables the observer to document and reflect the events as they occur not as we think they occur. (Burns 1999, 80) In addition to this, Seliger and Shohamy say descriptive data can be collected by observing the targeted language or observing just some aspects which are the aim of research. "In descriptive research, observations usually focus more on the collection of data specified in advance before research begins." (1990, 127) Before the observations I set the aim and specified what I would observe in order to avoid collecting unnecessary data for this thesis.

During research for this thesis, my role was to be the non-participant, to observe and document all speaking activities and following feedback, if it occurred. This means I was sitting in the back of the classroom without participation during the lessons and filling the observation sheet.

For the data analysis, the observation sheet with seven columns was created. The first two columns are focused on activity description and the aim of the activity because one of the aims is to find out whether feedback is in alignment with the aim of the activity. There are two columns focused on corrective feedback when the first one points on which aspect feedback focuses on (grammar, pronunciation or vocabulary) and the second column is focused on the ways of providing feedback, which techniques the teacher uses, and I chose techniques according to Ur (2012) and Brown (2007). These techniques are further described in the theoretical part in chapter 3.3.

Furthermore, if the aim of the activity is development of communication strategies, there is the fifth column for them, these strategies are according to Goh and Burns (2012) which are described in chapter 1.2.3. Next column is focused on feedback on pragmatic aspects (discourse competence, style and register, coherence and cohesion, functional competence) which are described in CEFR (2001) and these pragmatic aspects are ones of the expected outcomes at A2 level (this is described in chapter 1.1). The last column is focused on timing of feedback, whether it is online or offline. These two terms were more discussed in chapter 3.1 according to Harmer (2015).

On the observation sheet there is enough blank space for eventual comments to be more specific. When filling the observations sheet, firstly I described the activity and the aim of the activity and then I marked the aspects of columns which occurred. Lastly, I noted when feedback was provided. The blank observation sheet and one filled observation sheet as an example are included in the appendices. (see Appendix H)

4.3 Research sample

As a research sample I have chosen to observe English classes of the teacher with lower-secondary learners at a Czech medium-sized school with 8 teachers of English in Pardubice region. The focus is placed on one teacher and her oral provision of feedback to the learners.

4.4 Schedule

I observed totally 22 lessons at the school in classes from the 6th grade till 9th grade from 22nd November 2019 to 29th November 2019. In the 6th grade I observed four lessons, in the 7th

grade I observed five lessons, in the 8th grade I observed four lessons and in the 9th grade I observed nine lessons. The trial was done on the 22nd November during five English lessons. After the trial there was no need to recreate the observation sheet therefore, collected data from that day are used in the data analysis in chapter 4.5

4.5 Data analysis and interpretation

When I was at the school, I wrote down all activities during which the learners had to produce English orally because sometimes the aim was omitted and I was not sure what activity was coming, therefore later on I had to analyse what is beneficial for this research. The data analysis started with defining what is a speaking activity and what is not. After that, from the observation sheets I could see what feedback and how the teacher used, when it was used and whether it was in alignment with the aim of the activity.

The analysed data showed that teacher's feedback was sometimes partly in alignment with the aim of the activity because for instance, the aim was a coherent and cohesive story but provided feedback focused only on cohesion. In most activities the teacher provided feedback to all learners but still there were quite many activities during which only a few learners got teacher's feedback which is insufficient. As it was stated in the introduction of this thesis, feedback should be provided to all learners in order to help them to develop their speaking skills, help to become fluent, accurate, socially accurate and prevent them from failure.

6th grade

To begin with, in the 6th grade I observed four lessons and during these lessons there were between 11-13 learners.

I had a chance to observe one speaking activity totally. I include this activity into the guided speaking activities (more in chapter 2.1) because the teacher set boundaries and told the learners to use only present continuous and clothes vocabulary. Therefore, the aim of this activity was to deal with the information-gap between the learners through a game with usage of these two mentioned aspects.

The learners were playing a game during which one learner was standing in front of the board and was thinking about somebody from the class. The other learners were asking questions

which had to be formulated that way so the asked learner could only answer yes or no. What is more, the asking learner could ask questions till the asked learner answered no.

Feedback occurred after each question and was given individually to the pupil who asked the question. It was focused on grammar and vocabulary which was in alignment with the aim of the activity. According to Ur's (2012) classification of feedback and learners' active and non-active participation, which are described in chapter 3.3, feedback was provided through elicitation during which the learner actively participated, explicit correction which does not exactly involve active participation of the learner, but he/she had to concentrate on the correct form, so it stayed effective. The last way of provision was through metalinguistic feedback. In this situation the teacher was sure the learner would understand the linguistic terms, rules and then apply them and correct the answer. The learner did understand this feedback and corrected himself, so it was an effective way of providing feedback.

To sum up, feedback during this activity was provided in alignment with the aim of the activity to all learners individually. Moreover, the teacher provided feedback during which the learners actively participated; thus it was effective.

7th grade

In the 7th grade I observed five lessons and during these lessons there were between 12-14 learners. I observed four speaking activities in this grade, twice the activities were focused on retelling a story, once on creating a coherent story and once on communication strategies.

To retell a story activity was after having watched a video and learners were supposed to share what it was about therefore the aim was to present a cohesive and coherent story. Feedback was provided to two learners, twice on wrongly pronounced words and it was provided through repetition during which the learner actively participated, he/she had to think about the mistake and correct it and through explicit correction when the learner needed to concentrate on the correct version therefore it stayed effective. Feedback was provided after each wrongly pronounced word individually. Not all the learners got feedback as only two of them were asked to share their story with others. In this activity the teacher placed focus on pronunciation rather than a content even though the aim was stated as to retell what the video was about. Therefore, in this activity there was not alignment between the aim and provided feedback as the teacher provided feedback on one specific area and not on the targeted area.

What is more, only two learners out of twelve received feedback which is insufficient and not receiving feedback can lead to failure in speaking in the future as this was mentioned in the introduction of this thesis.

In the second retelling a story activity, the aim was to retell plans of the other learner. This activity was conducted in pairs, where learners discussed their current ideas about their future with usage of *will*. I include this activity in guided tasks because the teacher restricted learners with using only future tense *will* and to talk about their plans. After that, each learner retold the plans of the other from the pair. Feedback was provided individually after each sentence and the mistakes were the same therefore, feedback just focused on grammar and pronunciation through repetition when the learners realised the mistake and corrected themselves and through explicit correction when the learner paid attention why there had been the mistake. At the end of this activity, the teacher pointed the most common mistakes regarding the usage of *will* and gave feedback to all the learners at once. Provided feedback was partly in alignment with the aim of the activity because the aim was to practice retelling with usage of *will* but no feedback concerning retelling occurred. The retelling was not about a story more than about retelling the sentences of the other person thus the teacher did not provide any feedback on coherence. Therefore, the aim of the activity was set incorrectly as the result was not a coherent story.

The next activity which I observed in the 7th grade was focused on communication strategies. Each student got a card with a word and he/she had to explain or describe it while others were guessing what the word was. The aim was to develop cognitive strategies which include usage of synonyms, alternative terms or paraphrase. Cognitive strategies were discussed in subchapter 1.2.3 and the outline what cognitive strategies include is in the appendices. (see Appendix F) Feedback was provided to each learner separately after his/her performance in alignment with the aim which means it was only focused on cognitive strategies. And moreover, at the end of the lesson the teacher gave ideas how to explain some words more effectively and appropriately to all the learners.

The last activity observed in this grade was called “a micro story”. The task was to create coherent stories with correct tenses and present those stories. Besides that, three words were given to be used in the stories which had to contain between five and eight sentences, thus I label this activity as guided. Feedback on coherence and cohesion was provided to two learners, feedback on grammar was provided to three learners through repetition when the

learner realised the mistake and corrected herself, through elicitation when it took a while to the learner to find the mistake but after that she was able to correct herself and through explicit correction. Summary feedback was provided at the end of the activity where the teacher pointed the most common mistakes concerning coherence and cohesion and gave specific feedback to three learners. Feedback was provided only to eight learners, the others stayed without feedback. Feedback during this activity was partly in alignment with the aim of this activity because three learners got feedback concerning only cohesion. Feedback focused on coherence and cohesion was provided to two learners, therefore it was in alignment. The rest of the class stayed without feedback.

To conclude, in the 7th grade during the observed lessons the teacher mostly targeted on cohesion and coherence and communication strategies. I observed a provision of feedback mostly through repetition and explicit correction when the learners stayed in partly active roles during these ways of providing. Furthermore, feedback was mostly in alignment with the aims of activities apart from the first and last activity. However, the problem which was observed during some activities was a lack of feedback. For instance, during the first activity only two learners got feedback and the rest was left unnoticed which is insufficient.

8th grade

In the 8th grade I spent four lesson and during these lessons there were between 11-12 learners. I totally observed four speaking activities in these lessons.

During the first activity, monologic activity, learners worked individually. Their task was to create coherent and cohesive stories about their future, using will/going to and then present those stories. I include this activity in guided tasks as the teacher set the form of the result and the tense. The aim was to present stories orally about future with notes. In this case, feedback in alignment with the aim was provided only partly. On one hand, the teacher focused on grammar and feedback was provided to two learners through repetition and clarification request, in both cases the learners stayed in active roles and corrected themselves. On the other hand, the teacher stated the aim as to create a coherent and cohesive story but no feedback concerning these aspects occurred. Therefore, learners got feedback about the grammatical mistakes but no feedback about the context of their text. Furthermore, the teacher was giving feedback after each sentence so at the end it did not sound as a cohesive story because it was interrupted many times. Moreover, only two learners got feedback, and the

others who were not chosen to present were skipped and had not a chance to realise their mistakes. In addition to that, the learners-listeners were not actively listening to the presentations as they did not have any task to do, as it was discussed in chapter 2.6 in the theoretical part, for instance, writing down the strengths and weaknesses.

The second activity aimed to develop communication strategies. Each learner got a card with a word related to places in town and he/she had to explain or describe it while others were guessing the word. The learners got time to prepare their descriptions or explanations. Feedback was provided to each learner in the lesson, it occurred after each description related to cognitive strategies, giving ideas how to firstly start with the general description and then to focus on details because many times the learners started with details and not with general things so there was not any logical outline. Once feedback occurred on pronunciation through asking for repeating. Otherwise feedback was provided in alignment with the aim of the activity and to all learners individually.

The third activity was conducted in five small groups where each group got two envelopes with words in English and Czech related to places in town. The task was to match these words, create a story with six of these words and then present the story. I include this activity in guided tasks as the teacher set boundaries with six predetermined words related to one topic. This activity was aimed to create and present a story with usage of correct tenses and chosen vocabulary. It was stated it should be a story but there was not feedback on coherence or cohesion, nor the “stories” were always meaningful. Feedback was provided to five learners who presented for each group. Provided feedback focused on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation even though pronunciation was not the aim of the activity. Feedback was provided through clarification request, elicitation and explicit correction where learners had to concentrate what was being said and stayed in active roles. As I mentioned before, feedback was in alignment with the aim of activity partly, there was missing feedback on cohesion of the story.

The last activity observed in this grade was about retelling what an article was about. The activity started with reading of an article in a workbook followed by a retelling of five sentences. Learners did this activity individually but only four of them got teacher’s feedback. Even though it was stated just to briefly retell the story, feedback focused only on grammar not on other aspects. In one situation, feedback was provided through repetition when the learner was not able to identify the mistake therefore the teacher provided explicit correction.

Next way of feedback provision was through metalinguistic feedback. In this situation when the learner got metalinguistic feedback was not highly aware of the linguistic terms thus, he was not able to correct himself. Therefore, the teacher changed the way from metalinguistic feedback to explicit correction. Feedback was provided after each sentence therefore, four of the learners were interrupted many times and they were not fluent. Furthermore, feedback was only partly in alignment with the aim of the activity as it only focused on the grammatical part but not on the coherence of the story.

To conclude, these activities were targeted especially on creating and presenting stories. As far as feedback is concerned, in three activities feedback was not in alignment with the aim of the activity, furthermore, it was missing. In this grade, the teacher mostly used elicitation and clarification requests as a way of providing feedback when learners stayed actively involved but the same problem as in the previous grades occurred – only chosen learners got feedback and the others were left without it.

9th grade

In the 9th grade there were between 6-16 learners and I observed six speaking activities during nine lessons.

The first activity was related to the topic of education in the USA/UK. Learners in pairs had to discuss the differences between the USA/UK and the Czech Republic. After that they made a list of things they have agreed on and presented these discussed points. The aim of the activity was to develop interaction strategies through discussing differences and reach a consensus. During this activity the teacher was coming to each pair individually and was giving feedback on interaction strategies, for instance, to one pair it was suggested to use more clarification requests because it seemed each learner was talking about something else. This feedback was provided after the end of the discussion. During this activity each pair got an individual feedback as there were four pairs. At the end of this activity, the teacher asked two pairs to present their conclusions for everybody. Here feedback occurred after each sentence and was provided through elicitation focusing on grammar and vocabulary. To conclude this activity, the teacher provided feedback on interaction strategies to all learners, therefore it was in alignment with the aim of the activity.

The second observed activity in this grade was focused on retelling. The learners watched a video and after that they had to retell what it was about. Feedback was provided to two learners. The teacher did not focus on coherence, but mostly on pronunciation and vocabulary, even though it was not the aim of the activity. Feedback was provided through elicitation and explicit correction after each wrong sentence. The aim of the activity and feedback was not exactly in alignment because it was stated as to retell what the video was about, but the teacher focused on pronunciation and vocabulary, rather than coherence and cohesion moreover, other learners did not get any feedback.

The third activity was about having a dialog in pairs and discuss learners' experience about different things. Therefore, learners had to use present perfect and past simple in order to get the details. The aim was to have a dialogue about experience and get details. I include this activity in guided tasks because the teacher set boundaries what tenses the learners should use. The teacher was giving feedback individually as she was observing each pair individually, therefore each learner got feedback. Feedback focused on grammar through elicitation when the learners stayed active, thus this feedback was in alignment with the aim of the activity.

The fourth activity was called "speak for a minute". Each learner got a topic and had to speak about it for one minute without a preparation. The aim of this activity was to speak without preparation and use correct tenses— present simple, continuous or past simple. Feedback was provided immediately after wrong usage of the tense; therefore, the activity was not exactly speaking for a minute because the learners were interrupted. All learners had a chance to speak and get feedback which focused on grammar and was provided through explicit correction but in this case I would say, it was not very effective because the learners noticed they were being corrected but they were more focused on watching the time and thinking what to say next. Therefore, the aim and feedback were in alignment but as I said, it was not very effective as this activity was focused more on time and learners put the time on the first place rather than coherence and cohesion.

The fifth activity in this grade was conducted in pairs where learners got two envelopes. In the first envelope there were question words, for instance why, what, where etc. and in the second envelope there were different verbs and phrases. The task was to have a dialogue with the usage of present perfect and past tense. I include this task into guided tasks as the teacher set boundaries concerning tenses as well as vocabulary. The aim of this activity was to have a

dialogue with two given tenses; therefore, feedback was provided on grammar through elicitation and explicit correction. Once feedback focused on a topic/focus which is included in pragmatic aspects. This feedback was provided because the question was not related to the discussed topic, so the teacher highlighted that. The teacher was checking the pairs separately and she provided feedback after each dialogue. All pairs got teacher's feedback which was in alignment with the aim of the activity to have the dialogue with given words and tenses.

The sixth activity was conducted in pairs again and the topic was to make an appointment. Specifically, learners had to make a dialogue where one of the learners called to change the date or time of previously agreed appointment. The aim was to have the dialogue and agree on the new date or time and develop interaction strategies. Feedback was provided on style and register where it was stated to be more polite, not to use slang. Otherwise feedback focused on interaction strategies and pronunciation through repetition. Each pair prepared their dialogue, then presented and it was followed by feedback. All learners got teacher's feedback. The aim of this activity was in alignment with feedback partly because sometimes feedback was focused on something what had not been stated as the aim, for instance, pronunciation.

To sum up, in this grade four activities out of six were conducted in pairs and two were done individually. Feedback was mostly provided to the pairs individually, therefore all learners got feedback unlike the learners in other grades. Also, the tasks were often about having a dialogue, targeted on interaction strategies. Furthermore, the only ways of providing feedback during the lessons I observed were through elicitation when the learners stayed in active roles and explicit correction which sometimes was not very beneficial as pointed in the fourth activity. When the tasks were conducted in pairs, all learners got teacher's feedback, on the other hand, when there were monologic tasks, individual tasks, not all learners got feedback, only couple of them, approximately four. The others were left without feedback which is insufficient.

4.6 Conclusion of the practical part

The aim of the research project was to answer the following research questions: What techniques of feedback does the teacher use during speaking activities? Which aspects of communicative competence does feedback focus on? Is teacher's feedback in alignment with

the aim of the activity? Observation sheet was created to facilitate the data analysis. After that the analysis revealed following findings.

I observed 15 speaking activities in 22 lessons. Five of observed activities were guided activities during which the teacher had set boundaries (for instance, which tenses to use) and the rest were free communication activities where only the task was set.

As it was stated in the introduction of this thesis, feedback helps to facilitate learner's learning process, to become more fluent, accurate and socially appropriate. As far as this aspect is concerned, during nine activities out of 15, all learners got teacher's feedback. On the other hand, during six activities, only chosen learners got feedback and the others were left without it. For instance, when a learner prepared a story and was not chosen to present, he/she did not know whether he/she had created a perfect story or whether the used language was appropriate. These situations usually occurred when there were planned other activities for that lesson and giving feedback to all the learners would take longer time, therefore, the teacher omitted it completely.

The teacher used most of feedback techniques described in the theoretical part of this thesis. The most frequent technique was explicit correction followed by elicitation and repetition. Clarification request and metalinguistic feedback occurred as well but not as frequently as the previous ones. Interestingly, the technique called recast is considered as the most frequent technique according to Ur (2012) because it is quick and causes minimal interruptions but during the lessons, recasts were not observed at all.

Feedback mostly focused on grammar and vocabulary, cognitive strategies as well interaction strategies. Moreover, timing of feedback (online, offline) was in balance but in some situations offline feedback would be suitable but online feedback was provided which interrupted learners' fluency.

As far as alignment is concerned, during nine activities feedback was in alignment with the aim of the activity, however, during six activities alignment between feedback and the aim was only in partial alignment. Sometimes the activity targeted one aspect and feedback was focused on this aspect very briefly or focused on something else. For instance, when creating a story, the aim was a coherent and cohesive story and provided feedback focused on cohesion, but coherence was omitted.

In conclusion, lower-secondary learners received teacher's feedback in alignment with the aims of the activities except of six activities. The teacher used a range of techniques for providing feedback, which were discussed in the theoretical part in chapter 3.3, only one technique – recasts, was not used at all. Furthermore, during nine activities out of 15 all learners got teacher's feedback, during six activities approximately five learners got feedback which is insufficient.

CONCLUSION

This bachelor thesis deals with development of speaking skills in lower-secondary learners with focus on feedback. The thesis consists of theoretical and practical part.

The aim of the theoretical part was to set the theoretical framework for practical part, and it provided criteria for observation sheet used for research. In the theoretical part there is discussed communicative competence, its parts, and the participants who contribute to the development of this competence – the learner and the teacher. More importantly, when developing communicative competence learners cannot be left without feedback. Feedback in alignment with the aim of the activity is essential as it helps to achieve expected outcomes and it helps to avoid failure in the future. The techniques of providing teacher's feedback are discussed and their effectiveness as well in order to support learners' communicative competence.

In the practical part, observations and observation sheet are introduced as the tool for research. Research was focused on one teacher and her providing feedback to lower-secondary learners. Each activity in each grade was analysed separately and it revealed the fact that the teacher did not always provide feedback to all learners which is not positive. In the cases when feedback was not provided to all learners, only two or three chosen learners got teacher's feedback and the others were completely omitted. As far as types of speaking activities are concerned, the teacher was trying to do free communication activities most of the time, but five activities were guided as the teacher set boundaries what tense or vocabulary to use. Furthermore, the teacher usually set the aim of the activity and feedback was not in alignment as it focused on something else.

To react on the results of research, following ideas are suggested. For instance, to set the aim of activity and to really keep up with it when providing feedback. Furthermore, the emphasis should be put on providing feedback to all learners in the class, therefore, when there is not a time for that, the teacher should postpone it to the next lesson or find some other way to provide feedback to learners and not to leave them without it.

RESUMÉ

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá rozvojem dovednosti mluvení u žáků na druhém stupni základní školy se zaměřením na zpětnou vazbu. Práce se skládá z teoretické a praktické části. Cílem teoretické části bylo poskytnout teoretický rámec pro observační list, který byl použitý v praktické části. Cílem praktické části bylo zanalyzovat mluvní aktivity z pohledu zpětné vazby, která byla poskytnuta učitelem.

V první kapitole teoretické části je představena komunikační kompetence a její části, dále různé pohledy a přístupy k této kompetenci. Více diskutovaný je tu model komunikační kompetence od Goh a Burns (2012), který se skládá ze tří částí a jejich dílčích částí. Protože se tato bakalářská práce zaměřuje na žáky na druhém stupni základní školy, proto je řečová dovednost konkretizována pro tento stupeň a jsou zde diskutovány očekávané výstupy dle Společného evropského referenčního rámce pro jazyky (CEFR). Tento dokument byl vytvořen v roce 2001, aby sjednotil výuku cizích jazyků v Evropské unii a umožnil vytyčování cílů pro jednotlivé jazykové úrovně. Dalším dokumentem, který se zabývá očekávanými výstupy je Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání (RVP ZV). Tento dokument je pro školy v České republice, který popisuje očekávané výstupy pro každý předmět a stupeň vzdělávání. Rozvoj řečové dovednosti zahrnuje jak žáka, tak učitele, který má mnoho rolí, např. podporovatel, motivátor, vzor, instruktor, ale hlavně poskytovatel zpětné vazby, což je klíčová role pro tuto práci. Když je žák starší a zná své potřeby při učení se anglického jazyka, může se zapojit do vytyčování cílů a celkového vytváření kurzu výuky. Žák se také může zapojit do výuky s tím, že sám navrhne a připraví aktivitu. Také jsou samozřejmě žáci povzbuzováni, aby na sobě pracovali i mimo třídu, dohlíželi na sebe a své chyby. Co se týče zpětné vazby, žáci si mohou navzájem poskytovat zpětnou vazbu, jak ve dvojicích, tak ve skupinách nebo mohou provést sebehodnocení. Jak už ale bylo řečeno, tato bakalářská práce se zaměřuje na zpětnou vazbu od učitele, a proto tyto dva typy zde nejsou více diskutovány.

Druhá kapitola se zabývá mluvními aktivitami. Cílem mluvních aktivit je, aby žáci mluvili anglicky sami co nejvíce. Mluvení zahrnuje předání zprávy a interakci s ostatními účastníky rozhovoru, proto by aktivity měly být navrženy tak, aby žáci byli připraveni na komunikaci venku, mimo třídu. Obecně aktivity mohou být řízené a volné, kdy během řízených učitel nastaví hranice, např. žáci musí použít určitý gramatický jev. Na druhou stranu, během volných mluvních aktivit, je na žákovi, jakou gramatiku a slovní zásobu použije. Tyto aktivity

dále mohou být rozděleny do dalších kategorií. Patří sem aktivity zaměřující se na to, že žákovi chybí určitá informace a musí si ji vykomunikovat. Dále, diskuse, hraní rolí, kdy se žáci musí vcítit do určité role nebo simulace. Do monologických aktivit patří prezentace, kdy je na žákovi přednést něco před celou třídou, jak už z předem připravených poznámek nebo přímo na místě. Jak už bylo řečeno, zpětná vazba je nezbytnou součástí rozvoje řečové dovednosti, a proto během aktivit žáci nemohou být ponecháni v nevědomosti, co bylo správně a co naopak ne.

Třetí kapitola se zabývá zpětnou vazbou, její definicí a diskusí efektivní zpětné vazby, která může ovlivnit učební proces jak pozitivně, tak negativně, kdy záleží na podání zpětné vazby. V další části je popsána efektivní zpětná vazba, která by měla být v souladu s cílem aktivity, měla by pouze hodnotit žáka, kde se nachází na cestě k vytyčenému cíli. Dále by učitel měl hodnotit pouze to, co viděl a dát návrhy, jak se zlepšit na cestě k cíli. Zpětná vazba by měla být jasná a srozumitelná a co nejvíce konkrétní. Také záleží, jakým tónem učitel zpětnou vazbu poskytuje, jak působí na žáka. Když učitel poskytuje zpětnou vazbu, musí rozhodnout, zda by měl poskytnout tzv. online zpětnou vazbu, která přeruší aktivitu nebo offline zpětnou vazbu, která je ponechána až nakonec aktivity. Dalším kritériem pro rozhodování je, zda poskytnout zpětnou vazbu celé třídě najednou nebo každému žákovi zvlášť. V další části jsou popsány korektivní techniky, které jsou používány k opravě chyb. Nejefektivnějšími technikami jsou považovány ty, při kterých je žák aktivně zapojen a musí se podílet na hledání správné odpovědi.

V praktické části je nejdříve vytyčen cíl pro výzkum, kterým je zjistit, jakou zpětnou vazbu a jakým způsobem učitel poskytuje žákům na druhém stupni základní školy při mluvních aktivitách a zda tato zpětná vazba je v souladu s cílem aktivity. V další části autorka vysvětluje, jaký nástroj pro sběr dat si vybrala a proč – observace a observační list. Autorka se během výzkumu aktivně nezapojovala do výuky, pouze zpovzdálí sledovala hodiny anglického jazyka a data zapisovala do předem vytvořeného observačního listu. Observační list zahrnuje popis aktivity, její cíl, na co se zpětná vazba zaměřuje (gramatika, výslovnost, slovní zásoba), způsob, jakým zpětná vazba je poskytnuta. Další sloupce se zaměřují na komunikační strategie, pragmatické aspekty a načasování zpětné vazby. V další části praktické části je popsán výzkumný vzorek, čímž je učitel na druhém stupni základní školy v Pardubickém kraji a observace hodin anglického jazyka v rozmezí 22 hodin. Poté následuje rozbor každé mluvní aktivity v každém ročníku se zaměřením na zpětnou vazbu. Výzkum ukázal, že učitel se snaží poskytnout zpětnou vazbu všem žákům, ale během šesti aktivit

mnoho žáků zůstalo naprosto bez zpětné vazby, což by se nemělo dít. Učitel také většinou používal tzv. online zpětnou vazbu, kdy žáka přerušil, ale občas to bylo spíše na škodu, protože přerušil plynulost projevu. Soulad mezi zpětnou vazbou a cílem aktivity byl občas jen částečný, protože u některých aktivit učitel vytyčil cíl např. vytvořit koherentní a kohezní příběh, ale zpětná vazba se zaměřovala pouze na kohezi. Také se stávalo, že učitel vytyčil cíl, ale při poskytování zpětné vazby se zaměřoval na něco úplně jiného.

V závěru bakalářské práce jsou shrnuty nejdůležitější body teoretické části, která poskytla teoretický rámec pro část praktickou. Je zde zdůrazněna důležitost poskytování zpětné vazby, která může usnadnit učební proces a může zabránit neúspěchu v budoucnu. Zároveň jsou zde určité návrhy reagující na výsledky výzkumu a to např. učitel by měl vytyčit jeden cíl aktivity a v souladu s ním poskytovat zpětnou vazbu nebo by měl dbát na to, aby všichni žáci dostali zpětnou vazbu a najít způsob, jak to udělat a nevynechávat je.

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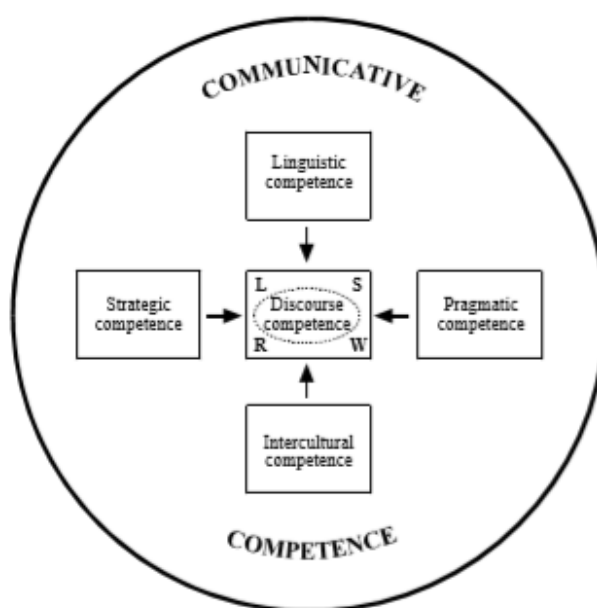
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Appendix A- *Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor scheme of communicative competence*



Source: Usó-Juan, Esther, and Alicia Martínez-Flor. 2008. “Teaching Intercultural Communicative Competence through the Four Skills.” *Revista Alicantina de Estudios Ingleses* 21: 157-170.

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Appendix B – *expected outcomes according to CEFR*

(coherence and cohesion, grammatical accuracy, linguistic range, phonological control, sociolinguistic appropriateness, spoken fluency, vocabulary range, thematic development)

	COHERENCE AND COHESION
C2	Can create coherent and cohesive text making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of cohesive devices.
C1	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Can use a variety of linking words efficiently to mark clearly the relationships between ideas.
	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some 'jumpiness' in a long contribution.
B1	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.
A2	Can use the most frequently occurring connectors to link simple sentences in order to tell a story or describe something as a simple list of points.
	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.
A1	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like 'and' or 'then'.

	GRAMMATICAL ACCURACY
C2	Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions).
C1	Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare and difficult to spot.
B2	Good grammatical control; occasional 'slips' or non-systematic errors and minor flaws in sentence structure may still occur, but they are rare and can often be corrected in retrospect. Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make mistakes which lead to misunderstanding.
B1	Communicates with reasonable accuracy in familiar contexts; generally good control though with noticeable mother tongue influence. Errors occur, but it is clear what he/she is trying to express. Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used 'routines' and patterns associated with more predictable situations.
A2	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes – for example tends to mix up tenses and forget to mark agreement; nevertheless, it is usually clear what he/she is trying to say.
A1	Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a learnt repertoire.

	GENERAL LINGUISTIC RANGE
C2	Can exploit a comprehensive and reliable mastery of a very wide range of language to formulate thoughts precisely, give emphasis, differentiate and eliminate ambiguity . . . No signs of having to restrict what he/she wants to say.
C1	Can select an appropriate formulation from a broad range of language to express him/herself clearly, without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.
B2	Can express him/herself clearly and without much sign of having to restrict what he/she wants to say. Has a sufficient range of language to be able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints and develop arguments without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so.
B1	Has a sufficient range of language to describe unpredictable situations, explain the main points in an idea or problem with reasonable precision and express thoughts on abstract or cultural topics such as music and films. Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some hesitation and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events, but lexical limitations cause repetition and even difficulty with formulation at times.
A2	Has a repertoire of basic language which enables him/her to deal with everyday situations with predictable content, though he/she will generally have to compromise the message and search for words. Can produce brief everyday expressions in order to satisfy simple needs of a concrete type: personal details, daily routines, wants and needs, requests for information. Can use basic sentence patterns and communicate with memorised phrases, groups of a few words and formulae about themselves and other people, what they do, places, possessions etc. Has a limited repertoire of short memorised phrases covering predictable survival situations; frequent breakdowns and misunderstandings occur in non-routine situations.
A1	Has a very basic range of simple expressions about personal details and needs of a concrete type.

	PHONOLOGICAL CONTROL
C2	As C1
C1	<i>Can vary intonation and place sentence stress correctly in order to express finer shades of meaning.</i>
B2	<i>Has acquired a clear, natural, pronunciation and intonation.</i>
B1	<i>Pronunciation is clearly intelligible even if a foreign accent is sometimes evident and occasional mispronunciations occur.</i>
A2	<i>Pronunciation is generally clear enough to be understood despite a noticeable foreign accent, but conversational partners will need to ask for repetition from time to time.</i>
A1	<i>Pronunciation of a very limited repertoire of learnt words and phrases can be understood with some effort by native speakers used to dealing with speakers of his/her language group.</i>

	SOCIOLINGUISTIC APPROPRIATENESS
C2	<i>Has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms with awareness of connotative levels of meaning. Appreciates fully the sociolinguistic and sociocultural implications of language used by native speakers and can react accordingly. Can mediate effectively between speakers of the target language and that of his/her community of origin taking account of sociocultural and sociolinguistic differences.</i>
C1	<i>Can recognise a wide range of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms, appreciating register shifts; may, however, need to confirm occasional details, especially if the accent is unfamiliar. Can follow films employing a considerable degree of slang and idiomatic usage. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social purposes, including emotional, allusive and joking usage.</i>
B2	<i>Can express him or herself confidently, clearly and politely in a formal or informal register, appropriate to the situation and person(s) concerned. Can with some effort keep up with and contribute to group discussions even when speech is fast and colloquial. Can sustain relationships with native speakers without unintentionally amusing or irritating them or requiring them to behave other than they would with a native speaker. Can express him or herself appropriately in situations and avoid crass errors of formulation.</i>
B1	<i>Can perform and respond to a wide range of language functions, using their most common exponents in a neutral register. Is aware of the salient politeness conventions and acts appropriately. Is aware of, and looks out for signs of, the most significant differences between the customs, usages, attitudes, values and beliefs prevalent in the community concerned and those of his or her own.</i>
A2	<i>Can perform and respond to basic language functions, such as information exchange and requests and express opinions and attitudes in a simple way. Can socialise simply but effectively using the simplest common expressions and following basic routines. Can handle very short social exchanges, using everyday polite forms of greeting and address. Can make and respond to invitations, suggestions, apologies, etc.</i>
A1	<i>Can establish basic social contact by using the simplest everyday polite forms of: greetings and farewells; introductions; saying please, thank you, sorry, etc.</i>

	SPOKEN FLUENCY
C2	Can express him/herself at length with a natural, effortless, unhesitating flow. Pauses only to reflect on precisely the right words to express his/her thoughts or to find an appropriate example or explanation.
C1	Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.
B2	Can communicate spontaneously, often showing remarkable fluency and ease of expression in even longer complex stretches of speech. Can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although he/she can be hesitant as he/she searches for patterns and expressions, there are few noticeably long pauses. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without imposing strain on either party.
B1	Can express him/herself with relative ease. Despite some problems with formulation resulting in pauses and 'cul-de-sacs', he/she is able to keep going effectively without help. Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.
A2	Can make him/herself understood in short contributions, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident. Can construct phrases on familiar topics with sufficient ease to handle short exchanges, despite very noticeable hesitation and false starts.
A1	Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.

	VOCABULARY RANGE
C2	Has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning.
C1	Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions; little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies. Good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.
B2	Has a good range of vocabulary for matters connected to his/her field and most general topics. Can vary formulation to avoid frequent repetition, but lexical gaps can still cause hesitation and circumlocution.
B1	Has a sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some circumlocutions on most topics pertinent to his/her everyday life such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.
A2	Has sufficient vocabulary to conduct routine, everyday transactions involving familiar situations and topics. Has a sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic communicative needs. Has a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs.
A1	Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases related to particular concrete situations.

	THEMATIC DEVELOPMENT
C2	As C1
C1	Can give elaborate descriptions and narratives, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.
B2	Can develop a clear description or narrative, expanding and supporting his/her main points with relevant supporting detail and examples.
B1	Can reasonably fluently relate a straightforward narrative or description as a linear sequence of points.
A2	Can tell a story or describe something in a simple list of points.
A1	No descriptor available

Appendix C – expected outcomes according to FEP EE

PRODUCTIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Expected Outcomes

The pupil shall:

- *create a simple (both oral and written) expression concerned with a situation related to family and school life and other thematic areas being studied*
- *create simple sentences and short texts and modify them in writing using correct grammar*
- *retell briefly the content of a text, utterance as well as conversation of suitable difficulty*

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- *request simple information*

INTERACTIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Expected Outcomes

The pupil shall:

- *make himself/herself understood in a simple manner in common everyday situations*

Source: VÚP. 2007. Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education. Prague: VÚP.

http://www.vuppraha.rvp.cz/wp-content/uploads/2009/12/RVP_ZV_EN_final.pdf

MLUVENÍ

žák

CJ-9-2-01 *zeptá se na základní informace a adekvátně reaguje v běžných formálních i neformálních situacích*

CJ-9-2-02 *mluví o své rodině, kamarádech, škole, volném čase a dalších osvojovaných tématech*

CJ-9-2-03 *vypráví jednoduchý příběh či událost; popíše osoby, místa a věci ze svého každodenního života*

Minimální doporučená úroveň pro úpravy očekávaných výstupů v rámci podpůrných opatření:

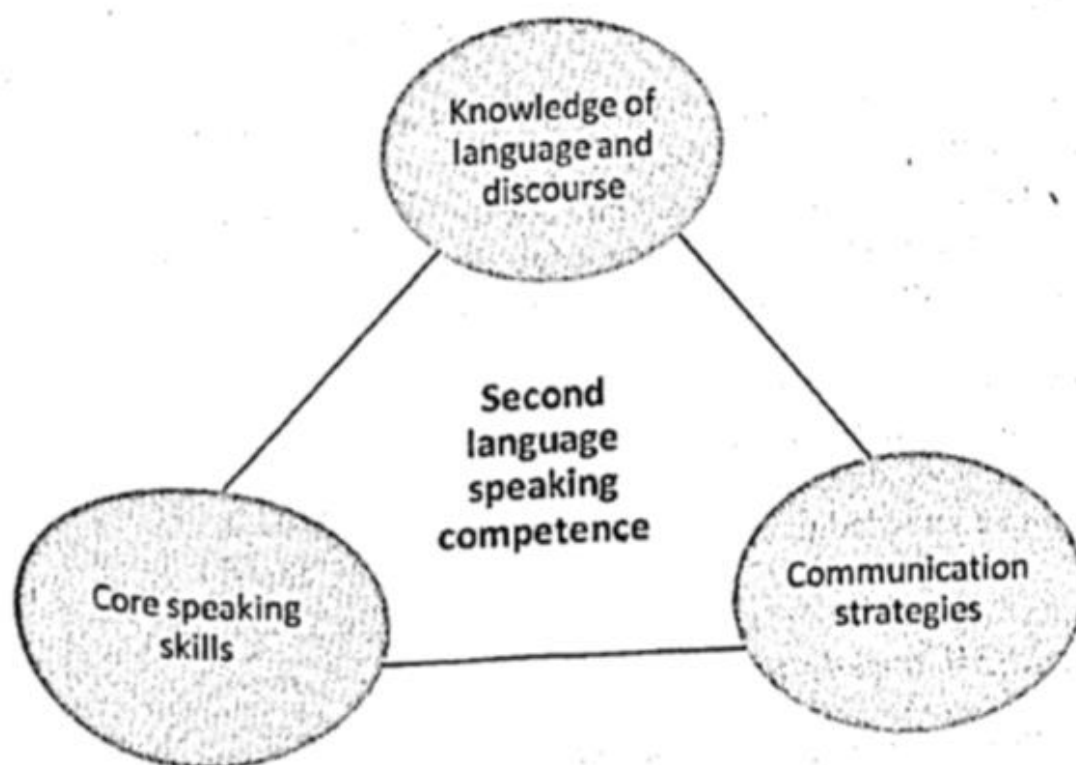
žák

CJ-9-2-01p *odpoví na jednoduché otázky, které se týkají jeho osoby*

Source: MŠMT. 2017. *Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání*. Praha: MŠMT.

<http://www.msmt.cz/file/43792/>

Appendix D – *model of second language speaking competence by Goh and Burns*



Source: Goh, Christine C. M., and Anne Burns. 2012. *Teaching speaking: a holistic approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix E – four categories of core speaking skills according to the model SLSC

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, processes, 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, according 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.”

Source: Goh, Christine C. M., and Anne Burns. 2012. *Teaching speaking: a holistic approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix F – *communication strategies according to the model SLSC*

Communication strategies	Specific strategies
<p>a. Cognitive strategies</p> <p>Techniques to compensate for gaps in lexical knowledge and related linguistic problems.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Paraphrase: Circumlocuting or describing an object, person, or event to get the meaning of a specific word across. - Approximation: Using an alternative term, e.g., <i>squirrel</i> for <i>chipmunk</i> - Formulaic expressions: Using language chunks, e.g., <i>What I'm trying to say is...</i> to buy processing time. - Message frames: Setting the global context for what is being described before attempting to describe it.
<p>b. Metacognitive strategies</p> <p>Mental operations to regulate thinking and language during speaking.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Planning: Preparing the contents and the form of the message. - Self-monitoring: Noticing one's language and message during message production. - Self-evaluation: Noticing one's language and message after message production.
<p>c. Interactional strategies</p> <p>Social behaviors for negotiating meaning during interaction.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Exemplification: Offering an example to make one's point clear. - Confirmation checks: Asking listeners whether they have understood the message. - Comprehension checks: Paraphrasing what is heard to confirm one's understanding. - Repetition: Repeating all or part of what is said to check one's own understanding. - Clarification requests: Asking the speaker to explain a point further. - Repetition requests: Asking the speaker to say something again. - Exemplification requests: Asking the speaker to give an example. - Assistance appeal: Asking the listener for help with difficult words.

Source: Goh, Christine C. M., and Anne Burns. 2012. *Teaching speaking: a holistic approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix G – *feedback content table by Brookhart*

Feedback Content	
Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on "joint productive activity" (Dalton, 1998)—work done collaboratively with other students (fosters language development as well as learning) that leads to a product, so there is some concrete work to discuss. • Focus on the product and the activity that produced it.
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make comparisons criterion-referenced (compare student work to standards). • Make comparisons self-referenced as appropriate (point out improvement).
Function and Valence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be descriptive.
Clarity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use student's first language as well as English for feedback, if possible. • Repeat. • Speak slowly. • Use simple vocabulary; explain important terms. • Use routines.

(continued)

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Figure 7.2 Feedback Choices for English Language Learners (Continued)

Feedback Content	
Specificity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connect feedback to knowledge and skills the student already has. • Connect feedback to real life (home, community) contexts. • Ask students to explain their reasoning. • Ask students to paraphrase feedback.
Tone	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be responsive and supportive. • Listen to students and respond immediately with lesson adjustments related to feedback conversations.

Source: Brookhart, Susan M. 2008. *How to Give Effective Feedback to Your Students*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Appendix H – *blank and filled observation sheet*

LESSON PLAN				
Class:		Number of students:		Date:
Time:				
ACTIVITY DESCRIPTION	AIM OF THE ACTIVITY	FOCUS ON FORM	WAYS OF PROVIDING FEEDBACK	FEEDBACK ON COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES (if CS are the aim of the activity)
		Grammar	Repetition	Cognitive strategies
		Pronunciation	Clarification request	Metacognitive str.
		Vocabulary	Elicitation	Interaction str.
		Recast		
		Explicit correction		
		Metalinguistic feedback		
		Grammar	Repetition	Cognitive strategies
		Pronunciation	Clarification request	Metacognitive str.
		Vocabulary	Elicitation	Interaction str.
		Recast		
		Explicit correction		
		Metalinguistic feedback		

FEEDBACK ON PRAGMATIC ASPECTS	WHEN DOES FEEDBACK OCCUR?		
Discourse comp. (topic/focus)			
Style and register			
Coherence and cohesion			
Functional competence			
Discourse comp. (topic/focus)			
Style and register			
Coherence and cohesion			
Functional competence			

LESSON PLAN

Class: 8.

Number of students: 11

Date: 25.11.19

Time: 12:50 - 13:35

ACTIVITY DESCRIPTION	AIM OF THE ACTIVITY	FOCUS ON FORM	WAYS OF PROVIDING FEEDBACK	FEEDBACK ON COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES (if CS are the aim of the activity)	FEEDBACK ON PRAGMATIC ASPECTS	WHEN DOES FEEDBACK OCCUR?		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - individual work - to create coherent and cohesive stories about their future - using will/going to - present those stories 	- to orally present stories about future with notes	Grammar ✓ Pronunciation Vocabulary	Repetition ✓ Clarification request ✓ Elicitation Recast Explicit correction Metalinguistic feedback	Cognitive strategies Metacognitive str. Interaction str.	Discourse comp. (topic/focus) Style and register Coherence and cohesion Functional competence	- after each sending = interrupt	only 2 learners get feedback, others support - no task as listeners	
		Grammar Pronunciation Vocabulary	Repetition Clarification request Elicitation Recast Explicit correction Metalinguistic feedback	Cognitive strategies Metacognitive str. Interaction str.	Discourse comp. (topic/focus) Style and register Coherence and cohesion Functional competence			

