# People's Democratic Republic of Algeria Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research University of Frères Mentouri- Constantine Faculty of Letters and Languages

**Department of Letters and English Language** 

N° ordre: 40/D3C/2018 N° serie:08/Ang/2018

Attitudes and Preferences of Students' Self Repair and
Teachers' Corrective Feedback in Classroom Conversation
The Case of Second Year LMD Students of English-University of
Frères Mentouri – Constantine

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English language in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctorate in Foreign Language Didactics

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# Dedication

To my Father who insisted, until his last day, that I keep gonig on this path.

To my mother who was continuously correcting my language errors when I was young.

Who would have thought it will all lead to this!

Thank you

And in Memory of Professor Samir Laaraba whose everlasting smile is engraved in our hearts and minds.

# Acknowledgements

"...And If you would count the blessings of Allah you would not be able to count them..." [Surah Ibrahim 14:34]

First and foremost I would like to thank Allah. You have gifted me the conviction to follow my passion and fulfil my ambitions. I could never have done this without my faith in you, the Almighty.

I would thank my mother: Malika Zeghad. For the first time in 34 years, I am speechless! Words are hiding somewhere amid the heavens of your wisdom, tenderness and love you have supported me with. I will always be endlessly grateful. If I am blessed to live long enough, my hopes are to be as good as you are and always have been as a mother to me.

The journey of this humble work has sprung when the one of my father, Muhamed Aouiche, ended. I would much prefer it if you were alive and well to witness how your loyalty to knowledge and science is flourishing.

There are no proper words to convey my deep gratitude for my thesis supervisor, Prof. Samir Laaraba. You had a unique method in encouraging me those moments when my willingness to work was overwhelmed by apathy. It was just after half way of my research that I recognized that your remarks were of vital intensive to me. Words will never fully describe how a nice, sympathetic and generous soul you were.

I cannot, also, escape the desire to thank Prof. Hacene Hamada hundreds of times. He has inspired me to become an independent researcher and helped me comprehend the power of critical reasoning even before accepting to be responsible as my second supervisor. I owe him deep respect for his distinguishable insight, tolerance and continuous aid he has always provided for lost doctoral researchers.

To my brothers and sisters: Bassem, Lazhar, Nadira and Mouna. It was obvious that you did not know much about my research, but you have all believed in my efforts without knowing where they would lead. No prise bestowed upon you would ever fulfil the meanings of gratitude I owe to you.

I wholeheartedly thank Zakaria Sahraoui who has always been in my corner pushing me when I am ready to give up. I will always be thankful for having you beside me.

My deep gratitude goes to a special person whose support eclipsed all my efforts to praise it. Jalila Boutobba, you were always keen to know what I was doing and how I was proceeding offering me help any time I needed. You are a God's gift in my life.

I would also like to thank my beloved friends: Nariman, you are the wisest friend I ever knew. With your compassion, you have been able to draw a line between me and surrendering. Halima, the other whimsical version of me from another mother, thank you for those moments when I was down and you said: I can help you doing that! Afifa, you are far away but your tenderness has always inspired me to reach tranquillity.

I would like to thank all participants in my classroom observation who were patient enough to accept an intruder; the teachers and the students. Exclusive thanks, also, are to be offered to: Dr. Norah Boudehan and Dr. Esma Fetsi.

It is an honour for me that my thesis has been analysed by an accumulation of some of the best critical minds in the Algerian University. My appreciative thanks go to Pr. Farida Abderrahim, Pr. Zahri Harouni, Pr. Youcef Beghoul from University of Constantine, Pr and Dr. Nesrine Ghaouar from University of Annaba. I am more indebted, nevertheless, to Pr. Abderrahim whose continuous assistance, brilliant mind and merciful soul overwhelmed our abilities to properly thank her; on behalf of all the doctoral students, I beg your pardon for being a burden which you have been voluntarily bearing.

I cannot finish my acknowledgements without mentioning Mr. Ahmed Bouafia, the inspectot of education in Constantine, whose assistance in this research unveiled a high level of intellectuality and awareness about the field of teaching English as a foreign language.

If there is anyone that I forgot, please do not hold it against me. I just figured that the board of examiners, and readers as well, would prefer to have a book of my own field research rather than a book of my personal acknowledgments.

ABSTRACT

Oral errors are commonplace in the EFL learning process. Eliciting teachers' and students'

collaboration in error treatment towards enhancing oral production and uptake is the main

concern of this study. Based on the central questions: Who repairs? When? What? How to

repair? And how much uptake is generated?, two attitudinal questionnaires were delivered to

150 second year LMD students and 16 teachers in the English department inquiring their

perceptions about error repair. The main hypothesis speculates that the betterment of students'

spoken language can be achieved through a conscious collaborative repair work regarding

each participant's preferences. The repair behaviour was probed via a non-participatory

natural classroom observation during 16 hours of oral courses varied between interaction and

presentations. Controversial, though not conflicting, results were detected on two levels of

analysis: The students' Vs The teachers' attitudes and preferences towards the repair of oral

failures, besides the claimed attitudes Vs those revealed during the classroom observation that

achieved average amounts of students' uptake. These findings lend a strong support for the

main hypothesis and encourage further pursuit of research in this field.

**Key Words:** Oral Errors- Self Repair- Corrective Feedback- Uptake

#### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA: Conversation Analysis

**CBI**: Content-based instruction

**CF:** Corrective Feedback

**CLT**: Communicative Language Teaching

**DCF**: Delayed Corrective Feedback

**EA:** Error Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

**ELT**: English Language Teaching

**FFI:** Focus on Form Instruction

**ICF**: Immediate Corrective Feedback

IL: Interlanguage

ISR: Immediate Self-Repair

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

**NNS:** Non-native Speakers

**NS:** Native Speakers

O.I.O.R: Other-Initiation Other-Repair

**O.I.S.R:** Other -Initiation Self -Repair

**P.C.F:** Postponed Corrective Feedback

**RW:** Repair Work

S.I.S.R: Self- Initiation Self -Repair

S.I.O.R: Self- Initiation Other- Repair

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

**SR**: Self-Repair

**TEFL**: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

**TESL:** Teaching English as a Second Language

**TRP**: Transition-relevance place

# LIST OF CODES OF SPECIAL RELEVANCE TO THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

**App:** Approval

**Del:** Delayed

Ful.Rep: Full Repetition

**Imd:** Immediate

**Ins:** Insertion

**Non-Lex:** Non Lexical Fillers/Initiators

Part-Rep: Partial Repetition

**Post:** Postponed

**Sub:** Substitution

[...]: Pause or Use of Non-Lexical Fillers

(...): Unsignificant Words in the Utterance

: Missing Lexeme(s)/Word(s)

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### **GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

- 1. Statement of the Problem
- 2. Aims of the Study
- 3. Research Questions
- 4. Hypotheses
- 5. Research Tools
- 6. Structure of the Study

#### 1- Statement of the Problem

In the field of foreign language (FL) and second language (L2) education the quandary of what exactly comprises effective teaching continues to perplex teachers, students and administrators. The overall aim of teaching is to develop all-round communicative skills necessary for enhancing students' abilities in today's changing world. Within this context, there is a heightened potentiality of problematic talk in the EFL classroom, e.g. errors, misunderstandings and non-communication; the need for *repair* (Schegloff, E., A., Jefferson, G. and Sacks, H., 1977) is therefore situationally endemic. Error treatment, thus, either via self- repair or corrective feedback, is assumed to be inevitable in language learning and acquisition whereby the teacher's role in authorizing feedback should be determined, but not constrained, to alert learners about their oral breakdowns and enhance their willingness of future self repair. Accordingly, as many language educators and researchers maintain, making errors is necessary and natural in language learning which broke ground for substantial inquiry about repair of oral errors in classroom. In this regard, the problem of the onogoing inquiry is grounded in two pedagogical areas: The first is associated with the Hendrickson's questions about error treatment in classroom (1978). Whilst the second is akin to perceiving the EFL learners' attitudes towards this phenomenon which is of outmost importance in facilitating the teachers' comprehension of the overall process involving learning via error repair (Oslen, 1976; Ellis, 1996; Lyster &Ranta, 1997; Mackey et.al., 2000; Philip, 2003; Loewen et.al., 2009; Egi, 2010; Lyster et.al., 2013)

On a personal level, as a teacher of English language to university students, I repetitiously wonder if the feedback I afford my students is retained in their memory. I began asking why some of these corrections or even some language aspects are retrieved while others are lost. I, therefore, sought to observe repair patterns in classroom interaction and identify those implying the potentiality of learning or acquiring the language: These patterns were

previously intended to be inquired on both levels of the students' and the teachers' corrective behaviour in the Master thesis. Time and resource limitations, however, were barriers against the thorough achievement of this promised aim whereby merely self-repair patterns were probed. This investigation, thus, was motivated by some earlier findings revealed, those of which alerted the vitalness of more aware self-repair and well-managed assistance from the teachers towards reaching a native-like oral production in the students' speech. Further interesting was the detected average use of complete self-repair and the students' tendency to rely on others' interference; showing a specific preference towards the teachers' corrective feedback as a back-up to overcome oral failures. This was an influencing factor on the students' over-all outcome of oral production because appropriate corrective feedback is known to expand opportunities for learners' self-repair while deficient feedback is assumed to lower students' oral proficiency.

As EFL instructors, also, we have been trained and told about the substantiality of error treatment to improve learning. Nonetheless, as researchers, we realize that some EFL teachers seem to lack adequate perseverance about the whole repair process, and corrective feedback in particular, although extensive research showed that feedback is of great contribution to the learning process in general (Black & William, 1998). Based on our observations, we found it imperative to examine the teachers' attitudes and preferences of feedback, as well as the students' perceptions towards this feedback regarding their self -repair attitudes in the first place. These patterns of preferences would make comprehending the learner's needs permeable for teachers.

Moreover, research on error treatment in an Algerian context has been carried out regarding written discourse only (eg, Bouhania, 2014; Hemaidia, 2016), while countless questions are left unanswered when dealing with students' errors during interactional activities. Very few studies on students' spoken errors, sources of these errors and the importance of a correction

were conducted without highlighting the contribution of participants in this process (eg, Amara, 2015; which was conducted on both written and oral scripts). Henceforth, the current descriptive study, conducted at the University of Constantine, aims to identify the perceptions of our instructors of English as a foreign language about corrective feedback and its actual practice in their classrooms with regard to the students' attitudes and autonomous efforts devoted to overcome oral breakdowns.

#### 2- Aims of the Study

In accordance with the formerly discussed points, several scenarios justify the need to:

- Reveal the patterns of repair work of oral production that will generate worthwhile research questions for future error treatment studies.
- Probe the favourable outcomes of the interrelation between the teachers' and the students' repairing behaviour in terms of: First, the extents to which teachers adapt their corrective feedback along with students' competencies and proficiency. Second, The students' response to their teachers' feedback namely *uptake*.
- To raise the teachers' awareness about the effectiveness of selecting adjustable strategies which are herby incorporated in profitable error treatment of oral production.
- To raise the students' awareness about the valuable contribution brought to their learning by self- repair and active cooperation with teachers in repair work.

#### 3- Research Questions

This study sought to answer questions of classroom applicability than those of theoretical relevance; it examines the nature of repair work in classroom conversation in relative accordance to Hendrickson's prominent questions (1978).

1. Should students' spoken errors be repaired?

- 2. Who provides more repair work of oral production, the teacher or the students?
- 3. What error types are being repaired in classroom conversation?
- 4. How do participants in classroom interaction contribute in repair work? And what are the strategies utilised by teachers and students to appropriate oral production?
- 5. When do teachers authorise corrective feedback?
- 6. To what extents does corrective feedback induce favourable uptake during repair work in classroom conversation?
- 7. Do teachers and students collaborate in achieving satisfactory repair work during interaction?

#### 4- Hypotheses

Taking the research questions in consideration, we hypothesize that:

- The Teachers' and the students' attitudes and preferences towards conversational repair work would be distinct on the basis of the dissimilarities between the two participants in the levels of awareness and proficiency.
- 2. The students' low proficiency and self-repair willingness would confine repair patterns.
- 3. The teachers' unconsciousness of their students' needs and competences would impede successful corrective feedback.
- 4. Achieving a perseverant and aware alliance between participants in classroom conversation would bring forward higher degrees of effective repair work and uptake.

## 5- Research Methodology

The design of this study consists of two attitudinal questionnaires for the teachers and the students beside a naturally conducted classroom observation.

16 EFL teachers were selected on the basis of purposive sampling in which 100% of the sample was represented by those who have been teaching Oral expression for adequate periods of time; this have respectively allowed rich data to be examined. 150 students, out of 800 students as the whole population of 2<sup>nd</sup> year LMD students of EFL for the academic year 2014/2015, were apportioned into 07 randomly selected groups then appointed to respond to another questionnaire. Homogeneously yet implicit, both questionnaires inquired the teachers' and the students' repair inclinations and willingness. The teachers' questionnaire, however, included an additional section to inquire their estimations about corrective feedback strategies that best induce higher uptake.

Classroom observation was processed during 13.03 hours of Oral expression courses attended by the same groups previously interrogated with the questionnaire. 07 sessions, lasting 5.28 hours, were videotaped whilst other sessions were carried out in a form of *taking notes* and *drafting data* whereby we designed tables to categorise students' errors and any repair work. We applied for the same tables' format in our analysis of merely 3.02 hours of classroom conversation: Limitations of time and reciprocated patterns of repair prevailed towards accomplishing the research aims accounting for 04 sessions only with which examples were transcribed according to *conversation analysis norms*. Operating the data analysis was done via classifying oral errors/breakdowns into 04 categories: Grammatical, phonological, lexical and communicative. Details about repair works detected were diagnosed through two stages of identification; one of which was based on Hall's categorization of repair types (2007), the other was processed through isolating the students' self-repair strategies (Schegloff et.al, 1977) from the teacher's corrective feedback (Lyster and Ranta

taxonomy, 1997, 2007 with Sheen and Ellis taxonomy, 2011). The analytic discussion, therefore, was carried out on the ground of discovering *repair patterns* and *uptake degrees* generated by the corrective feedback afforded.

#### 6- Structure of the Thesis

The descriptive design of the study was accomplished along 07 chapters: 03 of which to demonstrate the theoretical perspectives about the field of inquiry, 01 chapter for describing the methodology adopted and 02 for the analysis of data provided to come upon a centripetal chapter approaching pedagogical implications and recommendations.

In chapter one, literature about oral production, error and conversation analyses is exhibited in three separate sections whereby definitions, types and theoretical backgrounds of each are demonstrated.

The second chapter, furthermore, identifies repair work being the focal of the current study, with an emphasis on illustrating repair frameworks vital to our analysis (Schegloff et.al., 1977; Hall's, 2007). The second section addresses the prominent questions of Hendrickson (1978) which are adapted to refer to *repai*r, instead of correction, besides presenting the researchers' views since 1978 regarding these questions. Moreover, the two other sections handle *self-repair* (SR) and *corrective feedback* (CF) as the two decisive mechanisms of the whole repair process. Corrective feedback, however, is fairly introduced in this chapter with illustrating definitions, strategies and the theoretical perceptions about its effectiveness only before Lyster's and Ranta's study (1997), whilst strategies utilised in the data analysis are to be separately handled in the next chapter along with their utility in error treatment.

In chapter 03, the fundamental aspect reviewed is *corrective feedback in classroom* since Lyster and Ranta taxonomy of strategies (1997, 2007) with regard to the afterward studies

suggesting adjustments or extensions to the same taxonomy. The profitability of this variation of strategies in activating certain extents of *uptake* is discussed in a second section. The final section exhibits the divergence of both teachers' and learners' attitudes and preferences towards corrective feedback referring to pedagogical research in the field.

Specifying the construction of the research design characterizes the fourth chapter. Details about the methodological approach and perspective besides participants and the descriptive procedure of the classroom observation are, all, introduced.

Chapter five is concerned with the examination of data derived from both questionnaires. A comprehensive diagnosis of the teachers' and the students' responses is linked to the research questions during the whole process of analysis. The chapter is divided into two sections, each of which comprises the interpretations of feedback attained from informants towards questions that were pre-established in the form of sub-sections.

The decisive explanations and speculations about the participants' repair behaviour are well reflected in chapter 06. The 4 sections-chapter incorporated the translation of data derived from the 4 sessions- classroom observation wherein each section affords answers to the research questions: The amounts of repair detected, who owes control over repair work, types of spoken breakdowns operationalised, self-repair and corrective feedback strategies, the time of delivering the latter and, finally, the intensity of uptake activated by this CF.

The final chapter suggests a summary of findings with regard to the spotted paradoxes and similarities between the claimed attitudes in both questionnaires and the factual inclinations disclosed during classroom observation. This can break the ground for cautiously proposed recommendations for the betterment of repair work and, therefore, language learning in classroom.

# **CHAPTER ONE**

# **Oral Errors in Classroom Conversation**

# Introduction

1.5.2.3

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**Conclusion** 

# Chapter One

# Oral Errors in Classroom Conversation

#### Introduction

This chapter introduces literature about spoken interaction regarding the occurrence of errors as obstructing, but natural, phenomena in learning. Being the domain of the present research, oral production is identified in the first section highlighting the significance of speaking amongst other language skills and the methods of measuring communicative competence. Conversation Analysis (CA), as the tool of deciphering interaction, is identified in the second section, whereas, the third section is devoted for illustrating definitions, types and causes of errors as phenomena under investigation. The focal aspect, thus, is Error Analysis (EA) and its inevitability to reach the full image about students' errors.

## 1.1 Oral Production and Interaction in English as a Foreign Language

Interacting in a foreign language class is a vital activity to enhance the learners' ability of communicating in this language.

#### 1.1.1 Oral Production Defined

In simple words, oral production is producing an oral text for one or more listeners, for example giving information to an audience in a public address. This may involve reading a written text aloud, speaking from notes, acting out a rehearsed role, speaking spontaneously, improvising or singing a song.

Demands of oral production established by Tarone (2005) were illustrated in a previous study of our own (Aouiche, 2011) as associated mainly with *Content, Morpho-syntax, Lexis, Discourse* and *Information structuring, the sound system* and *prosody, appropriate register, Pragma-linguistic features of language* 

## 1.1.2 Learners' production/Speaking and Language Learning

Second language acquisition (SLA) research has been constantly affirming the facilitative nature of learners' production in triggering both the learning and the acquisition of the target language rather than being a mere elicitation to fluent and comprehensible speech (Krashen 1985, 1989, 1994; Long 1983, 1990; Van Patten 1990). Learners can manipulate the language use via adjusting and approximating their oral production toward efficient use of the target language (Swain 1985, 1993, 1995; Swain and Lapkin 1995; Pica 1994; Pica, Holliday et al., 1989; Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun 1993; Pica, Lincoln-Porter, et. al., 1996; Shehadeh 1991).

## **1.1.3** Communicative Competence

Amongst six different categories of language competence (Llurda, 2000), Communicative competence is roughly indicated to be crucially important in a foreign language learning.

LANGUAGE COMPETENCIES							
Communicative	Discursive	Linguistic	Strategic	Pragmatic	Socioliguistic	Transitional	

Table 1.1: Types of Language Competencies -Based on Llurda Classification (2000) -

For Ellis (1994: 696), communicative competence is equivalent to "a language user's underlying knowledge of language". It is, therefore, the result of internalizing the variation of a language towards better comprehension and production as well. Its use, however, is substantially complementary to the participant's individual's social competence. Edmonson (1981: 88) emphasized the nature of communicative competence as an "encoding, decoding and sequencing of central communicative acts". This includes mastery of the linguistic code or forms (phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon) bended with the targeted function (speech act). From this definition Canale's (1983) framework emerged to consider four aspects: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competencies (see Consolo, 1999, for a more extensive review of these competences) added to what Corder (1976) has

previously labelled as the *transitional competence* with which learners earn a developmental knowledge.

## 1.1.4 Spoken interaction in an EFL Context

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2004) provided the following definition for interaction as follows

In interaction at least two individuals participate in an oral and/or written exchange in which production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap in oral communication. Not only may two interlocutors be speaking and yet listening to each other simultaneously. Even where turn-taking is strictly respected, the listener is generally already forecasting the remainder of the speaker's message and preparing a response. Learning to interact thus involves more than listening to receive and to produce utterances. (p.4)

Studies have shown that interaction, whether between native/non-native speakers (NSs/NNSs) and non-native/non-native speakers (NNSs/NNSs), is efficient through meaning negotiation merely, whereby both learners and their interlocutors collaborate to accomplish the communicative goal of the interaction.

In accordance with this, Ellis (1990) asserted that meaning-focused interaction impedes *intelligibility breakdowns* via a cohesive work of all participants: "... not only to those exchanges involving authentic communication but to every oral exchange that occurs in the classroom, including those that arise in the course of formal drilling..." (p.12)

The vital role of interactional classes is not only akin to receiving input, but rather related to allowing adjustments of output via error treatment (Long 1983; Varonis and Gass 1985, Gas and Varonis, 1985, 1994; Doughty 1988, 1992; Deen 1995; Loschky 1994). According to Kerns, Elhouar, Sterling, Grant, McGowan, Rubash, Neelly and Wolffe, communicative driven interaction is one of ten principles of effective teaching:

create an active learning environment; focus attention; connect knowledge; help students organize their knowledge; provide timely feedback; demand quality; balance high expectations with student support; enhance motivation to learn; encourage faculty- student and student-student interaction and communication; and help students to productively manage their time. Learners will get more knowledge from the lessons when they actively participate in their learning. (2005: 4)

#### 1.1.5 Types of Oral Interaction in Classroom

Types of interaction inside classroom are mainly represented by *verbal* and *non-verbal interaction*. The latter consists of body language whereby participants attempt to convey meaning through: head nodding, hand raising, body gestures, and eye contact. Whilst the verbal interaction is associated with two other sub-categories namely: *written interaction* which by students are authorized to jot down their ideas before speaking or present previously prepared projects, besides *oral interaction* whereby they depend on bear talk without assistant documents (XIE & JIANG,2007). The most accurate definition of these came as follows: "Interaction is the process referring to "face-to-face" action. It can be either verbal channelled through written or spoken words, or non-verbal, channelled through tough, proximity, eye-contact, facial expressions, gesturing, etc." (Robinson, 1994:7)

#### 1.1.6 Forms of Classroom Interaction

According to Angelo (1993), classroom interaction constitutes of *teacher-learner* and *learner interaction*.

## 1.1.6.1 Teacher-Learner Interaction

This form is essentially represented by the teacher's dominance of classroom interaction through asking students or participating in learning activities. This would make the whole interaction controlled by the teacher who decides upon both the nature and the time of a talk (Cazden, 1988; Tsui, 1995). S/he is thus central to the interaction by setting for the lesson objectives and introducing the lesson with a sum up at the end which results a negative role of students. Edwards and Westgate (quoted by Van Lier in Candlin and Mercer, 2001: 91) States

"students have only very restricted opportunities to participate in the language of the classroom." This kind of interaction therefore does not enhance learning motivation though it has been revealed to represent the largest proportion of classroom talk in many studies (Chaudron, 1988; Musumeci, 1996).

## A/ Initiation-Response-Feedback Pattern (IRF)

The IRF structure produces a single pattern of interaction where the teacher both *initiates* and closes the exchange and the student's output is limited to the response in the second turn. The talking time of both participants then is never equal (Cazden, 1988; Seedhouse, 2001) in which topic and discourse directions are established by the teacher's utilization of questions. Nevertheless, this pattern supports and promotes interaction more effectively (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Ohta, 2001; Van Lier, 1996) when the teacher replaces assessment comments with further interaction opportunities in a third turn.

## B/ Teacher questioning

According to Corey (1940, in Hargie, et al: 1981: 66), classroom interaction would never work without the teacher's questioning due to its nature as an initiators of classroom tasks and learners' responses towards successful acquisition. Subsequently, the teacher was called the *professional question marker* (Ascher, 1961; Gall, 1970) for questioning is "one of the basic ways by which the teacher stimulates students' thinking and learning".

Types of questions according to Hargie (1981) include: *Procedural questions* which are primary tools of instruction in classroom serving *teacher-student cooperation*. *Recall questions* emphasize inducing specific information from the previously learned linguistic forms beneficial to checking her/his progress without calling for high cognitive skills. Nevertheless, *process questions* stimulate more complex mental process whereby the teacher

needs to make a decision or to justify a situation along with students' opinions. *Closed questions* require simple and short answers of students like yes/no questions. *Open questions* however require all possible answers which enhance learners' opportunities of interaction utilizing advanced cognitive skills and oral proficiency.

#### C/ Wait-time

Mary (1986) reported the importance of allowing a *wait time* for the learner after asking a question which she specified by more than 2 seconds. If the response is not forthcoming in that time, the teacher may rephrase the question or seek for a reply from a peer, or even authorize the appropriate answer. The most convenient pause should last 3-4 seconds in order to enhance students' performance through expanding their chances to respond.

#### 1.1.6.2 Learner-Learner Interaction

In this form of interaction, the teacher reflects the role of a monitor only while learners are to be the central participants of interaction. Learner-learner interaction occurs in groups called learner-learner interaction, in pairs called peer interaction.

## A/ Pair work and group-work

In accordance with most research, collaborative work in groups or pairs induces highly effective practice of the language where students feel relaxed to initiate questions and responses (Tuan and Nhu, 2010).

Learners often feel at ease when discussing a topic without the teacher's interference (Gillies, 2006), in which they don't have to demand input from the teacher as the solo interlocutor (Nunan, 1992) in the view of the fact that peers have a potential ability to provide language input (Erten, 2000) where they can be more available sources of practice on the

basis of understanding each others' needs more than the teacher usually does (Gillies, 2006). Learner-learner interaction pattern in the view of Long and Porter (1985) is an attractive alternative to teacher-learner interaction.

Dawes (1999: 495, cited in Tuan and Nhu, 2010) illustrated a set of conditions to which this pattern would be efficient, those of which are: (1) All information is shared; (2) The group seeks to reach agreement; (3) The group takes responsibility for decisions; (4) Reasons are expected; (5) Challenges are expected; (6) Alternatives are discussed before a decision is taken; and (7) All in the group are encouraged to speak by other group members.

# B/ Topic-based and task-based activities

To increase the quality and quantity of interaction in classroom, the teacher needs to provide pre-planned tasks involving an interactional nature. Ur (1996) proposed two activities for oral communication namely *Topic-based* and *task-based activities*.

According to Duff (1986), *topic-based activities* tend to be "divergent" or open-ended in nature, in other words no rigid responses or outcomes are required. These activities contain discussions and debates. Such activities do not call for students' collaboration or negotiating information on the basis that each single participant is expressing her/his individual opinions (Pica et. al, 1993). Negotiation of meaning, thus, would be scored at its lowest degrees due to opinions' freedom.

Task-based activities, on the other hand, are "convergent" in nature (Duff, 1986) because they call for reaching specific outcome via language use. This specification though is not akin to one right or correct outcome. Accomplishing comprehension through the use of linguistic features is rather targeted that this usage itself. This category includes role-plays, problem solving and information-gap activities. The main objective is to engage in real

communication as Nunan (1989) asserted: "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on meaning rather than form." (P: 10)

## 1.1.7 Fluency/Content Vs Accuracy/Form and teaching Oral Skills

Researchers and educators make a clear distinction between accuracy and fluency:

## 1.1.7.1 Fluency Vs Accuracy

Essentially *accuracy* is the ability to produce correct sentences using correct grammar and vocabulary. On the other hand, *fluency* is the ability to produce language easily and smoothly which is generated when learners progress and become more comfortable using the language. As such, Accuracy-based activities include grammar presentations and exercises, reading comprehension and suchlike, whilst typical fluency activities are role playing and more communicative activities where English is used as a medium of communication rather than an end in itself.

## 1.1.7.2 Teaching Form or Content?

Taken as a given that students' needs should always dictate what you teach them, the question of whether it is more important to work on accuracy or fluency in classroom remains.

Arguing that both language *forms* and *content* are inevitable in enhancing linguistically coherent output, Russel and Spada (2006) confirmed that teaching a foreign language should incorporate both aspects. This is decisive in structuring learners' ability to speak regarding appropriateness and comprehensibility of their utterances.

Teaching approaches have been swinging between advocating *form* favouring *accuracy* and seeking *fluency* in students' speech via emphasizing *content*. In the latter approach, teachers announce their inclination to embrace communicative methods (CLT) mostly in their

first meetings with students. An error in this approach is to be regarded as "a clue to the active learning progress being made by a student as he or she tries out strategies of communication in the new language" (Yule, 1985, p. 154). In other words, the shift from form-focused teaching towards a meaning-focused approach has opened a new era for more oral proficiency (Lightbown & Spada, 1999) although both approaches are substantial in accomplishing learning.

## 1.1.8 Measuring Oral Proficiency

For Stern (1983), *proficiency* is equivalent to the current performance in a language situation involving the mastery of (a) the forms, (b) the linguistic, cognitive, affective and socio-cultural functions of those forms, (c) the qualification to adhere *communication* rather than *form*, and (d) the creativity in language use. In accordance with this definition and tracing back to Llurda's review of language competencies, we may interpret communicative language ability demonstrated earlier as constituted of two components; *Linguistic proficiency* and *communicative proficiency*.

Luoma (2005) argues that speaking is a hard proficiency aspect to measure. She states "there is no compatibility between the goal of assessment and the instruments through which oral proficiency is assessed". The rationale behind this is the complexity of factors that none of which can be disregarded when attempting to evaluate a learner's proficiency; these are: Motivation, age, L1 background, social status, intelligence, self esteem and degrees of extroversion, and last but not least talent. The contribution of these factors is of great significance in the assessment process on the basis that language acquisition relies mostly on them. Measuring the oral proficiency therefore determines the level of a decisive skill amongst the other skills: Chastain (1998) argues, a good novice speaker can ensure elevated levels of proficiency in other skills namely reading, writing, and listening.

## 1.2 Conversation Analysis

Many researchers prefer to analyse spoken discourse within its social context which is called Conversation analysis, abbreviated CA.

## 1.2.1 Conversation Analysis Defined

Conversation analysis is an approach to the study of social interaction inquiring daily life situations of both verbal and non-verbal instances. CA began with a focus on casual conversation; it was subsequently adapted to examine more task- and institution-centred interactions such as those occurring in doctors' offices, courts, law enforcement, educational settings, and the mass media. The term conversation analysis, therefore, has become something of a misnomer, but it has continued as a term for a distinctive and successful approach to the analysis of social interaction.

Inspired by Harold Garfinkel's *Ethno-methodology* (1967) and Erving Goffman's (1985) conception of the *interaction order* and the interpretive procedures underlying social action, CA was developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s principally by the sociologist Harvey Sacks and his co-associates Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson (1974). The initial formation of Sacks's ideas was documented in his lectures from 1964 to 1972 (Sacks 1992a, 1992b). Today CA is an established method used in sociology, anthropology, linguistics, speech-communication and psychology. It is has critical substantiality on *interactional sociolinguistics, discourse analysis and discursive psychology*. It is distinct from *discourse analysis* in focus and method.

A/ Its focal is squarely on processes involved in social interaction and does relay on written corpora or larger socio-cultural phenomena (for example, *discourses* in the scafauldian sense).

B/ Its method, in accordance with Garfinkel's and Goffman's initiatives, is aim to typify the methods and resources that the *interactional participants* use to produce interactional contributions and extract meaning from other interlocutors' speech. It is evident thus that CA is neither designed for, nor aimed at, diagnosing the interactional production of a participant tracking her/his perspectives of current circumstances and comprehending them. Rather the aim is to model the resources and methods by which this comprehension is produced. According to Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008) CA, labeled as *Talk -in-interaction*, is about how is a normal conversation organized, how do people interact in real-life conversations, and what is the role of conversation in between each participants. Its aim as illustrated by them is "To discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of actions are generated".

# 1.2.2 Major Dimensions

With regard to what Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008) have established as CA goals, three basic features shared by CA studies can be illustrated here: (1) they focus on *action*, (2) the *structures* of which they seek to explicate, and thereby (3) they question the accomplishment of *inter-subjective understanding* (Anssi Peräkylä, 2010). These of which are the fundamental criteria to which a CA is achieved.

#### 1.2.2.1 Action

Some CA studies have as their topics the organization of actions that are characterised as unalike actions even from a colloquial standing. Illustrations for this are *openings* and *closings of conversations*, *assessments*, *storytelling*, and *complaints*. Some institutional environments have appointed CA action's organization in their programs. Examples include *questioning and answering practices in cross-examinations*, *news interviews* and *press conferences*, and *diagnosis and advice* in medical and pedagogical settings. Significantly,

much critical is the contribution of *conversational organization* in many conversation analytical studies that make any action possible (ibid). These include turn-taking, repair behaviour, the conventional structures of action sequences, and the utilization of gaze and body language to convey meaning by participants in conversation.

#### **1.2.2.2 Structure**

In accordance with the CA view, the fulfilment of a certain action by participants in a conversation is not feasible unless they adjust themselves regarding rules and structures that accomplish their intended goals.

## 1.2.2.2.1 Turn Taking Organization

Sacks et.al. (1974) outlined the rules of *turn taking* in conversation. A current speaker is primarily responsible for one *turn constructional unit* (The smallest instance of talk that in its sequential context counts as a turn). According to Schegloff, Sacks and Jefferson (1974) handling turn transition and allocation is respectively easy when participants follow the conversation rules. It is clearly acknowledged that in the course of the conversation co-conversationalists use a number of techniques to organize the turn-taking, those of which are arranged in four rules that serve for one speaker at a time:

The first option is the transfer of speakership via allocation of the next speaker by the current speaker; if this first option is not realized, turn-taking may happen via the self-selection by one of the participants; if the second option remains unrealized too, the current speaker continues speaking, with all three options being recurrently provided at all next transition relevant places. (Jefferson et. al., 2015)

Transition-relevance place (TRP) takes place at the end of a completed utterance; it is the change-of-turn place (Wang, 2011). In order to distinguish who can take the floor at the following TRP, we should demonstrate examples for *turn taking rules* (Examples are from a personal sample)

A. If a speaker is selected by the current speaker, then that speaker must take the turn at

the next transition relevance place. As in:

Sarah: What do you think I should do for my mom's birthday Janna?

Janna: She would appreciate a Chanel Bag I suppose.

(From personal data)

In this situation, Sarah passes the turn to Janna by asking a question.

B. Any other interlocutors are welcomed to self-select if none has been appointed by the

current speaker.

Adam: What would you suggest for our next trip?

Racim: I know

Adam: Yes Racim?

Racim: *Obviously a barbeque lunch on the beach.* 

(From personal data)

C. The current speaker may, or may not; complete the conversational unit if there was no

self-select from other interlocutors.

Wael: What should we do now; we turn left or turn right?

Adam, Racim, Mayar: (Silence)

Wael: No one knows?

Wael: uh... Ok, turn right then

(From Personal data)

Speakers frequently indicate their willingness to stop talking by using some verbal or non-

verbal signals. There are two types of signals or markers.

A. Implicit markers

Most of the time, people utilize non-verbal signals and body language. Also, tones are

commonly used as a signal. Sometimes, when people started to soften their speech, lengthen

the last syllable of the whole sentence. Here are the examples that tones have been used:

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Example 1: *Have you done your homework*↑?

Example 2: \(\gamma Can't you see the point behind his argument yet?\) (From personal data)

B. Explicit markers

Apart from prosodic features, verbal linguistic features also can be used to invite people

for their response. Discourse markers such as "you know", "as you say" or "that sort of

things", it is the time for another participant to take over the conversation. These are:

a) Suggestions –Example: Hey, shall we go for shopping tomorrow? (From Personal data)

b) Request – Example: Could you please tell me more about the wiki-book project?

c) Question – Beneficial to involving other participants via drawing their attention

Example: What did you think about the EXAM" film? Interesting, wasn't it?(From personal data)

1.2.2.2.2 Overlaps in Turn-Taking

As discussed earlier, *turn-taking* can be noticeably marked through utilizing body

languages; it can also signalled by *overlapping* (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998; Schegloff et.al.,

1974).

Overlapping will occur when two or more people are speaking at the same time. In simple

words, when an interlocutor takes the floor while the current speaker is about adding extra

information which may disrupt the latter's production (Schegloff et.al., 1974).

Example: Maya: Why don't you come and join me tonight at [the Mam's Restaurant]

Serine: [For sure, I love that one.]

(From personal data)

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## 1.2.2.2.3 Adjacency Pairs

Single acts are parts of larger, structurally organized entities. These entities can be called *sequences* (Schegloff, 2006). The most basic and the most important sequence is called *adjacency pair* (Schegloff & Sacks 1973), consisting of two actions in which the first action *first pair part*- performed by a speaker invites a particular type of second action *-second pair part*- to be performed by another. Typical examples of adjacency pairs include question-answer, greeting-greeting, request-grant/refusal, and invitation acceptance/declination. The two parts are bounded within a rigid relationship: if the second pair part does not come forth, the first speaker can for example repeat the first action, or seek for explanations behind the missing reply.

Adjacency pairs serve often as a core, around which even larger sequences are built (Schegloff, 2006). So, a pre-expansion can precede an adjacency pair; an insert expansion involves actions that occur between the first and the second pair parts and make possible the production of the latter; and in a post-expansion, the speakers produce actions that follow from the basic adjacency pair.

## 1.2.2.3 Inter-Subjectivity

In CA studies, the examination of the interlocutors' intentions, background, opinions and relations to the negotiated topic is rather decisive in interpreting the interaction (Heritage & Atkinson 1984: 11).

It is subsequently influential that one interlocutor fully understands the previous turn produced by the speaker (Shegloff et. al., 1974). Thus, in simple cases, producing a turn at talk should be based on revealing such understanding in order to accomplish the conversational unit. Longer utterances in particular call for the recipient's understanding: Coparticipants' actions can be displayed through vocal and non-vocal means during the

production of that action, and this displayed understanding can inform the further unfolding of that action (Goodwin 1980). In cases of intelligibility breakdowns, the first speaker has the ability to revise her/his speech to adjust or covey more meaning (Schegloff, 1992b).

#### 1.2.2.4 Attributable Silences

Silence authorizes more than its non-verbal attribution. Jaworski (1993, p.3) asserts: "The main common link between speech and silence is that the same interpretive processes apply to someone's remaining meaningfully silent in discourse as to their speaking". He further argues that silence has positive and negative values in spoken language. His words indicated various silences of different situation perform different functions

## 1.2.3 Conversation Transcription: Research Process

Transcription of conversation is very essential for analyzing conversation. It should be conducted preceding conversation analysis, because it is used as a referential tool for the analysis of conversation (Psathas, 1995).

## 1.2.3.1 Tools Used for Recording

As their data, video or audio recordings of naturally occurring social interactions are the major means of conversation analytical studies. Video and audio recordings authorize permeable input of the social action, added to the easiness in reviewing these recordings repetitiously which augment the researcher's opportunities to inquire the targeted patterns so many times. The video or audio recordings are transcribed using a detailed notation that was primarily developed by Gail Jefferson to include symbols for a wide divergence of vocal and interactional phenomena. The transcription of visual data however is less standardized, except for a widely used notation for *gaze direction* developed by C. Goodwin (1981). Researchers

recurrently return to the original recordings for remembering interactional instances that might have been missing in the transcription.

## 1.2.3.2 Procedures Involved in Transcription

Once analysts repeatedly listened to the tape, emphasizing the phenomena targeted in the study are to be inquired. The analysis of the data proceeds from *case-by-case examination* via allocating the collections of phenomena under investigation towards interpreting the structural features of the phenomena. In this process, a careful examination of *deviant cases* is of substantial contribution.

## 1.2.3.3 Characteristics of Conversation Transcription

Conversation transcription is not simply a piece of writing with words and sentences exchanged by the speakers. However, it includes many other different features as well. Wang (2011) asserted that the following information should be included in a transcript: *Information about the participants, words spoken, sound uttered, inaudible sounds* and *overlapping speech*, besides *instances of stretch, stresses* and *volume*. In CA the transcripts are designed not only to capture *what* was said, but also the *way* in which it is said. Therefore the transcripts provide a detailed version of the complex nature of interaction.

We opted to utilise Jeffersson's system of transcription notation (1984) as it is the most accurate. Gail Jefferson is accredited in the CA community with developing this systematic scheme for encoding transcripts. The technique is connected with the research of Harvey Sacks with whom she worked. (The Symbols System is demonstrated in Appendix –X-).

Nevertheless, applying for the *Jeffersonian Notation for Basic Transcription*Coding/Annotation should not be hasty but rather with considerable caution regarding its limitations, that it cannot afford thorough representations of situated and embodied

conversations as this goal would confront failure. This will be further discussed in chapter 04 whereby limitations about this system are respectively discussed.

## 1.3 Error and Error Analysis

As the current study involves inquiring the spoken error of students, the need for establishing a definition for errors and the procedure of error analysis is fundamental.

#### 1.3.1 The Notion of Error

Linguistics and Language teaching have witnessed a variation of using the concept error; in error analysis, EA, and in research on teaching English as a Second or a foreign Language (TESL/TEFL). It is noteworthy, though, to state that a native or a novice utilization of the word is considerably unalike, in which the identification of it in English Language Teaching, ELT, and EA studies has never adequately represented the divergence of its usage and interpretations when it comes to *error correction* in particular. As such a learners' error might be seemingly easy to define but roughly complex to be identified in terms of linguistic contexts. An accurately simple definition was asserted by James (1998: 63) as being an implication of the learners' unawareness of the target language.

#### 1.3.1.1 What is an Error?

Illustrating the numerous definitions in research would reflect the researchers' approaching an error. Allwright and Bailey (1991:84) suggested that "typical definitions of error include some reference to the production of a linguistic form which deviates from the correct form" labelling an error as the correct version or the native speaker norm. It is, thus, akin to the native speaker's norms to decide upon an utterance acceptability and correctness, in which these norms were identified as the language normal rules that any systematic deviation from them will induce errors (Brumfit, Broughton, Flavell, Hill and Pincas 1980)

George (Cited in Allwright and Bailey 1991: 85) states that the "error is a form unwanted by the teacher". This is utterly questionable on the basis that goofing is inevitable for learning. Allwright and Bailey highlighted the inadequacy of such a definition of error by arguing that almost all classroom discourse transcripts include the teacher's rejection of even correct outputs for they were merely unexpected responses; an example for this can be revealed in learners' use of long utterances alternatively to shorter ones namely classroom discourse errors. The problem of defining error then has been associated with the teacher's refusal to accept variation in the manner in which pupils phrase their answers (Allwright and Bailey, 1991). Furthermore, the advent of the CLT, according to Allwright and Baily (1991), has shifted teachers' attitudes towards what is to be treated as an error and what is not with a large emphasis on content rather than form. This was pedagogically crucial in approaching an error definition.

Such definitions are excluding other variables affecting the teachers' and learners' behaviour in classroom, added the teacher's perspectives which could vary from those of his\her learners. Chaudron (1986) discussed various ways of looking at errors referring to the signals sent out by the teacher to the learner as *corrective reactions*. He defines errors as:

(1) An objective evaluation of linguistic or content errors according to linguistic norms or evident misconstrual of fact, and (2) any additional linguistic or other behaviour that the teachers reacted to negatively or with an indication that improvement of the response was expected. (P: 67)

In the present study, Chaudron's view of error will be adopted as it covers both form and content. Subsequently, either errors deviated from the linguistic rules or appointed as inappropriate by the teacher and/or the students are being investigated.

#### 1.3.1.2 Error Vs Mistake

The distinction between an *error* and a *mistake* was made clear by Corder (1981) who characterised *mistakes* in spontaneous speech or writing as being induced by slips of the tongue, or lapses in memory, arising from physical states and psychological conditions which have little to do with language competence but rather more to do with performance.

Utilizing Chomsky's idea (1965) about *grammaticality* as an aspect of language *competence* whereas *acceptability* as a language *performance* indicator, Corder (1967:166-167) associated the unlikeness of *competence/performance* with distinguishing the concepts of *error and mistake* whereby *errors* are production signals of inadequate linguistic competence while *mistakes* are performance- induced flaws, such as memory lapses and slips of the tongue.

James (1998:76-83) suggested another categorization regarding the learner's perception and readiness to self correct the deviant output. He divides deviances into *mistakes*, *errors* and slips. The latter are quickly detected by the learner and can be self-repaired without others' assistance, whilst a mistake's self repair would be akin to others pointing it out and an error is the deviant form/content which needs others' guidance to adjust it and/or identify its location or nature. An error therefore cannot be self repaired unless s/he is authorized sufficient corrective feedback.

In practice, it is often not possible to observe the dissimilarities between errors and mistakes (Corder 1967:167). Bearing in mind, also, that the focus of the current research is on students' and teachers' repair behaviour to any anomalous output, it is not of primary importance to highlight a rigid distinction between errors and mistakes. The notion of error, therefore, will be considered as an umbrella term incorporating the concept mistake particularly for error treatment purposes.

## 1.3.1.3 Errors in English Language Teaching (ELT) and Learning

In ELT, the term *error* refers to the pedagogical implications of the notion in the teaching/learning context. In the early 70's, research into *error* (e.g. by Corder 1967, Selinker 1972, Nemser 1971, Richards 1973, Dulay and Burt 1974) has asserted that learners' errors are accurate evidence of their proficiency level and transition along the inter-language continuum.

On the other hand, the impact of spoken failures on learning has been widely discussed. Unlike behaviourists who regarded them as anomalous instances to be eradicated via mechanistic methods, IL proponents attributed substantial value to goofing as an *aid for learning* and a confirmation of autonomous processing of the language. Corder (1981: 10) explained their contribution as follows:

A. The inevitability of errors is exhibited in the learner's self testing of her/his hypotheses about the language which identifies what is acceptable and what is not for her/him.

B. They are efficient informative tools for the learners' current level which guides the teacher towards better analysis of what remains to be enhanced.

C. They provide researcher with data about the learning and acquisition processes and the strategies utilized to accomplish them by the leaner.

## 1.3.2 Types of Errors in Spoken Language

Errors may be categorised along a number of dimensions on the Linguistic and the gravity levels (Lee, 1990)

#### 1.3.2.1 Errors on the Linguistic Level

We can induce four major categories of '*errors*' for classroom error correction regarding the linguistic norms, those are:

## A- Grammatical (morpho-syntactic) errors

Grammar lapses are influential in accomplishing accurate speech. Critically challenging for an EFL teacher thus is the treatment of inaccurate output which is delivered immediately. At the global level, Burt and Kiparsky (1972) stated that morpho-syntactic errors can affect the overall intelligibility and communication. At the sentence level, however, the immediate correction of local errors is inappropriate.

#### **B- Discourse errors**

Hendrickson (1981) argues that the question of *when* to correct spoken discourse should be considered with caution as the timing of treatment has a direct impact on the learners' self-confidence, especially when associated with peculiar corrective techniques. This will be further discussed in Chapter 02 when demonstrating the Handrickson's views about *when should errors be corrected.* 

As for discourse rules, nevertheless, some researchers into communicative strategies (Faerch and Kaspar 1983) suggested the feasibility of error occurrence when attempting to communicate which can be interpreted under the *performance* or *discourse rules*. Errors generated from an effort to convey meaning mirror the learner's insufficient linguistic knowledge (Hymes 1972) which sometimes cause other instances of erroneous Grammar. Some strategies may induce reformulation of the whole conversation, those of which include: Opening and closing moves during conversation, topic changes, besides devices for taking the floor, Paraphrasing, coining new words and Code-switching.

## **C- Phonologically-induced errors**

As the term suggests, phonologically-induced errors relate to pronunciation and/or intonation failures. It is worth noting that correcting advanced or older students' phonological errors may negatively inhibit self esteem and confidence. Achieving a native-like pronunciation is of a great hardship whereby teachers need to contextualize their correction to students' flawed pronunciation to avoid fossilization in this zone of learning taking into account that a serious error may generate communicative cut-offs.

#### **C-** Lexical errors

Like morpho-syntactic errors, lexical errors are errors which receive more corrective feedback (Lee, 1990) due to the easiness in appointing the error to be repaired in order to accomplish specific meaning. It would not be accurate to conflate '*lexis*' and '*semantics*' because in practical error treatment most meaning choices do involve lexis. Subsequently, lexical errors can easily arise in combination with other error categories.

## 1.3.2.2 Error on the Gravity Level

Error gravity implies the seriousness to which an error calls for repair and attention with regard to who and when to correct it.

Van Meyer and Lorenz (1984) asserted that deciding upon the error gravity is relative to the participants' age and academic discipline. Therefore, we should identify the criteria to which an error is to be considered as serious enough.

#### **A- Intelligibility Troubles**

According to Burt and Kiparsky (1972) categorization of *local* and *global* errors, the latter is rather serious in accomplishing comprehension while the local ones are constituted mainly from Syntactic mismanagement. Some syntactic and lexical errors, though, can generate unintelligible speech which pushed Hicks (1983) to suggest an expansion to the analysis level

where global and local errors are investigated within the sentence only towards *coherence* and *cohesion* levels. This will be taken in consideration in our study in which intelligibility troubles will be explored within the cohesive quality of specific messages.

Therefore, the notion of *message received* is the decisive criterion to identify an *intelligibility breakdown* including any probable anomalous Grammar, Pronunciation or lexis, as such being accustomed to interaction with a certain group of people make it nearly seldom that any of these would impose incomprehensibility because the listeners have prior knowledge of possible errors. This is remarkably evident in classroom, whereby students get used to each others' errors which would be confirmed in the analytical part of this study.

## **B-** Errors which Stigmatize or Irritate

Error has also been linked to *irritability*. Ludwig 1982 defines it as "the result of the form of the message intruding upon the interlocutor's perception of the communication" (p: 275). Other studies (Santos, 1984, Vann et al. 1984) argued that a judgmental criterion of irritability on hearing errors may be assumed to be subjective on the part of individuals, which is not firm evidence that it would be the same response of all interlocutors.

Richards 1973 and Corder 1975 called for prioritizing correction of error type. Ludwig (1982) on the other hand arranged the correction feasibility on a continuum from an "unconcerned, undistracted awareness of a communicative error to conscious preoccupation with form".

#### **C- Common Errors**

This error category is enrooted in learners' hypotheses about the language in which the *mother tongue* besides the *language complexity* have an influence on these hypotheses. As such, they are usually being less corrected in classroom (Holley and King 1971, Olsson 1972) but rather with specifying this treatment along with learners' individual needs with a general explanation of the linguistic rules akin to the *common error* committed. It is significant,

though, to assert that *self repair* can be spotted very seldom in this zone on the basis that learners' knowledge about the rule itself is deviant which may bring into light the *interference of more proficient peers*. The passive/active voice and Preposition errors appear to be fairly common as examples of this type.

#### **D- High Frequency Errors**

High frequency errors should attain more awareness of treatment (Dresdner, 1973; Bhatia, 1974; Allwright, 1975) 'High frequency' here implies the reoccurrence of a specific error type.

These errors are called *tokens* in which earlier error analysis yielded the type/token distinction (e.g. Duskova 1969, Dulay and Burt 1974); Analysts argued that high frequency errors can have a sufficient gravity to be corrected, while others associate this gravity with the error nature and its localization in the learner's inter-language advancement rather than its frequency. It is therefore critical to shed an extensive correction of tokens rather than types.

In error assessment and correction, the impact of a repeated error on a learner's performance is processed via counting the overall average of this repetition. For most purposes, it seems rather appropriate to count error types but not error tokens unless specific errors reappear with a frequency that affects the interlocutors' hearing.

It is significant at this stage to decide upon error types to be investigated in the current study. 04 types are to be inquired; 03 based on the linguistic level namely *Grammar*, *Phonology- induced and Lexical errors* as they are form errors, besides 01 linked to errors' gravity which is *Intelligibility breakdowns* as they are valuable signals of *content* correctness.

#### 1.3.3 Causes and Sources of Oral Errors

According to the relevant literature, by looking at the kinds of errors that EFL learners make, we have evidence for many factors created mainly by the Inter-language phase.

## 1.3.3.1 Inter-Language Theory and Interpretations of Learners' Errors

According to Nemser (cited in Ellis 1985:46), Inter-language (IL) theory sometimes referred to errors as "approximative systems" or "transitional competence/idiosyncratic dialects" (Corder, 1975). Error Analysis (EA) provided a new insight into learners' errors by postulating that other factors can induce errors than L1 merely. For the learner, errors are to be utilised as a creative construction that enables her/him to self-test his hypotheses about the language. Inter-language then is defined by Ellis (1985) as "the structured system which the learner constructs at any given stage in his/her development". According to him the term refers to a set of decoding techniques the learner employs as a built-in syllabus" of the interlanguage continuum.

Nemser (cited in Ellis 1985: 47) identifies the following assumptions underlying IL:

A. At any given time the IL parallel system is dissimilar to both L1 and L2.

B. This system constitutes of a divergence of processes.

C. In any given contact situation, these processes may coexist.

According to IL theorists, very few L2/Fl speakers reach the end of the IL continuum because of fossilisation. This occurs when learners "do not make use of feedback and as a result do not alter their output. They then get stuck with a fixed system of linguistic forms that do not match the TL model" (Allwright and Bailey 1991:93). Vigil and Oller (cited in Allwright and Bailey 1991) argued that Corrective feedback afforded may induce fossilization when incorrect forms are given to the student.

#### 1.3.3.2 Other Sources

Selinker (cited in Ellis 1985:48) identifies five processes that operate in IL including both inter and intra-language sources, these are:

#### A. Transfer of Rules

Errors generated from transfer of rules from the L1 to the L2 or the foreign language, whereby learning the target form is prevented by the interference of the mother tongue rules. Transfer errors are *inter-lingual* since they come from the interaction between the first and second or foreign language.

# **B.** Overgeneralization

This category is an intra-language source. Learners intermittently attempt to utilize a linguistic rule in a newly-confronted situation where the two may not appropriately coincide either due to her/his unawareness of the rule abnormalities or because a new rule has to take place. In either case, *the learner's primary error is due to misestimating correctness from over-generalizing the rule.* In this case, unlike interlanguage errors, the learner is utilizing her/his knowledge about the target language itself but not the L1.

- **C. Transfer of Training:** When a rule is afforded to the learner's system via instruction.
- **D. Strategies of L2/ FL Learning**: How the learner approaches her/his learning with specific strategies may result errors. Developmental errors are associated with this strategy.
- **E. Strategies of L2/FL Communication:** This however is complementary to the learners' communicative strategies. Intelligibility errors are repetitiously linked to these strategies.

## F. Redundancy Reduction

This is a tendency by EFL learners to exclude many items which are redundant to conveying the intended meaning. We may meet utterances such as: *No understand*, *is man*, etc. It is rather a simplified code of communication or reduced language systems used by foreign language learners especially in earlier stages of the learning process.( ibid)

Psychologically plausible about learning a foreign language is that the three above processes: *transfer of rules, redundancy reduction* and *overgeneralization* coexist in the learners' interlanguage system (Littlewood, 1984:30). Though, fossilizations' inhibition would feasibly never end even at later stages of FL learning (Obvious examples are the pronunciation errors which form part of the '*foreign accent*'). Another perception though, vibrant and equally logical, is that fossilization occurs when a learner unconsciously realizes that the error does not impede her/his communicative abilities.

## 1.3.4 Error Analysis and its Significance in EFL Teaching

As analysising the students' errors in an authentic context is the focal of the current study, identifications of the major aspects of it is crucial.

## **1.3.4.1 Theoretical Background**

The beginnings of *Error Analysis* EA were demonstrated as *Contrastive Analysis*. In the 1950s, The American linguist Robert Lado started a new era of systematic analysis of errors towards theorization namely *Contrastive Analysis* which claimed that the interference of the L1 in L2 system is to be the primary source of errors. He therefore suggested a scientific, structural comparison of the two languages beneficial to estimating error patterns. In accordance with behaviourism and structuralism views about language learning as a formation of habits, an error may serve as a negative stimulus to "*bad habits*" which should not be allowed to occur. They subsequently advocated more emphasis on mechanical pattern drills and attempted to correct any errors or mistakes generated.

## 1.3.4.2 Definition and Procedure

Afterwards, Error analysis (EA) spread in the 60's and 70's of the previous century. It was also the era when communicative language teaching CLT was being established. EA is a type

of linguistic analysis whose major focal is learners' errors. The concept was first related to Corder (1967) as the father of this field who contributed with an utterly unalike view of errors than before; according to him errors were regarded as *flaws* that should be eradicated in spite of their significance as *indispensable devices* of learning. He suggested five stages of EA (Saville-Troike, 2006):

- a- Collecting the sample of learners' language in which data is collected over a period of time and compared.
- b- Identification of errors into mistakes only or genuine errors resulted from inadequate linguistic knowledge. An example of this occurs when a learner knows the difference between a man and a woman but he refers to the latter using the pronoun *he*.
- c- Description and classification of errors: It is critical to identify the nature of the error; language level (structural- phonology, etc...), general linguistic (passive sentences, etc...) or specific linguistic elements (nouns, articles, etc...)
- d- Explanation of errors: This includes speculating the causes behind the errors.
- Interlingual (between two languages): the error could be an interference from the first language to the second language
- Intralingual (within the language): the error could be developmental which is generated by a gap in the linguistic knowledge of the rule.
- e- Evaluation of errors: How serious are the errors? Does it cause unintelligibility?

  Brown as well (1980:160) defined EA as "the process to observe, analyze, and classify the deviations of the rules of the second languages and then to reveal the systems operated by

learner".

Corder further explained the significance of learners' errors in three different ways (1987):

The first to the teacher in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed, and consequently what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly (and in a sense this is their most important aspect) they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. (167)

Researchers therefore began to suggest that learners' errors are insightful signals of their progress as well as their needs along the inter-language continuum (Ringbom, 1987:69). Simply, "it is the examination of those errors committed by students in both the spoken and written medium" (Shahada, 1996: 1). This has reinforced EA as a decisive procedure to highlight learners' errors and, hence, to enable teachers to provide the appropriate Corrective Feedback CF. Tarone (1983) asserts that "The analyses of errors are undoubtedly valuable teaching tools, and the teacher should handle them cautiously and with the awareness that all have their faults".

#### **Conclusion**

Classroom is an exclusively interesting place to explore learning a foreign language whereby interaction is the centripetal of divergent phenomena to be inquired; one of these is the students' spoken errors. As previously discussed in this chapter, researchers or educators cannot deny the consequential contribution of spoken errors as prominent phenomena in EFL learning; the occurrence of errors in classroom conversation is acceptable from the perspective of inter-language development (Corder, 1976). Accordingly, and via analysing the learners' errors, the teachers would earn a deeper understanding of this occurrence and attempt to appoint specific strategies for a corrective feedback with regard to authorizing

sufficient opportunities for self-repair as a thorough requirement to enhance autonomous learning. These two latter phenomena are to be dealt with in the forthcoming chapters.

# **CHAPTER TWO**

# **Repair Work and Error Correction**

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# Chapter Two

# Repair Work and Error Correction

#### Introduction

The chapter being accomplished constitutes of reporting earlier research about *repair work* and *error correction* in classroom. In the first chapter, the relevance of errors in constructing valuable comprehension of learners' progress along the inter-language continuum was emphasised. It is by firm evidence, thus, that students' spoken failures should receive treatment either via self monitored repair or others' assistance. After defining repair work in the first section, this chapter provides the theoretical background of the research questions based on the original questions of Handrikson (1978), whereas, the two last sections identified all aspects of *self-repair* and *corrective feedback* as the two axes of the study. Therefore, the desirable goals behind this chapter are to provide feasible background interpretations for findings in the forthcoming chapters, wherein inquiring self—repair and corrective feedback extents and strategies can respectively contribute in answering the research questions. CF techniques illustrated in this chapter, however, are a mere demonstration of early attempts to label corrective strategies afforded by the teacher, while those referred to in the present analysis are derived from Lyster's and Ranta's taxonomy (1997) which will be broadly discussed in chapter 03.

# 2.1 Repair Work in Classroom: Key Words and Dimensions

Spoken errors require a treatment which enhances the student's engagement in future self-repair.

# 2.1.1 Repair or Correction?

It is highly critical at this point to make a distinction between *repair* and *correction* to be utilized later in decoding the corrective behaviour of both the teachers and their students during data analysis. In previous work of our own, the two concepts were differentiated in accordance with the perception of Shegloff, Jefersson and Sacks (1977): "It is common to use the terms repair and correction interchangeably, yet they are separate concepts" (in Aouiche, 2011:28). Jefferson and his co-researchers emphasized the *correctibility* factor to discriminate between *repair* as a whole process of treating the trouble source and *correction* as a solo move of appropriating an error. As such, correction is contained by repair work itself which is "A sequential phenomenon involving repair segments in the course of ongoing talk-segments which have an organization of their own, including, initiation and outcome" (Shegloff et.al., 1977: 365). Therefore, repair can target any interactional piece regardless the correctness of its items while correction is a mean to appropriate the non-target forms or items as a remedy.

This distinction is adopted in the current research whereby the concept repair work, instead of error correction, is utilised to introduce any process of appropriating speech: Some failures, clearly in the data to be analised do not involve correction of non-target items only but rather repairing lexical and communicative breakdowns. As such, repair instead of correction is adopted to characterize error treatment.

#### 2.1.2 Repair Organization

Repair organization is the third level in CA besides turn-taking and organization. Sorjonen (1997:111-12) confirms the viatalness of utilizing this level of analysis to attain an in-depth understanding of repair strategies in conversation where participants constantly attempt to reach intelligible speech. As repair work is a process with which a speaker(s) end it up with solving the trouble source, it has a beginning and an end so that the repair organization is limited by the end of this work.

Tainio (2007) asserts that every turn in conversation interprets the previous turn and allows context for the next one. In classrooms, however, these turns are constitutional in accordance with specific objectives of the lesson or the whole academic year. Tainio pointed out that the repair consists of the *initiation*\_by the teacher or a student and is followed by a *repair*. The three- turns sequence is organized in the following way: The first turn is an initiation from either the teacher or the student her/himself, the second is a response or a repairable move from the side of the trouble source maker, and the third is either a teacher's *Evaluation* (E) or a *Feedback* (F) whereby the teacher authorizes correction if the student failed to deliver the target form. Repair thus is subject to self or others' management. Tainio has drawn earlier attention (2004:48-9) to the divergence in the third turn form, in which the nature of the task as a group work or an interactional conversation has a decisive impact together with cultural and personality dissimilarities. Macbeth (2004:716-21) further affirms that delaying the third turn is an indication of a possibly incorrect repair in the second turn, this can be considered as contributing as an immediate verbal feedback is

# 2.1.3 Frameworks of Repair Work

Some scholars suggested specific frameworks of repair detected during conversation either inside or outside classroom sittings.

# 2.1.3.1 Framework of Repair According to Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977)

Schegloff and his co-workers introduced patterns of repair work during normal conversation between native speakers NS and/or native and Non-native speakers NNS which they called an "organization of repair" (1977:1).

2.1.3.1.1 Self-Repair Vs Other-Repair

Identifying who corrects is of a great value in the utility of repair. Shegloff et al.

(1977:362) argued that self repairing the trouble source within the same turn containing the

error is more beneficial than others' interference.

Furthermore, repair work, according to Jefferson and his co-workers, is constituted of

initiation and outcome/completion whereby indicating that a trouble source has emerged and

attempting to solve it is reflected in the first while providing repair comes in the latter.

They asserted a series of repair sequences contained in most of repair processes inquired

in casual conversation. These are:

Self-repair can emerge from other-initiation

Other- repair may emerge from self-initiation

Other-repair may emerge from other-initiation

Failure of repair work may be generated by a self-initiation

Failure of repair work may be resulted from other-initiation

It is evident that others' initiation is to be allocated with the turn following the trouble

source turn. Furthermore, there is an intermittent tendency that an error occurrence may call

for multiple- others' initiation. These have thoroughly been the cases in EFL classroom

settings whereby the student's error receives repair initiations from other interlocutors in the

very next turn; see examples below:

Example 01: Illustrates other's initiation by one interlocutor/ the teacher in this case

Student: To find better condition [Grammatical error]

*Teacher: To find....?* [Initiation]

Student: To find (.)

47

= to find better conditions [self repair]

Example 02: Illustrates multiple others' initiation

Student: The people of Ain- Saleh, they (2 sec)

Teacher: Protested? Multiple
Peer: rebel? Others' Initiation

Student: they rebel yes [Self Repair]

(The Examples are from personal data in the current Study)

Techniques utilized to initiate a repair work by another participant have been labelled by Schegloff et.al. (1977) as follows:

- A- Questions for clarification like Huh? What?: While this was spotted in normal conversations, we can confirm that this techniques is the same as *clarification* requests in Lyster and Ranta taxonomy of CF(1997) in teacher-learner interactions which will be largely discussed in chapter 03.
- B- WH Questions: Asking the trouble source maker to elicit correctness. This might be alike to *elicitation with questioning* in Lyster and Ranta classification.
- C- Partial repeat of the trouble source+ a Question word: This also can be seen in classroom when the teacher affords an elicitation technique initiating a repair work.
- D- "You mean"+ possible comprehension/ correction of the troubled utterance: Wile this was evident in casual conversations, *recast* in classrooms is the most conceivably alike strategy.

#### 2.1.3.1.2 Outcome and Failure

In their study about casual conversations, Schegloff et al. (1977:376) concluded that self-initiation is preferable to others' initiation. It was further evident that nearly all self-initiated repairs are usually self-completed successfully. Some repair works though, or their

completion in particular, have the potential to fail. Since repair completion is not invariably done by the initiator her/himself, factors creating failure are complex. The entirely certain fact however is that repair failure might be a result of a self-initiation or others' initiation in accordance with strategies utilized to complete or even initiate.

An example of repair failure in classroom is illustrated in the following example:

Example 03: Repair Failure/ Inappropriate Outcome

Student: She is finished her homework. [Grammatical Error/ The use of "To be"]

*Teacher: She what?* [Partial repeat + what]

Student: Her homework, finished [Repair Failure] (From Personal Data)

In spite of the cluing provided by others' initiation (The teacher), the student could not accomplish appropriate outcome regardless the processing of a repair work.

#### 2.1.3.1.3 Placements of Initiations or Repair Trajectories

Self- or other-initiations have a variation of *placements* or *repair trajectories* according to which turn is the trouble source turn (Schegloff et.al. 1977:365-6). Self-initiated repairs have three main types of placements:

- A- They can occur in *the transition space*, right after the trouble source turn and before another participant interferes.
- B- An initiation placement can also be in *the same turn* where the trouble source occurred whereby the speaker realizes her/his error and attempts to correct it.
- C- Schegloff (1997) added *the third turn repair*. This indicates a delayed self initiation where the listener shows interest but not recognition of the error by only nodding the head or quasi-lexical items (Humm, emm), the speaker( The error maker) here is allowed further opportunity to add or adjust her/his speech. In Schegloff's words:

Some participant produces an utterance in a turn which will turn out to be a trouble source turn . This turn is followed by a contribution from another participant which neither claims nor embodies 'trouble' with what preceded. (P.32)

D- The fourth trajectory of repair initiation is divided into varieties: a) Others' initiation in the subsequent turn to the trouble source turn which can include a completion as well. B) Others' initiation in the second turn, while the third turn contains a self completion of repair work. Sorjonen (1997) reported that strategies of self completion depend greatly on the placement of self or others' initiation in repair.

# 2.1.3.2 Hall's Framework of Repair (2007)

Joan Kelly Hall (2007) classifies the trajectories of repair initiations as the table 2.1 shows:

TURN	CONTENT	PARTICIPANT
Single Turn	Trouble Source+ Initiation+ Completion	Self
Single Turn/ Turn Transition	Trouble Source Initiation+ Completion	Self
First Turn Next Turn Third Turn	Trouble Source  ( )  Initiation+ Completion	Self Other Self
First Turn Next Turn	Trouble Source Initiation+ Correction	Self Other
First Turn Next Turn Third Turn	Trouble Source Initiation Completion	Self Other Self

Table 2.1: The Trajectories of Repair Initiations based on J.K. Hall Framework (2007)

This table illustrates the different turn constructions in repair sequences on the left side. In the middle is the content of the turn(s) mentioned on the left. On the right is the person who speaks the turn. Mind that turns between each thick lines are to be accounted as one repair work (RW).

Hall (2007) identifies four repair types with which we will utilize to classify data in the current research [See Chapter 04]. In her framework, Hall suggests that repair works

constitute mainly of *initiations* and *completions*; repair types thus are labelled in accordance with the initiator and the one who completes in a sequential forma enabling any researcher to deploy in CA. These types were discussed in details in earlier work of our own on self repair in EFL classroom at the University of Mentouri, Constantine (See Aouiche, 2011):

- **A- Self- Initiated Self- Repair SISR:** Tracing back to Jefferson et al framework (1977), this type occurs when the speaker in whose turn the trouble occurred initiates repair then completes it. This repair can occur in the same turn, in the transition place which is right after the trouble source turn before the second turn or then in the third turn.
- **B- Self-Initiated Other-Repair SIOR:** Where the speaker who made the error initiates the repair but the repair completion is done by another interlocutor
- **C- Other- Initiation Self-Repair OISR:** where another participant initiates repair work and the speaker self-repairs in the third turn.
- **D- Other-Initiation Other-Repair OIOR:** Where the process of repair, both initiation and completion, is entirely handled by another participant in interaction. This type, unlike the three previous types, is considered to be a negative response in learning within classroom settings in which no willingness or self repair is revealed.

### 2.2 The Handrikson's Questions about Error Correction

After almost 40 years, research in the domain of error correction is still paralleled with the Handrikson's frame (1978) about solving speech breakdowns:

- 1- Should learners' errors be corrected?
- 2- Who should do the correcting?
- *3- When should learners be corrected?*
- *4- Which error types should be corrected?*
- 5- How should errors be corrected? (CF types)

The answers to these questions were seemingly easy to be afforded, but the complexity of classroom settings and the divergence of factors influencing teachers' choices (The choice of when, what and how to correct, and even whether to interfere or not) have generated further dilemmas in the field.

### 2.2.1 Should Learners' Oral Errors be Corrected?

The answer to this question is related to the literature that will be presented about the effectiveness of CF in stimulating development of L2. It is fundamental yet to endeavour the dilemma in rather specific studies. Depending on which theoretical approach, one can find error correction described on a continuum ranging from ineffective and possibly harmful (e.g., Truscott, 1999) to beneficial (e.g., Russell & Spada, 2006) and possibly even essential for some grammatical structures (White, 1991).

According to Truscott (1999) providing effective correction for a student's errors needs to identify its nature first. However, teachers encounter serious difficulties in applying for CF during communicatively driven classes on the basis of interruption avoidance. This interruption, as asserted by Truscott, is one of the negative impacts resulted from the nature of CF itself which inhibits the flow communication. Furthermore, it can divert the teacher's and the students' attention from the focus of the communicative task; it can also inhibit students' willingness to adequately express their linguistic competence and to self repair.

Nonetheless, other laboratory studies emphasized the inevitability of correcting learner's oral failure. Krashen (1995) stated:"When error correction works, it does so by helping the learner change his or her conscious mental representation of a rule" (p. 117); hence, CF is essential for learning via enabling the trouble source to test his own hypothesis about a language rule. Herron (1981) as well, argued that "It appears that correcting oral errors improves second language learners' proficiency more than if their errors remain

uncorrected" (p. 7). Language learners then need their teachers as more proficient participants; they would subsequently discover the deficiencies in their hypotheses about the TL through *noticing* the mismatches between their troubled utterances and the assisting input yielded by the teacher. (This will be reviewed in section 04: CF effectiveness; Schmidit's Noticing Hypothesis)

It is advisable though that instead of teachers correcting errors, they can implicitly guide the learners by giving the rules or clues about the troubled form and leaving the opportunity for self repair.

#### 2.2.2 Who Should Correct Errors?

Who has the responsibility of correcting errors? It might be "a teacher, but not always: he or she may be a non- teacher, a helpful native speaker, a fellow learner, or even the learner him or herself, in which case we speak of self-correction" (James, 1998, p. 236).

In accordance with literature demonstrated earlier, the preference for self repair or others' repair was addressed with depth by Schegloff et.al. (1977:362). They advocated the *preference for self over others' repair* in case of the occurrence of the error in the speakers' turn affirming that correction either by the trouble source him/herself or other participants is a vital process in conversational interactions in general, and classroom settings as well, and that they are not separate phenomena but rather complementary to each other:

Self-correction and other-correction are not to be treated as independent types of possibilities or events, nor as structurally equivalent, equipotential, or equally valued. Self correction and other-correction are related organizationally, with self-correction preferred to other-correction. (p. 362)

In more pedagogical settings, Hendrickson (1978) believed that the substantial commitment contributed by teachers' CF to assist learners is not always helpful to all English

students; neither is it in all languages or classroom settings. Peer correction and self repair, however, can be frequently beneficial for some students because "such an approach might also improve the students' ability to recognize errors" (Cohen, 1975, p. 419).

It is notable that laboratory- based research has not afforded rigid extents of correction provided by a participant rather than the other. The amounts of self repair or others' repair are akin to so many factors, internal or external: age, self-esteem and confidence levels, the activity nature (Content or form- based instruction), the teacher's and the students' attitudes towards error treatment itself, and other factors.

#### **Peers' Correction**

Peers' correction is another strategy to get a larger corpus of learners involved in repair work. It occurs when one learner corrects another one. Although learners admit a regular disregard and annoyance to their peers' assistance in case of spoken failures, peers' correction is a critical back up from a participant whose proficiency level is approximate, if not the same. Hendrickson (1987) argued that "When they would correct one another's spoken utterances, the students would concentrate on function words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs" (p. 395).

This kind of correction is appreciated for a number of reasons: Its most critical advantage is that both learners are involved in face-to-face interaction; moreover, the teacher attains information about learners' actual proficiency level because correction "comes from a person who is having the same experience, so that correction tends to be at a level that others in the class can understand" (Walz, 1982: 25). A further advantage is generated when learners cooperate in language learning to become less teacher-dependent. Consequentially influential is that peer correction does not make errors a public affair, which preserves the trouble source ego and increases his/her self-confidence.

There is no systematic way to call on learners to correct each others' oral failures. It is common yet that peers tend to inherit their teachers' patterns of CF, and then apply them. Furthermore, the interference of peers represents usually the situation as *there was no correction* which needs the teacher's interference to confirm correction (ibid). Notably important, however, that *unfavourable comparison* between students should be avoided when eliciting the target-like reformulation from the peers. The teacher leads a communicatively teacher-learners interaction where s/he asks both the trouble source and the peers the same question, this shows the situation as there was no error which creates a cooperative atmosphere.

#### 2.2.3 When Should Errors be Corrected?

Having already decided that an error should be the subject of treatment, a teacher is supposed to choose from three possible options when to deal with an erroneous item and these are *immediate*, *delayed* or *postponed correction*. In spite of the fact that all of them have some advantages and disadvantages, the teacher should be aware of the right timing to interfere with a CF regarding the complexity of such a decision since "there appears no general consensus among language methodologists or teachers on when to correct students errors" (Hendrickson, 1978, p. 396).

The consistent question has been always: How many times should the teacher correct and when? Herron (1981) suggests an answer depending on four things

- a- The adequacy of information about the error.
- b- The importance of correction.
- c- The ease of correction.
- d- The characteristics of the student.

He explains that "basic information about the sources of errors is important" (p. 11). Teachers need to know what was said or done and by whom; to expose what was meant by

the error and perhaps what the native language equivalent is in order to choose the appropriate error treatment.

With a different category of learners, Herron and other researchers conducted two studies on learners with disabilities and the revealed the significance of authorizing immediate correction for students' spoken errors. They asserted that performance feedback should be immediately given to students because it is more effective than delayed feedback (Barbetta, Heron, & Heward, 1993; Barbetta, Heward, Bradley, & Miller, 1994). Therefore, Corrective feedback following a student's error indicates that the teacher is monitoring students' understanding during instruction and is responsive to their failures.

Support for the prior laboratory findings comes from Laurice et.al (2015), who confirmed that students are less likely to practice making errors if performance feedback is given immediately.

Nevertheless, Dabbaghi (2006) investigated the effects of immediate and delayed error correction on students' oral production, specifically their pronunciation. Dabbaghi selected 70 learners for his study randomly and divided them into two groups, the immediate correction group and the delayed correction group. The treatment was done during some sessions and after that a posttest was used. Students' discussions were recorded and then transcribed. Dabbaghi subsequently concluded that if teachers are to select one of the two options, i.e. immediate or delayed corrective feedback, it would be preferable to decide upon the latter.

#### 2.2.4 Which Errors Should Be Corrected?

It is a critical decision when it comes to appointing an error for treatment because not every error needs to be repaired in classroom; as such teachers should be *selective* when applying for a correction of one error type over another since over correction threatens students' self confidence. A supportive environment for the trouble source, and all learners in

general should be maintained. Hendrickson (1978) states that: "foreign language educators generally agree that tolerating some oral and written errors helps learners communicate more confidently in a foreign language" (p. 390).

According to Hendrickson (1978) the incomprehensibility of *fossilized errors* makes them as a priority of CF due to their unacceptability as regard to the native speakers' judgment. Such errors can occur in grammatical, phonological, and lexical forms which may become, by continual repetition, a part of the learner's inter-language system *if not corrected*. Another type of speech breakdowns is considered to be a priority of treatment is *high frequency errors*. Not merely Hendrickson believes in the vitalness of handling this type of errors but Krashen (1995) as well: According to him, errors appearing repetitiously are amongst the prime concerns of treatment, he adds that breakdowns holding *communicative* and *irritability* troubles call for an identical attention. High frequency errors need to be corrected since correction over minor errors may annoy the learner and waste class time.

Intelligibility failures, however, ought to receive the highest amounts of perseverance. Hendrickson (1978) asserts in agreement with this: "An increasing number of foreign language educators suggest that errors that impede the intelligibility of a message should receive top priority for correction" (p. 390).

Committing consistent Grammar or phonologically-induced errors can be part of this type because it can withhold the message received by other interlocutors. Accordingly, appropriate corrective treatment is crucial in such cases, as by implicit suggestion from the listener. In some activities, such correction may still not require teacher intervention, as it may be forthcoming from other students. In addition to that, *communicative breakdowns*, *or global errors*, deserve correction more than non communicative errors or local errors. *Global errors* inhibit comprehensibility like wrong order, inadequate lexical knowledge, misuse of

prepositions, and wrong connectors. Such errors have stigmatizing and *irritating effects* which would impair communication and, therefore, impose a need for CF.

Adopting another standard of categorizing errors, Cohen (1975) states that: "The importance that a teacher attributes to an error may depend on the objectives of a particular lesson" (p. 415). This means that if the error has a relationship with the pedagogical objectives it needs to be clarified and corrected. The nature of the lesson defines the need for correction: If the teacher is addressing a form-based instruction, inaccurate utterances are to be handled then; whilst content-based instruction shifts the teacher's attention towards intelligibility breakdowns.

For learners, there is no rigid selection adopted when attempting to self repair oral failures. However, students pay more attention to the lexical mistakes rather than grammatical ones. It is crucial at this phase to assert the difficulty in addressing a specific function of an error during CF, especially when regarding lexical choices as causes of unintelligibility. Under such circumstances, even if a teacher was aware of all the parameters of an error, it would often be difficult or unhelpful to explain all the complexities of a student's error.

#### 2.2.5 How should Errors be Corrected?

Good oral error feedback strategies can boost student motivation, advance language learning, and increase students' perception of instructional effectiveness, but the oral error feedback literature offers a confusing picture of what is an appropriate corrective feedback.

As such presenting how teachers should offer CF to their students' oral breakdowns is to be dealt with in details in the following chapter.

#### 2.3 Self- Repair in Classroom

In classroom settings, repair work is not of much unlikeness from that of normal conversation. The focus is on self repair as a vital interest to enhance learners' oral

proficiency and language competence. Students are gauged to be capable of self monitoring their speech breakdowns, and that was fairly evident is some research (eg: Cho& Larck, 2010; Gattegno, 1976; Holey&King, 1971; Krashen&Pon, 1975; Makinen, 2008; Robbins, 1977; White, 1977).

# 2.3.1 What is Self -Repair

Since the problematic talk namely the *trouble source* can be defined as an utterance or a part of an utterance that is perceived as problematic by at least one of the interlocutors. The speaker, thus, may revise her/his speech as to adjust what has been corresponded contrary to what s/he wanted to convey (Faerch and Kasper, 1982:79).

Van Hest (1996) asserts that learners frequently pause to check and self monitor their speech in order to communicate specific messages via self- repair. He explains "If the speakers' monitoring device meets with a troublesome item, speakers can decide to correct this item on their own initiative, without intervention from their interlocutors" (in Ballasoorya, 20016:1), and by this he meant self-initiated self-completed repairs.

From a psycholinguistic perspective, a self-initiated self-completed repair is generated "when the speaker detects that the output has been erroneous or inappropriate, halts the speech flow, and finally executes a correction" (Kormos, 1999).

Self-repair has been extensively under inquiry for the two or three last decades. Levelt (1983, 1989) proposed *covert* and *overt* repairs as a classification:

- **A- Covert repairs:** (C-repairs) occur when the student detects her/his error and makes a cut-off before it is fully produced (i.e. pre-articulatorily). As such, it can be roughly impossible to identify the learner's intention for repair work because it is inner-processed.
- **B- Overt repairs:** are made after a part or whole production of the troublesome item. As

a result, overt repairs can possibly be identified and classified.

Kasper (1985) investigated repair patterns followed by learners in EFL classes, distinguishing two kinds of language learning activities where repair attitudes are unalike: language-centred and content-centred. Van Hest (1996) furthermore suggested two types of self-repair based on its content: Appropriateness repair, error repair, and different repair. He categorized others' repair as well into covert repair and mingled repair. Findings in his study exposed an inclination to process appropriateness repairs with 39.7%, followed by error repairs (22.4%) and different repairs (10.1%). Kormos (1999, 2000a, 2000b) on the other hand, based his categorization to self-repair patterns in FL on Levelt's (1983) and Brédart's (1991) works in L1: Different information repair, appropriateness repair, error repair which are akin to the content of repair work, and *rephrasing repair* relating to the process mechanism. Rieger (2003a) draws attention to the substantial contribution of *repetition* as a strategy in English-German bilinguals using self-repair, confirming that SR strategies are largely complementary to the structures of the foreign language being studied. Furthermore, Yang (2002) argued that learners with a lower proficiency level tend to commit more SR than those having higher proficiency, regarding that the first category emphasize error and different repairs while the second shows privilege to appropriateness repairs. In the same Chinese context and relying on the College Learners' Spoken English Corpus (COLSEC), Chen and Pu (2007) conducted a diagnosis of repair patterns of non-English majors' oral production in a standardized test called the Spoken English Test of the College English Test (CET-SET). They came upon a respectively elevated proficiency level of the subjects in accordance with their SF extents. Self repair was classified into four types: same information repair, different information repair, appropriateness repair, and error repair. Same information repairs were spotted with 60.4%, followed by error repairs (18.9%), different information repairs (11.4%), and appropriateness repairs (9.2%).

# 2.3.2 Self -Repair Techniques

Learners have variant techniques to adjust their spoken breakdowns. These techniques are to be considered in accordance to their place in the turn.

#### 2.3.2.1 The Placement of Self-Initiations

Since the foundational work of Schegloff et al. (1977) on repair strategies, there has been a growing body of conversation analytic work on repair practices in classroom talk as well as in mundane conversation. The focus was on the strategies and allocation of self-initiations in repair work. Self-initiated repairs can have their initiations placed in three major positions:

- A- Within the same turn where the trouble source has occurred.
- B- Within a transitional space between the troubled turn and the second turn
- C- Within the third turn whereby the speaker initiates her/his repair after the second turn.

### 2.3.2.2 Initiation Techniques in Self-Initiated Other-Repair S.I.O.R

A variation of research has dealt with techniques of self-initiation since Shegloff et.al (1977) in NNS conversations, but our focal in the current study is to illustrate learners' techniques with which we will employ in the data analysis. Adult language learners employ 07 types of repair strategies; five of those are mainly derived from Schegloff et.al. classification itself; these are: *unspecified, interrogatives, partial*) *repeat, partial repeat plus question word,* and *understanding*. Students' initiating techniques however were suggested by Egbert (1998) who added *requests for repetition*, whilst Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2003) have asserted another labelled as *request for definition, translation, or explanation*; Both techniques are often utilized in rather communicative failures.

### **A-** Request for Repetition Example

This strategy was not detected in NS initiations of repair works, but it is fairly alike to **unspecified** type of others' initiation. The example bellow illustrates the case:

Example 04:

1. I: Was hat Ihnen dieses Semester im Deutschkurs

2. ni:cht gefallen

(What did you no:t like this semester in your German course).

3. (1.5)

*4. □S17: No:ch einmal?* 

(O:nce more?)

5. I: Mhm tch! Was hat Ihnen dieses Semester

Uh huh tz!

What did you not like this semester

6. im Deutschkurs ni:cht gefallen.

(in your German course)

Student 17, as labelled above, initiated the repair for a comprehensibility breakdown via

asking the other interlocutor to repeat which obliged the latter to repeat the whole question.

**B-** Request for Definition Example

Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2003) analyzed the data in an applied linguistics seminar for

advanced German learners. They accordingly categorized seven types of repair initiation in

which they added one more from Egbert (1998)'s typology which was request for definition,

translation, or explanation. It was notable that the teacher's strategies are different from those

employed by her/his students while initiating with regard to teaching and learning

perceptions. Students show a preference for more specific repair initiation techniques when

interacting with the teacher. Students rely on this type "to avoid committing face-threatening

acts that would seem inappropriate to their role in the classroom as learners" (p. 387).

Example 05:

TR: f-fatima hat banken (.) gesagt

F- Fatima said (.) banks

☐S7: I DON'T UNDERSTAND WHAT gegen

obj-

WHAT WE'RE TALK- gegenstand

object

TR: gegenstand ist ein objekit

'Gegernstand' is an object (p. 386)

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Here student S7 initiates repair to the word which she needs translation. The teacher (TR) then provides the definition of the word in a subsequent turn.

### 2.3.2.3 Techniques of Self -Initiated Self-Repair (S.I.S.R)

One of focal objectives of the current research is to reveal SR extents and strategies employed by students to construct the whole repair work namely earlier as "Self-Initiated Self-Repair" S.I.S.R. Our inquiry to these strategies cannot be dislocated away from Schegloff et.al (1977) detailed conversational analysis of repair work though it was about the occurrence of this phenomenon in normal settings. Self initiations within the same turn containing the non-target like item "use a variety of non-lexical speech perturbations, eg. Cut-offs, sound stretches, 'uh's etc, to signal the possibility of repair-initiation immediately following the trouble source"

It is critical to draw attention that the concepts established by Schegloff et.al. (1977) in dealing with SR strategies will be utilised in the current study regardless their focus on natural conversation settings which called for some personal amendments in conceptualization (This will be illustrated in Chapter 04).

### 2.3.2.3.1 Non-Lexical Fillers

According to Schegloff et al. (1977), self-initiated self-repair are introduced by non-lexical initiators followed by the repairing item (p. 376). These non-lexical initiators include *cut-offs*, *lengthening of sounds*, *and quasi-lexical fillers such as uh and um* beneficial to accomplishing SR. Language users expose firm attitude to attain time via these quasi-lexical initiators beside repetition (Repetition is to be dealt with as the forthcoming strategy)

It is evident that S.I.S.R occurs when the participant committing the spoken error decides to self monitor the whole repairable process altogether whereby s/he shows awareness of the trouble source, cuts off her/his speech, then inserts the correct target-like form or substitute

the troubled item. Therefore, repairs in this case are exclusively marked by *interruption*, editing expressions (er, em) and backtracking.

Berg (1986: 212) further asserts that errors are usually self detected during the production of the troubled item itself, as such the communicative flow is self interrupted as well.

Research on the repair of second language learners (e.g., Kranke & Christison, 1983; Schegloff, 2000) revealed significant preference for self-initiated repair considering the attachment between its extents and each student's proficiency level (cf. Krahnke and Christison, 1983). Krahnke and Christison also noted that "... language learners have demonstrated ability to utilize non-language-specific techniques of interaction maintenance which also facilitate their comprehension, and, we can assume, their acquisition of the new language" (p. 234).

This type is proved to be widely observed in natural conversations out of the classroom, whereas findings in classroom settings report fairly low to average use of it with regard to students' proficiency level.

# **2.3.2.3.2** Repetition

Repetition is a common initiating strategy whose utility in classroom conversation could have robust impact on the communication success. Hoekje (1984, 10) confirms: It is the "most effective strategies for promoting comprehension that a speaker can use"

Arab and German learners of EFL, according to empirical research, are respectively famous for their repetitious attendance to *Repetition* when self repairing their speech. (e.g. Rababah, 2001; Rababah and Bulut, 2007; and Rieger, 2003). In their investigations of communication strategies used by Arab EFL learners in English and Arabic (Rababah, 2001), and communication strategies of learners of Arabic as a second language (Rababah and Bulut, 2007), the researchers observed a wide range of *repetition* patterns in students speech (Either Natives or non-native speakers). The most plausible reason lies in what we prefer to call in

this study the *time-bonus:* The extra time provided by either repeating part/all the troubled utterance or non-lexical initiators discussed earlier with which the learner withholds her/his repair till recalling the appropriate correction.

Rieger (2003, p. 47) states that repetition, which is a type of self-repair is a conventional strategy amongst learners, whereby they perform the whole repair work within the same turn containing both the repairable and repairing items. English–German bilinguals, as well, resort to *repetitions* as self-repair strategies. This was however detected to be distinguished regarding the language spoken. She also states that "Repetitions - which are also called recycling - consist of the consecutive usage of the same quasi-lexical or lexical item or items" (p. 51). The most common error types handled with an initiating repetition were pronoun-verb combinations, personal pronouns, prepositions in English than in German, demonstrative pronouns in German than in English. She related these differences to the unlikeness in both languages structures which affect the repairing techniques.

# 2.3.3 The Effectiveness of Self Repair in EFL Learning

Self repair is highly decisive in enhancing the learners' own testing of his/her hypotheses about the language since they are aware of their own errors. According to James (1998):"self-correction is an intriguing phenomenon in that for some inexplicable reason we seem to be more capable of spotting other people's errors than our own, as anyone who has done some proofreading will testify" (p. 236).

Research that investigated NS/NNS and NNS/NNS negotiated interaction has confirmed the importance of self-initiated, self-completed repair over other-initiated, other-completed repair (Kasper 1985, Shehadeh 1991). Subsequently, research in second or a foreign language (L2/ FL) acquisition considers SR as an automatic process of self monitoring speech; it has been linked to a number of aspects of language learning, including *proficiency level, progress* 

*in language acquisition*, and *monitoring focus and ability* (Fincher 2006; Kormos 1999a; Lennon 1994; O'Connor 1988; Smith 2008; van Hest 1996).

The focus on this automaticity in SF went further with arguing that S.I.S.R functions beyond the scope of error correction and resolving unintelligibility; Learners become more aware and willing to take control over their learning,, adhere to social expectations, and enhance their own conceptualization of the target language by 'talking through' their troubles (Buckwalter 2001; Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain 2003; Rylander 2004). Therefore, the interjections that speakers make while talking show that self-monitoring is underway, and are usually for the purposes of making meaning clearer.

Shehadeh (1991) found that self-initiated clarification attempts occurred in significantly greater proportions than other-initiated clarification requests (70% Vs versus 30%). Instances of self-initiated comprehensible output as well scored valuable amounts of those done by others (73% Vs 27%).

It is, however, far from confirming that the extents of SR signal firm proficiency and acquisition on the basis of two reasons; one of which is that monitoring learning does not imply acquisition all the time, besides the fact that a divergence of variables both inside and outside the language classroom have impact on self-repair behaviour (Kormos 1999a; Smith 2008). These variables may be concerned with the task demands and situational constraints, besides the individuality of preferences as a triggering factor added to past experience and perceptions of the target language (Fincher 2006; Kormos 1999b; Seliger 1980). In light of the various functions that self-repair appears to perform in language learning,

Ultimately, Self-Repair can be regarded as a global goal of language learning, since in the long run learners would earn the sufficient awareness to deliver a S.I.S (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). It is rather problematic however to accomplish this goal: If learners can identify their

own non-target like items and self repair them, we might wonder why they made the error in the first place. *Most approaches to self-repair, therefore, do not leave learners totally to their own devices, but require teachers to yield assistance which constitutes mainly of detecting and pointing out the errors, while leaving the actual completion to the learner (Makino, 1993).* This will be largely demonstrated in the next chapter.

#### 2.4 Teachers' Corrective Feedback: Definitions and Effectiveness

It has been asserted that the teacher's correction is the most frequent technique in actual use (Catheart and Oslen, 1976; Fanselow, 1977; Lucas, 1978). The teacher is the most proficient participant in classroom interaction whether s/he is a native or a non-native speaker of English for he is able to put things simply so that the learner draws more attention to his/her flawed speech.

In this section, literature about the teacher's correction according to early studies is introduced. Profound details, though, are to be dealt with in chapter 03 whereby the emphasis will be on studies in the field starting from Ranta and Lyster (1997) to be used as a reference in later phase of data analysis.

# 2.4.1 History of the Concept

The willingness of a foreign language learner to self repair his spoken errors is repetitiously akin to the teacher's interference. This is labelled as *repair* by discourse analysts (e.g., Kasper, 1985) *negative evidence* by linguists (e.g., White, 1989), as *negative feedback* by psychologists (e.g., Annett, 1969), as *focus-on-form* in the 1990's *classroom second language acquisition (SLA)* (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1991), and as *corrective feedback* by second language teachers (e.g., Fanselow, 1977). As the present research reflects interests in the pedagogical dimensions of this phenomenon, the concept corrective feedback (CF) will be utilized to characterize teachers' corrective behaviour towards students' oral failures.

Drawing a great deal of attention in foreign language teaching, The concept corrective feedback has passed through a divergence of pre-conceptions from broad to limited; the terms used in the treatment of error are various in the SLA literature. The starting point was the term error treatment which is a very general concept and has been frequently used in earlier studies (e.g. Fanselow 1977). It simply means "any teacher behaviour following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error" (Chaudron 1988: 150). Another recurrently used concept is error correction. As Chaudron (1977: 31) point out in an earlier study, a correction can actually have various meanings or phases: Firstly, it can merely be any reaction authorized by the teacher towards a learner's error. Secondly, a successful correction occurs when the teacher elicits the learner's corrected response to his/her own erroneous utterance. Finally, a true correction could be thought of as a change in the learner's interlanguage, i.e. with the teacher's assistance. The trouble source would actually learn the language item under discussion. Error correction is thus by some researchers considered a loaded term because it suggests that the teacher's feedback on learners' errors has the desired intention of changing the learner's inter-language grammar (Long 2007:77). A more neutral term negative evidence (or negative feedback) is frequently adopted in the domain of first language acquisition (L1) and it refers to the information about the ungrammaticality of an utterance (Sheen 2004: 296). It has, however, become to be used often in the field of SLA too, carrying the same meaning.

Corrective feedback is a type of negative evidence generated from classroom interaction and SLA. It refers to "any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (Lightbown and Spada 1999: 171). It is often deployed interchangeably with all of the terms mentioned above. Nevertheless, unlike the concept of error correction, CF meaning does not carry an implication for the actual learning process. Neither does it suggest the teacher's dominance.

Feedback yields negotiation and interaction preserving the learner's response (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 42). Lately, interactional feedback has been used in place of corrective feedback. As mentioned in Lyster and Mori (2006:272), it is the echo of the teachers' ability to allow feedback moves in a way that maintains the communication flow in the classroom. It also entails an observation that not all negative feedback is perceived as corrective by students: It is crucial for the teacher to adopt an aptitude that enhances learners' perseverance about the different types of CF and their necessity in authorizing further opportunities of learning. This is mainly to reject the miscomprehensions brought by the advent of communicative language teaching (CLT) in its earliest studies, which seemed to mar the use of CF in EFL classes; as it is known, in CLT it is rather critical to eliminate correction on learners' linguistic production and put them at ease to be stress-free to communicate using a foreign language. Correction, therefore, seemed to impede learning as well as fluent production via imposing pressure and stress upon learners. Nonetheless, what was noteworthy was that expunging correction was practically impossible; inaccurate utterances characterized learners' speech resulting in unintelligible production. Since then, corrective feedback has gained much power and attention providing teachers with various types and categories, which do not generate pressure on learners if cautiously applied. These types will be dealt with in details in the second section of this chapter.

### 2.4.2 Definition of Corrective Feedback

As the name suggests, and as briefly discussed earlier, *corrective feedback* CF is utilized to provide foreign language learners with information on correctness of their production affording the correct target-like forms. The terms negative feedback, negative evidence and corrective feedback, are usually used interchangeably in SLA literature to refer to any indications of learners' non-target like use of the target language (Gass, 1997 cited in Kim, 2004).

In general, feedback is used to express an opinion or a reaction to another person's performance. The aim behind this reaction is to redirect the performer into more appreciated behaviour (Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000). The feedback used in school is almost approached in identical ways; it is a strategy where the teacher is imparting a judgment about a learner's strategies, skills, or attainment, and giving information about that judgment (Askew, 2000). Furthermore, in educational environments, it could be deployed to praise achievement or to point out an error or a mistake (Marzano, 2003).

One of the earliest definitions is that of Chaudron (1977), who considers CF as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance" (p. 31.Quoted in Mendez and Cruz) confirming its complexity as a multiple-functions phenomenon (Chaudron 1988: 152). More recently, Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) suggested the following definition:

Corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learners' utterances that contain errors. The responses can consist of (a) An indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) meta-linguistic Information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these (p.340).

Furthermore, correction can be seen in three senses. The first one is "informing the learner that there is an error and leaving them to discover it and repair it themselves" (James, 1998: 236). This refers to feedback which learners are given to see whether their utterances are right or wrong. The second one is "providing treatment or information that leads to the revision and correction of the specific instance of error (the error token) without aiming to prevent the same error from recurring later" (James, 1998: 237). In this way, the corrector can give hints and clues, and suggest how and where to correct the mistake. The third one is "providing learners with information that allows them to revise or reject the wrong rule they were operating with when they produced the error token" (p. 237). In this way, learners are given the chance to revise their mental representation of the rule.

Feedback has been defined by Brandet (2008) as information supplied to learners related to some aspects of their performance on a task. This piece of information, he asserts, can be authorized for learners by either the teacher or peers in some cases. Peers correction though is assumed by the trouble source to be more unappreciated and that the torrent of feedback from the teacher and peers makes the learner feel uncomfortable.

Equally important, Ellis (2010) ,whose view is to be further discussed in the forthcoming sections, identified corrective feedback as the process of any responses to the learners' erroneous speech which are mainly *other initiated repairs* consisting of: Either a mere indication of an error occurrence, a direct/Explicit correction of the oral error, or the provision of only a meta-linguistic clue about the error committed, or, finally, proceeding with a combination of two or all of the techniques previously mentioned.

Although all these definitions include the learners' and teacher's participation, and thus, a classroom as the setting where CF takes place, this can also occur in naturalistic settings where native or non-native speakers can provide it. Interestingly, in the foreign language contexts, Sheen (2011) points out that not all CF occurs because of a communication breakdown; teachers can use it to draw the learners' attention to form even when intelligibility takes place. CF thus can carry negotiation of meaning and negotiation of form as well.

# 2.4.3 Positive Vs Negative Evidence

Comparing the relative effects of positive evidence and negative feedback has been prominent in the literature of L2 acquisition. In the current study however, we do not need to illustrate this comparison as to present in details the definition and effects of corrective feedback as an alternative concept to negative evidence.

Mackey (2007) conducted a research synthesis of 75 studies on input and interaction. Results reported 51 of them utilizing negative evidence, whereas merely 04 yielded positive evidence. This research bias is plausibly akin due to the fact that positive evidence is too common a factor to be explored thoroughly.

As regard to Gass (2003): "Positive evidence is the most obviously necessary requirement for learning. One must have exposure to the set of grammatical sentences in order for learning to take place" (p. 226). Descriptive information then, namely positive evidence, is presented about a specific linguistic form or utterance. Such kind of evidence can be authorized without even drawing attention to the exemplars provided. For example, Trahey and White (1993) and Trahey (1996) developed tools including stories, games, and exercises that set students to an extensive exposure to the target forms, as such ,acquisition can be generated due to the attention drawn by repetitious highlighting of the targeted features. (Mangubhai, 2006). Thus, Positive evidence can function thoroughly by itself. Learners can simply provided by listening or reading materials. This, however, does not cancel the role of occasional incidental utilization of some meaning-focused activities that trigger learners' attention towards the target feature. Examples for this can be found in communicatively driven tasks designed to elicit learners' production of a specific target feature (White, 1987).

Negative evidence, on the other hand, consists of information about the incorrectness and inaccuracy of a learner's spoken output. In other words, negative evidence such as explanations, explicit grammar teachings, and error treatment is only used to appropriate a flawed language item (Cook & Newson, 1996; Spada & Lightbown, 2002; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). Researchers emphasize the vitalness of such evidence regarding that positive evidence cannot afford all language features alone, in which error correction, reading the rule-books, comprehending abstract explanations, and so on can allow further benefits for learning. It is roughly impossible to supply positive evidence when the learner initiates a linguistically inappropriate utterance, which certainly requires overt negative feedback.

Noteworthy is Chomsky's (1981) argument that *direct negative evidence* is not fundamental for language acquisition, but *indirect negative evidence* may be relevant.

In the second language acquisition (SLA) literature, the term *negative evidence* is often used interchangeably with the terms *negative feedback* and *corrective feedback* to refer to any teachers' response to the learner's misuse of the language rules (Gass, 1997; Schachter, 1991). Subtle dissimilarities though make them unalike: *Negative evidence* implies the learner's perspective about a language feature; while *negative feedback* and *corrective feedback* imply external information authorized by the feedback provider. Thus, whether corrective feedback and negative feedback can be used as negative evidence depends upon the learner. For the sake of convenience, the term *corrective feedback* is mainly used in this research to characterize the teacher's repairing behaviour.

#### 2.4.4 Didactic Vs Conversational Corrective Feedback

At this point it is worthwhile explaining the distinction between two functions of negotiation in language classrooms: conversational and didactic. The first one involves negotiation of meaning which stands for a process of interaction in case of a communication breakdown in which the speaker and the listener(s) work together to reach a mutual understanding of the message (Pica 1994). The didactic function involves negotiation of form, which is an activity in which the listener understands the message but signals that there is a linguistic problem and encourages the speaker to self-correct (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 42). The first has, thus, more to do with comprehension and keeping up the flow of communication whereas the second involves accuracy and greater attention to the precision of form. In terms of corrective feedback, implicit types of feedback (e.g. recasts, clarification requests) are more likely to be associated with negotiation of meaning, as with negotiation of form the more explicit types of feedback are in use. Negotiation of meaning, however, also

involves other negotiation strategies, not merely corrective feedback (Lyster and Mori 2006:271).

Seedhouse (2004:164-8), in another research, categorized the teacher's strategies to initiate or complete a repair into *prosodic*, *non-verbal* or *verbal* ways.

# 2.4.5 Corrective Feedback Techniques Before Lyster's and Ranta's Study (1997)

It has been asserted that the teacher, either a native or a non-native, corrects more frequently in actual use as s/he is the most proficient participant in classroom conversation (Catheart and Oslen, 1976; Fanselow, 1977; Lucas, 1978).

Assuming that the teacher does not ignore errors, s/he has a series of choices to go for (Allwright, 1975, 46):

- 1. To treat them immediately or to delay their treatment;
- 2. To correct the error maker directly or to transfer the treatment to another individual, subgroup, or the whole class;
- 3. If the treatment is transferred to others, whether to return to the original error maker to see if he is now aware of his error and how to correct it;
- 4. Whether the teacher or another learner provide the correct treatment;
- 5. Whether to test for the efficacy of the treatment.

These were almost the first indicators that providing CF is a complex process. Laboratory research continued to impose more questions rather than firm answers providing some kind of a consensus about CF types as illustrated in Walz (1982) who discussed some other researchers' views besides his own. Walz demonstrated *Explicit Correction* as a vital technique despite its inhibiting nature as a provision of ready-made forms merely; he argued: "The teacher should return to the student who made the error, ask for repletion or

reformulation, and look for a glimmer of understanding" (P: 25). He further types discussed previously by other scholars were pointed to as *OLD* "Own System Distortion" by Burt and Kiparsky (1972) in which the mother tongue is utilised to authorize translation and correction. Discrimination Exercises on the other hand allow a contrastive analysis between the ill-formed utterances and their alternative corrections which was advised to be continuously attended by teachers (Fanslow, 1977. in Walz, 1982). Paraphrasing was also repetitiously discussed by researchers like Hnzeli (1975), Joiner (1975) and Lantolf (1977).

Walz (1982) affirmed that utilizing these techniques should be selective based on other factors; those of which are the learner's sensitivity towards correction, the pace and the level of the lesson besides its goals

# 2.4.6 Corrective Feedback Effectiveness: Theoretical Perspectives

While corrective feedback (CF) is of no significance in 1<sup>st</sup> language acquisition, it is debatable to consider it critical in stimulating learning, or even acquisition, of a second language especially in classroom contexts. The correction of learner's oral errors in classroom has always been the main concern of many researchers and educators.

This section includes a presentation of some L2 theories, each of which is going to be used as a theoretical rationale for the current pedagogical research and a mean of interpretation of its findings. Authorizing a review of literature about these theories allows us to select aspects related to our study.

# 2.4.6.1 Krashen's Input Hypothesis

Undoubtedly critical is the contribution of input provided by the teacher or other participants in the acquisition of L2; in accordance with this, Krashen (1980) emphasized the role of *comprehensible input* in the advancement of the learning process. This input though should be one step ahead from the actual level of the learner's grammatical knowledge in the

form of (i+1), in which (i) is the instant linguistic competence the learner owes; whilst (i+1) represents the one step ahead of knowledge generated from input (Krashen, 1985).

Krashen proposed three major resources to the learner's linguistic knowledge: One of which is to be his/her own map about the world and the previously acquired linguistic competence namely *the extra-linguistic information*. The second and the third resources are complementary to interaction; either in cases of communicative breakdowns or even when there is no trouble.

Since Krashen believes that acquisition is unconsciously processed, error correction of especially inaccurate output is not essential to improve 2<sup>nd</sup> language performance. Sufficient Grammar, Krashen asserts, is automatically learned if being adequately exposed to input during communicative activities that are in favour of meaning over form. Learning however, according to Krashen, is a conscious process that calls for error treatment but does not lead to fluent performance all the time.

Schwartz (1993) and Truscott (1996) supported Krashen's theoretical perspective; as such they confirmed that *positive evidence* or adequate input is the only trigger for L2 acquisition, whilst *negative evidence* or *corrective feedback* might well cause the learner's confusion and over-use of specific forms. On the same side of the continuum of error correction effectiveness, Lightbown and Spada (1993) emphasized on the negative effects CF can have on the learner's motivation; teachers then are advised to administer comprehensible input instead of negative evidence.

Critics, on the other hand, were denying the reliability of Krashen's *monitor model* due to poor empirical affirmation (Mitchel &Miles, 2004). It was also claimed by White (1987) that mere comprehensible input could not result in *rule instruction* needed for some non-target like syntactic structures. Moreover, Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki (1994) argued that

comprehension generated from negotiation of meaning does not always lead to acquisition, in which the learner may not recall the input received earlier.

### 2.4.6.2 Long's Interaction Hypothesis

Based on Krashen's perspective, Long constructed his interaction hypothesis (1996, 2007): He argued that comprehensible input prompts acquisition when utilized in solving negotiation troubles via conversational adjustments. It is not satisfactory though, unless supported by some types of negative evidence. In further research, Long identified the strategies which yield solutions for communicative breakdowns namely: Repetitions, confirmations checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests or recasts. Long further argued that *interactional feedback* can have consequential contribution in language development in the view of the fact that interaction involves a number of components including negotiation, recasts, and feedback; this feedback allows three benefits (Long, 2007):

- a- It raises learners' awareness of errors in their speech during meaning-based interaction.
- b- It assists them in detecting the mismatches between their inter-language (IL) and the target language (TL).
- c- It motivates them to hypothesize the correct forms and test those hypotheses, then to modify their IL.

In accordance of this, Long demonstrated that conversational adjustments are rather authorized by tasks involving a two-way exchange of information(teacher-student) than by those involving a one-way exchange of information (teacher-centered). Finally, For CF to be effective Long (2007) claimed that focus on form and meaning should be provided simultaneously in a classroom context.

Long's interactional approach was supported by theoretical and empirical support. On the theoretical ground, Carroll (2001), approved on Long's updated version of the Interaction

Hypothesis, affirming that negotiation- generated feedback may facilitate L2 development as this is in line with the notion of 'failure-driven' learning. On the empirical evidence, Mackey (1999), in her investigation of question formation drew attention to the vital role of interaction in prompting L2 development.

Sheen (2006) described Long's view of the role of negative feedback as *somewhat narrow* (p.13). Sheen regarded Long's view that effective CF is resulted from equal attendance to meaning and form as problematic for it is barely **unclear** whether the feedback is a result of communication breakdown, or it is teacher's choice. She further asserted that teachers frequently apply for CF rather than allowing conversational feedback.

It is noteworthy at this point to mention that the instructional materials developed in this research implement Long's claim that effective CF is to be delivered during communicative tasks (Oral Expression courses in this study) which elicits negotiation of meaning.

# 2.4.6.3 Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis

In his own experience, Schmidt (as an American learner of Portuguese in Brazil) came upon the fact that *instruction*, *interaction*, *and correction* affected his learning of Portuguese and that the target features in the input that he had consciously attended to during the interaction with native speakers were roughly acquired all the time.

Accordingly, to transform input into intake, Schmidit and Frota (1986) asserted that learners should consciously *notice the gap* between their non-target forms resulted from the inter-language phase and the correct forms of the TL during *interactional feedback*. Noticing these gaps between what to hear and see and what to produce can have a consequential inevitability in the learner's L2 development (Shmidit, 1990, 1995).

The relative association between noticing and L2 development during interactional feedback was further probed by SLA researchers. The data in Mackey (2006) associated

noticing the target linguistic forms of L2 to the provision of interactional feedback and negotiation; as such learners receiving feedback on their oral breakdowns reported higher extents of noticing than those left without interference. Nonetheless, firm evidence for learning to be generated from noting was absent: Some learners reported noticing but did not develop, and a few learners in the control group developed but did not report noticing the target items. Schmidt's (1995) was aware of this unclear point in the relationship between noticing and learning, claiming that some forms may not be noticed until learners are well prepared, and that noticing the input is akin to many factors: instruction, frequency, perceptual salience, skill level, task demands and comparison.

Schmidit's hypothesis received theoretical approval from Gass (1988) who confirmed that noticing is the first stage of learning followed by Batstone (1994) who described it as the "gateway to subsequent learning" (p. 100). The contribution of noticing in learning was regarded to be vital by Lynch (2001) and VanPatten's (2007) as well; the latter addressed the influential role of devoting attention to certain L2 forms in order to process the input.

The most accurate criticism of Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis came from Truscott (1998) who concluded that "the foundations of the hypothesis in cognitive psychology are weak and is not based on any rational theory of languages" (p. 104); specifying what learners should notice is not an easy matter for Truscott who argued that noticing is necessary for metalinguistic knowledge but not language competence. Truscott finally advised to enhance our understanding of noticing in SLA via further pursuit of research and exact testing.

#### The Relevance of Schmidit's Noticing Hypothesis to the Present Study

The central claim of the Noticing Hypothesis as CF may elicit learning of the TL by drawing the learners' awareness to notice the gaps between their IL forms and the TL forms was utilized in designing means of the current research: We probed students' responses

towards the presence of CF implying their degrees of noticing this feedback; various researchers have considered learners' responses that incorporate CF as evidence of noticing the feedback (e.g., Chaudron, 1977; Lyster, 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey et al., 2000; Sheen, 2004, 2006). We further explored extents of uptake during the classroom observation relying on the empirical proof that uptake entails learners' noticing of the function of the authorizes CF (Lyster & Mori, 2006) and that "a reformulated utterance from the learner gives some reason to believe that the mismatch between learner utterance and target utterance has been noticed" (Lightbown, 1998, p. 193).

# 2.4.6.4 Swain's Output Hypothesis

Swain (1958, 1995, 2000, and 2005) suggested that pushing learners to practice and test their IL hypotheses, notice the mismatches between these hypotheses and the TL features and therefore produce a tested output is crucial in the L2 development. She argued that this pushing transforms the learner's semantic processing into an actual syntactic utilization of the language; as such CF, especially clarification request, is of significant attribution in prompting output.

## **2.4.6.5 Priming**

Priming is thought to be one strategy/mechanism of language learning, and reviewing its principles is being presented only for purposes of findings' interpretation of the current study.

McDonough and Trofimovish (2009) asserted that priming characterizes learners' recognition or production of a target feature based on earlier exposure to semantic or syntactic similar forms namely *primes*. Syntactic priming, therefore, is the "speaker's tendency to produce a previously heard or produced structure across subsequent utterances" (McDonough and Mackey, 2006, p.711). When syntactic priming occurs, McDonough further argued, the learner possesses the choice between the available correct structure and the non-

target like form, and he is likely to decide upon the more advanced one, which may allow L2 acquisition by means of impact of processing one item on operationalizing another.

Empirical research revealed the substantial contribution of syntactic priming (or learners' response to CF) in learning a second language (L2); and some interaction studies have detected the English learners' tendency to repeat lexical items previously administered by another interlocutor during syntactic priming activities (McDonough and Mackey 2006). Nevertheless, a limitation on the role of priming was stated by Kim and McDonough (2008), in that the knowledge gained may not be generalisable to other lexical items all the time.

#### **Conclusion**

The decisive contribution of repair work of spoken errors has been the focal of this chapter. The conversational theory (Schegloff, 1977) and Hall's perception (2007) about repair work emphasise the significance of thorough *self-repair* as a norm of successful error treatment. Nevertheless, *corrective feedback* has a weighty impact on the learners' future self repair itself as it affords means of internalisation and active learning. It is unattainable, though, to establish rigid lines and instructions about *who* is likely to control repair work and *what*, *when* and *how* to repair for it depends on the pedagogical settings and the proficiency level of learners.

# **CHAPTER THREE**

# Corrective Feedback in Classroom: Strategies and Attitudes

### Introduction

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# Conclusion

# CHAPTER THREE

# Corrective Feedback in Classroom: Strategies and Attitudes

#### Introduction

Corrective feedback was introduced in a broad sense in the preceding chapter, while literature about the vital underpinnings and strategies to be embedded in the present study is to be offered in the ongoing chapter. The first step, therefore, is to illustrate CF categorization as a basis for the classroom observation analysis in a forthcoming phase; the taxonomy of CF strategies suggested by Lyster and Ranta (1997) is illustrated in the first section, whereas the second shows the progress committed in the field since their substantial addition to the domain of error treatment. The effectiveness of CF types according to researchers is discussed in the third section of the chapter with a respectively brief revelation of both teachers' and learners' attitudes and preferences towards the application of CF in classroom.

#### 3.1 The Taxonomy of Corrective Feedback, Lyster and Ranta (1997)

There are a large number of classroom studies which investigate the relationship between feedback patterns and their contribution to language learning. In a very comprehensive study of CF in Canadian immersion classrooms, Lyster and Ranta (1997) provided SLA research with an accurate distinction between feedback types besides the extents to which each type elicits students' uptake and, therefore, enhances future oral production.

#### 3.1.1 Description of Lyster's and Ranta's Study

The study of Lyster and Ranta (1997) included four French primary immersion classes in Canada where French is the medium of instruction. The 18.3 hours audio taped classes used a communicative language approach. Lyster and Ranta utilized a model developed exclusively to include all error treatment moves during 14 subject-matter lessons and 13 French language

arts lessons. As such results detected the frequency and distribution of six variant feedback types deployed by the four teachers, in addition to the frequency and distribution of different types of learners' uptake following each single feedback type. An intense utilization of recasts by the teachers has characterized the findings (55%) although of the recast ineffectiveness at eliciting student-generated repair (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Four other feedback types namely: Elicitation, meta-linguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition have been identified to stimulate more uptake and student-generated repair (38%), and are thus able to authorize what Lyster and Ranta labeled as negotiation of form. Finally, according to the same study explicit correction was detected with 7% only.

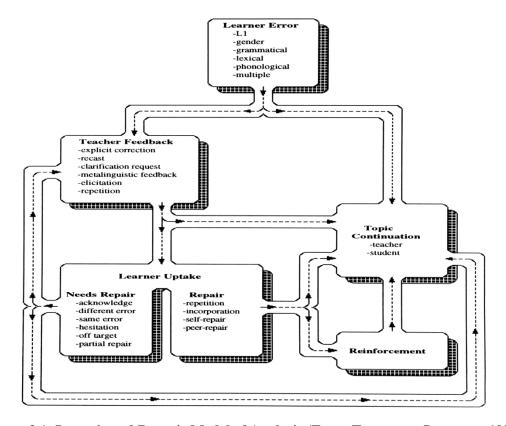


Figure 3.1: Lyster's and Ranta's Model of Analysis (Error Treatment Sequence, 1997)

# 3.1.2 Types of Corrective Feedback: Lyster's and Ranta's Taxonomy (1997)

In their study, Lyster and Ranta classified CF types into six main categories mentioned earlier, which they afterwards assorted into two broad CF categories: *reformulations* and *prompts* (Ranta & Lyster 2007). Reformulations are represented by *recasts* and *explicit* 

correction, on the basis that both types commit a provision of the target reformulation as an alternative to the non-target like utterance. Prompts however, stimulate the learner's self repair through indicating that an error has been produced and should be handled; these are elicitations, meta-linguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetitions.

It is noteworthy to clarify at this point that corrective feedback types have received much attention before Lyster and Ranta (1997), nevertheless as we, in our inquiry, utilized their taxonomy in the classroom observation analysis, the focal of this section will be on it. Further discussion of the different types of corrective feedback will be regarded when introducing their studies in the field after 1997.

# 3.1.2.1 Explicit Correction

In explicit CF, the teacher provides the correct form coupled with a directive, such as "You say..." The only distinguishing factor according to this taxonomy between explicit CF and a recast is the directive. Other studies have demonstrated several subtypes of recasts with further distinguishing factors.

#### **3.1.2.2 Recast**

Before Lyster and Ranta (1997) many researchers dealt with **recast.** Worth acknowledging is what Chaudron (1977) referred to as *repetition with Change* to mean recast, asserting the essentiality of dividing it into further subtypes as regard to the following variant features:

- Emphasis: intonation, without which he considered this technique weak.
- Reduction: modeling the correct form only of the portion that the student said incorrectly.
- Expansion: modeling the correct form with added information (Which may redirect the students' attention towards other functions than correction itself). It is inconspicuous though, considering this description, whether this variant would be noted as *explicit CF* or a combined technique involving *meta-linguistic feedback* as described by Lyster and Ranta.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) defined *recasts* as "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" (p. 46), as such are distinguished from explicit correction in that they lack a directive, but they are very much identical as they supply the correct target form. It has been observed in a variation of studies that lacking a directive can detain the corrective function of recasts, and therefore, could be received by learners as positive evidence rather than negative. This fact was not argued by Lyster and Ranta only but other researchers as well (Chaudron, 1977; Jensen, 2002; Loewen, 2003; Rauber & Gill, 2004; Truscott, 1999; Yamamoto, 2003). This ambiguous nature recast generates will be of further discussion in the next section when we handle the CF types' effectiveness in enhancing students' uptake and adding to the learning process.

Afterwards, Lyster [1998b] recorded the recasts from Lyster and Ranta (1997) in terms of four types:

A/ Isolated declarative recasts: A reformulation of an utterance with falling intonation but without extra meaning

B/ Isolated interrogative recasts: A reformulation of an utterance with raising intonation but without extra meaning

C/ Incorporated declarative recasts: A reformulation of an utterance with falling intonation and additional information.

D/ Incorporative recasts: A reformulation of an utterance with raising information and additional information.

## 3.1.2.3 Repetition

In repetition, the teacher repeats verbatim the student's error with rising intonation at the end as in a question to indicate that there is a problem. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the spoken error (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

## 3.1.2.4 Clarification Request

This is a feedback type that can refer to problems in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or even both. It is the teacher's duty then to ask questions rather than assuming the trouble maker intention. Clarification requests, thus, contain phrases such as "*Pardon me*", "*Sorry?*", "*Can you repeat that?*" and, in French, "*Hein?*" It may also include a repetition of the error as in "*What do you mean by X?*" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

The purpose of a clarification request is *to elicit reformulation or repetition* from the student with respect to the form of his/her non-target output mostly when producing an intelligibility breakdown, and form errors with less extents.

#### 3.1.2.5 Elicitation

In elicitation, the teacher asks questions to draw the correct form from the student without actually demonstrating it. This technique may include simply directing the student to try again in order to prompt him/her to self repair. Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified three ways of eliciting the correct form from the students:

- (a) When teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to *fill in the blank* as it were (e.g., It is a? . . . "). Such *elicit- completion* moves may be preceded by some meta-linguistic comments such as "No, not that. It's a . . . "
  - (b) When the teacher asks an open question such as "What is the (x) form of (y)?"
  - (c) When the teacher requests a reformulation of the ill-formed utterance.

# 3.4.2.6 Meta-linguistic Clues

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), metalinguistic feedback refers to "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student utterance, without explicitly providing the correct answer" (p. 46).

(a) A comment may be as simple as "No": They generally indicate that there is an error somewhere which stimulates the students' attention to check his production.

- (b) Information will point out a helpful grammar point referring to the error nature, such as, "it's past tense", or a word definition in case of lexical failures.
- (c) Questions attempt to elicit the correct form; as in "Is it past tense?"

Meta-linguistic questions are so similar to elicitation that further evidence concerning how they differ (if indeed they do) is warranted.

Table 3.1 summarizes CF types with examples from a personal sample:

CF Types	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE
Explicit	The teacher provides the target form with a	S: I couldn't made the cake.
Correction	Clear indication that the student's utterance	T: No, not made; You couldn't
	was ill formed.	make the cake
		S: Yes, makemake the cake
	The teacher implicitly reformulates the	S: I live there for 10 years.
Recast	student's error in an unobtrusive way.	T: Oh! You lived in France for 10
	, or provides the correction without directly	years!!
	pointing out the non-target form.	S: (No Self Repair)
	The teacher repeats the student's whole or	S: I go for shopping tomorrow.
Repetition	part of the troubled utterance and changes	T: I go tomorrow?
1	intonation to draw the student's attention to	S: I will go
	his/her error.	
	The teacher indicates that the message has	S1:The driving permit( Student
Clarification	not been understood or that the student's	borrowed from French)
Request	utterance included an incorrect output,	T: Sorry?
•	which calls for the students' repetition or a	S2: The driving License.(Peers'
	reformulation. Phrases like "Excuse me?"	Correction)
	and "I can't understand" or "sorry!" are	S1: Yes, the driving license.
	utilized by the teacher.	
	The teacher directly prompts the correct	a/ S: I clean the board?
	form from the student by	T: How do I ask somebody to clean
	a/ Asking questions about the information	the board?
Elicitation	including the error.	S: Can I clean the board, please?
	b/ Pausing to allow the student to complete	b/ S:He is good to listen
	the teacher's utterance.	T: <b>He is a good</b> (No self Repair)
	c/ Asking students indirectly to reformulate	c/S: I wait 5 minutes then I go
	the utterance.	T: Can you say that again?
	TTI . 1 1' 6 1 1 1	S: I will wait 5 minutes
	The teacher applies for clues about the	a/S:I don't think he is reason
	well- formedness of the students' output	T: Do we say he is reason?
Meta-	without authorizing the correct form. They	S: Hehe has a reason
linguistic	can be:	b/S: May be because of hot
Clues	a/ Questions like "Do we say it like that?"	T: I don't think we say hot here!!
	b/ Comments about the ill-formed item. c/ Information related to the formation of	S: No Self repair
	the student's utterance.	c/ S: I can traveled illegally T: <i>Can is a model</i>
	the student's utterance.	S: TravelI can travel.
		S. Travel1 Call travel.

Table 3.1: Corrective Feedback Types: Based on Lyster's and Ranta's Taxonomy (1997)

The multiplicity of prompts as a range of CF types does not make them thoroughly distinguished, but rather alike: They withdraw the explicit correct form and compensate it with clues to elicit learners' willingness of self repair via recalling the stimulated target form from one's linguistic knowledge. Reformulations (Recasts and Explicit correction), however, authorize the correct form either explicitly or implicitly. In terms of linguistic evidence, therefore, explicit correction provides both negative and positive evidence, recasts provide positive evidence and possibly also negative evidence, and prompts provide only negative evidence.

# 3.2 Corrective Feedback since Lyster and Ranta: 20 Years of more Dilemma

As Lyster and Ranta suggested that their research on teachers' feedback and students' uptake did not commit conclusive results, further pursuit of inquiry in distinct settings was believed to be rather informative in the domain of oral error treatment. Such studies could enable practitioners to be more aware of their corrective behaviour which can help in shaping their approaches towards addressing their students' spoken failures.

The majority of studies about CF after Lyster and Ranta (1997) have been inquiring the effectiveness of its different strategies in enhancing learning and the acquisition of the language. Contrasting explicit and implicit CF or Recasts against prompts was the major procedure of an extensive research, which led in most cases to revealing an intense utilization of *recasts* in classroom settings regardless its effectiveness in achieving high degrees of uptake. The discussion of such literature will be further held in details in the next section (Uptake and the effectiveness of corrective feedback: Theoretical and pedagogical perspectives).

#### 3.2.1 Leeman Views about Corrective Feedback

Leeman (2003) describes recasts as complex discourse phenomena that can afford both implicit positive and negative evidence. She further argues that they enhance the salience of

TL forms as a third function. Leeman confirms the efficiency of supplying recast as an adjacency with the student's ill-formed output, which would raise his/her perseverance towards the wrong linguistic feature compared to what recast has provided.

Leeman conducted a study where she aimed at revealing the effects of each component of recast in isolation (i.e., negative evidence, positive evidence, and enhanced salience) on the use of noun-adjective agreement in Spanish, considering that participants were 74 beginninglevel undergraduate students of Spanish whose L1 was English. Participants were divided into four groups provided with these treatments: 1) recasts; 2) negative evidence; 3) enhanced salience of positive evidence; and 4) unenhanced positive evidence (control). The procedure required subjects to utilize noun-adjective agreement in Spanish to fill in the gaps in two different tasks, emphasizing that the first part of each information gap task required the participants to direct the researcher via the intended grammatical forms. The recast group received immediate reformulation of non-target like Spanish forms, which, as Leeman argued, enhanced students' salience of positive evidence. For the mere negative evidence group, she applied for repetition of participants' ungrammatical output as an implicit CF, whilst the enhanced salience of positive evidence group and the control group had no feedback on errors. The researcher in the second part of each information gap task allowed positive evidence (directions about the target forms) for all the groups. Nevertheless, both the enhanced salience of positive evidence and the recasts groups were supplied with extra intonation and stress on the target forms, especially on the adjective endings for the recast group. Afterwards, a pretest, an immediate posttest and a delayed posttest were deployed to measure the extents of learning the target forms. Leeman detected a substantially higher performance of both the enhanced salience of positive evidence group and the recast group in the two posttests, whereas the negative evidence group did not exhibit a satisfactory performance compared to the control group on any of the posttests. Therefore, Leeman speculated that the negative evidence component of recasts is of a poor contribution on learning, while recasts can add a valuable effect through the positive evidence they authorize.

#### 3.2.2 Seedhouse Views about Corrective Feedback

Seedhouse (2004) confirmed that there is no rigid way to organise the repair process in classroom asserting that "no single, monolithic organization of repair in the L2 classroom" (p. 179), which depends, according to him, on whether the pedagogic focus is a form-based or a content-based instruction.

#### 3.2.3 Sheen's Studies about Corrective Feedback Types

Sheen (2004) on the other hand attempted to probe the discrepancies amongst CF types, which he described as definitely non- identical. He explored the frequency and use of Cf in four macro teaching contexts (Canada immersion, Canada English as a second language (ESL), New Zealand ESL and Korea English as a foreign language (EFL)). Findings reported a variation in the distribution of each CF type with accordance with the classroom context (Fluency or accuracy focus) besides the ethnographic setting: Recasts scored different frequency degrees from a context to another, and explicit correction was extensively used in New Zealand but barely yielded in Canadian settings. This descriptive/ cultural inquiry has added valuable standards to classify CF, acknowledging its complexity as an interactional phenomenon.

In another descriptive study, Sheen (2006) suggested a set of features to distinguish recasts. First he discriminated recasts occurring in a single-move and in multiple-moves. Single-move recasts can vary in terms of *mode*, *scope*, *whether they are reduced or not, the number of changes made to the learner's utterances, the type of change and the linguistic focus*. Bellow is an example to illustrate the way these terms are applied:

Cha	nges Change Focus
S: I think she'll travel together her boyfriend after the course.  T: I think she'll travel together with her boyfriend. (Sheen, 2006, p. 372)	One change Addition Addition Grammar

Table 3.2: An Example Description Based on Sheen's Features of Coding Recasts
The source: From Sheen and Ellis, 2011 (Cited in Hinkel, 2011)

#### 3.2.4 Corrective Feedback Pattern According to Ellis

Ellis, as well, established a principle discourse pattern for corrective feedback. According to Ellis(2013), corrective feedback often includes a variation of *moves*; which has to start with a *trigger* provided by other participants than the error maker( The teacher in particular), then, a *corrective move* by the learner which may be the target form, if not, other *triggering moves* are to be produced stimulating correctness in the learner's speech. The optimal move would be *the uptake*; only if the target form has been already taken- As the label suggests- into the learner's linguistic system whereby the learner would not fall in a similar errors again.

Despite these differing viewpoints, there is a general agreement among SLA researchers that:

1/ recasts are the most common form of oral error correction employed by teachers in second and foreign language classrooms.

2/ There is also agreement that recasts are complex discourse structures that can sometimes be difficult for learners to notice. However, Lyster's (1998a, 2004) and Panova and Lyster's (2002) claims that recasts are ambiguous to learners were not supported by research that was conducted in explicit language-focused contexts (Oliver & Mackey, 2003) or in instructional settings other than immersion classrooms (Sheen, 2004). It may be that recasts are ambiguous

only within certain contexts and with certain learners, such as those that are not developmentally ready to acquire the TL form as found by Mackey and Philp (1998).

#### 3.2.5 Focus on Form Instruction (FFI)

This phenomenon is not associated with recent research but originated from the cognitive psychological theory proposed by Schmidit (1990, 1995) which suggested that noticing is necessary for input to become intake (See Chapter Two, Section 04: Corrective Feedback Effectiveness). Focus on form enables learners to take time out from a focus on meaning and notice linguistic items in input, thereby overcoming a potential obstacle of purely meaning-focused lessons in which linguistic forms may go unnoticed (Loewen, 2003).

Focus on form instruction (FFI) was defined by Long and Robinson (1998) as the exceptional shift to dealing with a purely linguistic feature generated from a perceived problem in production during a communicatively driven task. Ellis (2001) categorized focus on form into planned (i.e., the teacher decides in advance what forms should be focused on), and incidental (i.e., the forms are focused on in the process of communication when a breakdown occurs, and then the focus returns to the communicative task). The latter type of Focus on form, as suggested by Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001b), consists of episodes (FFE), each of which implies "the discourse from the point where the attention to linguistic form starts to the point where it ends, due to a change in topic back to message or sometimes another focus on form".

Incidental focus on form episodes are of two kinds; preemptive (PFFEs) and reactive (RFFEs) episodes (Ellis et al. 2001b). According to Ellis et.al.(2001a), preemptive focus on form occurs when teacher or learner initiates attention to form "even though no actual problem in production has arisen". Whilst in reactive focus on form, the teacher perceives the learners' utterance as inaccurate or inappropriate and draws their attention to the erroneous

output through negative feedback. As such reactive focus on form is another labeling of CF or negative evidence in other studies.

#### 3.2.6 The Taxonomy of Sheen and Ellis (2011)

Sheen and Ellis (2011) define corrective feedback as: "Corrective feedback (CF) refers to the feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language (L2)" (p.593)

Drawing on Lyster and Ranta classification of corrective feedback types and the ongoing inquiry on CF since 1997, Sheen and Ellis (2011) asserted a diversity of features concerning the categorization of CF:

1/ They suggested a taxonomy of oral CF strategies (2011:594) similar to that of Lyster and Ranta (1997, 2007), which is based on the distinction between *reformulations* and *prompts* as well as the differentiation between *implicit* and *explicit CF* (see Table 3.3). The seriously under-researched topic of *paralinguistic signals* or body language in teacher's corrective behaviour (Schachter 1981) was regarded in this classification.

The taxonomy distinguishes between *explicit CF* types, or *input providing* as labelled by Sheen and Ellis, these types provide correct forms (i.e. didactic recasts and explicit correction with or without meta-linguistic explanation) and *implicit CF*, or *output prompting*, which withholds correct forms in order to elicit the learner's self repair (i.e. meta-linguistic clues and elicitation).

Sheen and Ellis (2011), along with other views (Ortega 2009: 75), admitted that explicitness is roughly accounted as a stable variable across classroom studies. Learners' *perceptions of salience* and *linguistic marking* can vary not merely in accordance with their age, meta-linguistic knowledge and proficiency level but, also, with contextual variables

namely: the instructional context and its communicative orientation mainly (Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada 2001; Ellis & Sheen 2006; Lyster & Mori 2006; Sato 2011).

2/ Sheen and Ellis also contrasted *conversational* to *didactic recasts*. Recasts can be *conversational and implicit* when they take the form of a confirmation check as a response to a failure to understand the learner's utterance or *didactic and more explicit* when there is a reformulation of the learner's erroneous output regardless the absence of an intelligibility problem (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Sheen, 2006)

Therefore, the assumption amongst researchers, and even educators, is that *recasts are implicit* (Long 1996, 2007; Long & Robinson 1998), nonetheless, other researchers revealed apparent possibilities of *recasts being perfectly explicit* depending on their context and characteristics – such as linguistic targets, length, and number of changes made to the original utterance – (Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada 2001; Sheen 2004, 2006; Ellis & Sheen 2006; Sato 2011). The evidence for this have been acknowledged by some studies (Lochtman 2002; Lyster & Mori 2006), which reported a frequency of students' self repair generated from *recasts* identical to that of *explicit correction* in some foreign language settings, as such they could describe both CF types as alike in terms of explicitness.

3/ Oral CF can involve both *on-line attempts* to raise learners' consciousness that they committed a non-target form. Subsequently, feedback is immediately allowed after an ill-formed utterance is produced. *Off-line attempts* on the other hand are likely to be kept till the communicative event involving the trouble source is accomplished.

	Implicit	Explicit
Input Providing (Reformulations)	Conversational recasts  • a reformulation of a student utterance in an attempt to resolve a communication breakdown  • often take the form of confirmation checks	Didactic recasts  a reformulation of a student utterance in the absence of a communication problem  Explicit correction  a reformulation of a student utterance plus a clear indication of an error  Explicit correction with meta-linguistic explanation  in addition to signalling an error and providing the correct form, there is also a meta-linguistic comment
Output Prompting (Prompts)	Repetition  • a verbatim repetition of a student utterance, often with adjusted intonation to highlight the error Clarification request  • a phrase such as 'Pardon?' and 'I don't understand' following a student utterance to indirectly signal an error	**Meta-linguistic clue  • a brief meta linguistic statement aimed at eliciting a self-correction from the student **Elicitation**  • directly elicits a self-correction from the student, often in the form of a WH-question **Paralinguistic signal**  • an attempt to non-verbally elicit the correct form from the learner

Table 3.3: Corrective Feedback Types; Sheen's & Ellis' Taxonomy (2011)

Figure (3.2) on the other, hand illustrates CF types along a continuum that arrays from implicit to explicit techniques considering the dichotomy of *reformulations* and *prompts*. Prompts categorization along this continuum is akin to what Ellis (2006) and Loewen & Nabei (2007) argued that *clarification requests* and *repetition* hold a higher degree of implicitness than *elicitation* and *meta-linguistic clues*.

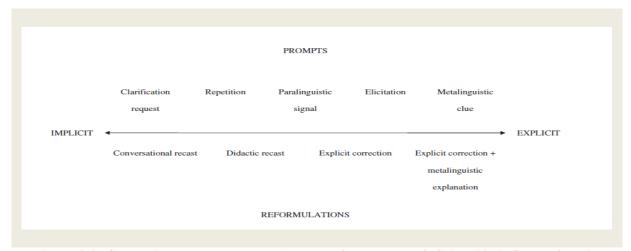


Figure 3.2: Corrective Feedback Types (adapted from Lyster & Saito, 2010; Sheen & Ellis,

## 3.2.7 Body Language Incorporation in Corrective Feedback

Further research has emphasized the role of non-verbal resources in eliciting the learners' awareness about the occurrence of an error in her/his speech and triggering SF. The corrector uses either a facial expression or a body movement to indicate that what the student said is incorrect. A frown, head shaking, or a finger signalling *no* can be observed (Yao, 2000). These strategies can be classified into those which provide some input (correct form is provided) or an output that is generated from prompting the learner.

A critical point that should be raised is the *frequency of CF*. This frequency is associated with an amalgam of factors that are generated from the teachers' and educators' perceptions and attitudes. This will be subsequently discussed in Section III of this chapter when we present teachers' preferences of applying for a specific CF type rather than another.

#### 3.3 Uptake and Corrective Feedback Effectiveness: Pedagogical Perspectives

Uptake was appropriated by Lyster and Ranta (1997) from Austen's speech act theory (1962) to characterize learners' realization that something has happened and needs to be adapted rather than being a discourse move only. While this alone makes it worth noting, it does not necessarily imply effectiveness: The learner's uptake does not constantly afford repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), neither uptake nor repair is necessarily a sign of learning (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Furthermore, the absence of uptake does not necessarily indicate a lack of perseverance (Sheen, 2006).

# 3.3.1 Uptake Definition

In Lyster's and Ranta's (1997) model, uptake in the error-feedback sequence refers to "a student utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (p. 49).

Uptake is withheld in two cases: The first when the teacher supplies a two-in-one discourse move initiating an immediate topic continuation after CF, which discourages the student's uptake and self-repair. The second is resulted when the trouble source him/herself, intentionally or unintentionally, denies any impact of CF on his/her performance, as such s/he applies for a topic-continuation; this might be explained that feedback has went unnoticed or without a verbal acknowledgment.

The presence of uptake, however, results in two possibilities of the student's responses; those of which are either *repair* or *needs-repair categories*; the latter appears when the student responds to the teacher's CF in some way but does not add the correct target form. Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six subcategories as needs-repair: acknowledgment, same error, different error, off-target, hesitation, and partial repair.

In the ongoing research, the concepts repair and needs repair are adapted in a way that fits our perception to the data provided during analysis. Since repair- as labelled by Lyster and Ranta- exhibits a relative success of CF, it is coded during classroom observation as successful uptake. Uptake that needs repair, however, is coded as partial uptake; the term is borrowed from the categorization of Lyster and Ranta itself but, it constitutes of 07 other categories which occurred in the classroom observation. These categories are to be illustrated in the Methodology chapter.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) further asserted that *repair* following an uptake refers to "the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single turn and not to the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation; nor does it refer to self-initiated repair" (p. 49). It can appear as a *self-repair* or a *peer's repair*, and *repetition* or *incorporation of the teacher's feedback*.

Self-repair is generated when the teacher provides a prompting CF rather than reformulations, which encourages the trouble maker to utilize the signals authorized in the feedback. An illustration for this is presented in the following example:

Example 01:

Student: I did not was there.

Teacher: Pardon? Clarification Request]

Student: I was not there. [Uptake/ Self- repair]

(From Personal Data)

Nonetheless, peers' repair, Shown in the example bellow, is provided by a student different from the trouble source.

Example 02:

Students: He has got his permit [Borrowing from French as an L2]

*Teacher: He has got...?* [Elicitation]

Peer: The driver License. [Peer Repair]

Student: Yes, his driver license. [Topic continuation]

It is approved that self and peer repair are authorized by prompting types of corrective feedback such as repetition, clarification requests, meta-linguistic feedback and elicitations. Whereas, repetition and incorporation usually follow recasts, explicit correction or translation, as they contain the target form. The student thus can repeat or incorporate CF in a longer utterance.

#### 3.3.2 The Effectiveness of Corrective Feedback Types in Enhancing Uptake

Various co-relational researches have probed the amounts of impact generated by different CF types on learners' uptake or even repair (e.g., Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006), and between uptake and acquisition (e.g., Loewen, 2005). This field of inquiry has been motivated by Schmidt's (1994) Noticing Hypothesis, Swain's (1995) Output Hypothesis and Long's (1991, 1996) claims of the significance of *focus on form*. As such acquisition is hypothesized to be promoted by corrective feedback in cases of noticing the teacher's input then repairing the non-target output. Furthermore, it opens opportunities on the wide range of new linguistic knowledge). Nonetheless, other researchers claim that the basic linguistic data is not a direct result of corrective feedback, particularly, when classroom interaction is the case (Truskott, 1999). This is rather evident in communicative contexts than form-focused instruction lessons. In this section, we will demonstrate the utility of CF types suggested in Ranta and Lyster study (1997, 2007) with respect to Ellis and Sheen contribution (2011).

#### 3.3.2.1 Prompts Vs Reformulations

It is noteworthy to primarily state that the majority of research done to contrast the effectiveness of prompts against reformulations was conducted to compare recast (As the most widely utilized by teachers) to other prompting types of CF.

Elicitation, requests for clarification and meta-linguistic clueing have been approved by Lyster (1998b) to be beneficial in enhancing learners' repair of grammatical and lexical errors. Sheen (2004), on the other hand, reported that New Zealand ESL and Korea EFL students scored higher degrees of uptake and repair following recasts than Canada Immersion and Canada ESL, Sheen argued that recasts are not of less importance in form-based instruction classes. This concept of the instructional context impact on uptake has been investigated by Lyster and Mori (2006) as well, who introduced the counterbalance hypothesis (It asserts that the degrees of uptake/repair are correlated with the extents of form orientation in the classroom) in two different immersion contexts which are the French immersion in Canada and Japanese immersion in Japan.

Prompts might help in eliciting the target structure more than recasts (e.g., Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ammar, 2008; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Dilans, 2010). Lyster(2004) compared the effectiveness of recasts and prompts via a quasi-experimental study on 148 10–11 years old fifth-grade students, he investigated the effects of four types of *form-focused instruction (FFI)* and corrective feedback- 1) FFI + recasts; 2) FFI + prompts; 3( FFI only; and 4) no feedback on the acquisition of French grammatical gender in immersion classrooms in Quebec, Canada. Pre-tests, immediate post-tests, and delayed post tests were administered

to the experimental group as well as to a comparison group to compare classes on three measures: a cloze test, a composition task and an oral interview. Lyster detected a potency of recasts effectiveness over prompts following a 5-week period of classroom-based instruction. Results showed a significant increase in the ability of students exposed to FFI to assign grammatical gender. Nonetheless, in terms of feedback type, improvement, especially in written production tasks, was observed to be akin to prompting feedback more than recasts. Subsequently, the FFI group with prompts was superior to the control in all measures in both post-tests, whereas the FFI with recasts group outperformed the control group only on the "ambiguity" of recasts and the delayed-post-test oral measures. Lyster suggested that the "ambiguity" of recasts and the hardship in noticing them were a rationale behind these findings; he subsequently concluded that recasts might not be the most effective type of feedback to be utilised in communicatively oriented classrooms in comparison to prompts, in which the latter authorise more self-repair.

Ammar's (2008) observations and explanation were in line with those revealed by Lyster (2004). In another quasi-experimental study Ammar inquired the eco of "recast, prompts and no feedback" on the L2 development of 64 francophone learners' acquisition of English third person possessive determiners. Subjects were involved in communicatively driven tasks in three groups during four- week period. A pre-test-treatment–immediate post-test –delayed post-test design was deployed to measure the extents of effectiveness both recasts and prompts can have on learners' performance. As such, the experiment was divided into two major phases: A three-phase instruction session enduring 45 minutes and 11 communicative activities, each of which lasted 30 to 45 minutes. Subjects were provided with an oral picture-description task and a computerized fill-in-the-blank test before and immediately after the treatment. By the end of the four weeks, the same task was re administered. Analyses of individual participants' oral performance disclosed the vital role of error correction either

recasts or prompts compared to no CF at all. Whilst prompts, asserts Ammar, may have further impact on the L2 morpho-syntactic development especially for students with lower levels of proficiency. Data showed that prompts yielded learners to earn possessive determiner knowledge faster than recasts did.

Lyster and Izquierdo (2009), on the other hand, confirmed a roughly identical efficacy of both recasts and prompting CF on the acquisition of grammatical gender by 25 adult L2 learners of French. The findings reported almost equal improvement in accuracy and reaction-time scores over time regardless of the type of feedback. Consequently, the researchers affirmed the positive contribution afforded by both recasts and prompts.

In a more recent work, Dilans (2010) investigated the effects of oral corrective feedback (CF) in the form of prompts and recasts on second language (L2) vocabulary development regarding the influential impact of the target structure in the success of any CF type. 23 intermediate adult learners of ESL in a community college located in the US Southwest were divided into three groups receiving recasts, prompts and no feedback. Equal benefits were detected from both recasts and prompts but only in short-term, whereas the latter over-scored recasting in long-term vocabulary development. Worth noting however, that merely prompts' group could score an elevated enhancement on all three dimensions of L2 vocabulary. The decisive effect prompts add to error correction is akin to their "(pushed) output-generating orientation", added to their potential to activate learners' ability of inferring to their own linguistic competence.

Emphasizing recasts mainly, researchers have also explored the role of computer-mediated corrective feedback (e.g., Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Sauro, 2009; Smith, 2005). Smith (2005) denied any correlation between the extents of uptake and acquisition of L2 vocabulary items introduced to intermediate-level ESL learners after involving them in computer-mediated

communication based on jigsaw tasks. Loewen and Erlam (2006) confirmed that neither recasts nor metalinguistic treatment added consequentially better benefits to accuracy during group text-chat interaction. Nonetheless, Sauro's (2009) inquiry revealed that although *recasts* and *meta-linguistic prompts* had almost identical gains in terms of learning, they contributed to the enhancement of the subjects' L2 Grammar but short-terms only. Thus, contrasting the conventional face-to-face oral CF and synchronous computer mediated CF has to be further investigated.

### 3.3.2.2 Implicit Vs Explicit Correction

The work done by researchers to compare the effects of implicit correction to those of explicit CF was almost carried out by contrasting recasts to meta-linguistic clueing.

Carroll and Swain (1993) reported adult students' approval on explicit CF regarding their previous preferences. The investigation compared *recasts* with other types of explicit negative feedback (*Explicit CF* and *Meta-linguistic correction*) after errors in dative verbs utilised by 100 adult Spanish speakers learning English as a second language at the low intermediate ESL classes in the Toronto area. The subjects were divided into five groups: (A) received direct meta-linguistic feedback, Group (B) Indirect meta-linguistic correction via asking students whether they were certain of their utterances. Students in group (C) were afforded explicit correction. The (D) group was supplied with recasts, and the last group was allowed no feedback. The experimental sessions consisted of four parts: a feedback session and a guessing session followed by a second feedback and a second guessing session. Findings uncovered a valuable contribution of both explicit and metaliguistic correction in initial sessions. It was significantly affirmed that, on short-term recall, the group receiving direct meta-linguistic cues out- performed all other groups except the one supported with recasts. The most plausible interpretation is adults' repetitious need for explicit explanations. Carroll and Swain (1993) concluded with the decisive role of merging explicit instruction with

explicit meta-linguistic feedback to elicit learners' readiness of appropriate the applicability of language rules along with their specific contexts. This might be evident that there is no significant distinction between *recasts* and *meta-linguistic information* 

Li's (2010) meta-analysis suggested also superiority for the explicit CF over the implicit type of CF but only in short term. Whilst the long term effects of the implicit prompts did not fade or increase.

Contrasting the effects of explicit to implicit CF in L2 acquisition was explored by Loewen and Nabei (2007) as well. The experiment included 66 university Japanese students of English divided into 10 groups to probe the use of English question formation after CF provision: Three groups received *recasts*, two received *clarification requests*, two others received *metalinguistic feedback*, and three received *no feedback*. The two treatment tasks (spot -the-difference and a guess-the-storyline task) lasted only 30 minutes. Three dissimilar tools were utilised to yield the pre-and post-tests: A timed **grammaticality** judgment test, an untimed grammaticality judgment test, and an oral production task. Despite the serious gap between the three feedback groups (Clarification requests, recasts and meta-linguistic feedback) elevated performance and their non-feedback comparison groups, the *no feedback* group interestingly outperformed the others. Loewen and Nabei associated this with the brevity of the treatment (30 minutes) which may have inhibited the ability to elicit the expected difference that should have been spotted .Furthermore, institutional constraints were claimed to withhold the measurement future estimated changes in the subjects' performance.

Furthermore, Sheen (2006) distinguished the effects of *implicit CF* in the form of *recasts* and *explicit CF* in the form of *explicit correction together with meta-linguistic explanation* on adult ESL learners' acquisition of definite and indefinite articles. Whereas the explicit correction resulted in significant gains in learning in both immediate and post-tests, the

implicit did not. Thus, in a classroom context, it would appear that explicit CF is more effective.

#### 3.4 Teachers' Vs Learners' Attitudes towards Corrective Feedback

A few studies have disclosed the distinctness between teachers' and students' attitudes to CF. Schulz's (1996), for example, reported that 90% of learners revealed eagerness to receive CF on their inaccuracy more than what they are actually provided with. Equally important was Ancker's (2000) survey about teachers' and students' perception in 15 countries. Questioning teachers whether all students' errors should be corrected exposed a 25% positive response for teachers and 76% for students, who admitted their desire to benefit from correction in adjusting their oral performance. Teachers' hesitation was claimed to be related to negative effects CF may shed on the learners' confidence and motivation.

A consequential variation of inquiry has pursued "how learners perceive feedback and whether their perceptions affect their subsequent L2 development" (Mackey et al.2000, p.471) which leads us to briefly illustrate research revealing both teachers and students' preferences towards CF types.

#### 4.4.1 Teacher' Attitudes and Preferences

Research has come upon a complexity of CF that resulted in an inconsistent and hesitant attitude towards the way teachers should allow it. Along with this, Long (1977) detected a simultaneous utilization of more than a single type by teachers, and that their feedback moves repetitiously go unnoticed by the students.

Seedhouse (1997), amongst other researchers, disclosed teachers' impulse to deploy *recasts* as an implied supportive CF rather than direct *explicit correction*. The variation of research though has acknowledged the distinguished conventions followed by both teachers and their students on the basis of the context of the course (Van Lier, 1988). Yoshida (2008)

for example attempted to build a perception about the explanation behind this variation in CF preferences. She deployed a *stimulus recall interview to examine teachers' choice of CF and learners' preferences for different CF types*. When and why to provide specific CF types (recasts, elicitation and meta-linguistic feedback) were highlighted. Teachers claimed they tend to administer recasts on the basis of the learners' variant cognitive styles and the time limitations, they stated though that prompts (e.g., elicitation or meta-linguistic clue) are mainly utilised when the learner is likely to self-repair after allowing such CF.

Teachers have always reported that their use of recasts during communicative events is intentional, knowing that recasts generally will not disrupt the flow of communication. In fact, it is this inherent ambiguity that is often credited with their popularity among teachers.

							Pro	portion of C	F types
	Instructional context	Students' age	Number of teachers	Total hours	Total CF moves	CF moves per hour	recasts	prompts	explicit correction
1	High school EFL in China (Yang 2009)	12–13 16–17	3	6	36	6	31%	61%	8%
2	High school French L2 in Quebec (Simard & Jean 2011)	11–16	4	12	73	6	25%	29%	46%
3	High school EFL in Hong Kong (Tsang 2004)	12-17	13	16	174	11	48%	38%	14%
4	English immersion in Korea (Lee 2007)	8–9	2	10	133	13	53%	39%	8%
5	Adult EFL in Korea (Sheen 2004)	29-36	2	12	186	16	83%	6%	11%
6	Adult ESL in New Zealand (Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen 2001, recoded in Sheen 2004)	18–21	2	12	189	16	68%	19%	13%
7	Japanese immersion in USA (Lyster & Mori 2006)	9–10	2	15	259	17	65%	26%	9%
8	English & Spanish immersion in Senegal (Vicente-Rasoamalala 2009)	5–10 13–14	3	70	1186	17	12%	77%	11%
9	High school ESL in Quebec (Simard & Jean 2011)	11–16	4	8	235	28	41%	41%	18%
10	French immersion in Quebec (Lyster & Ranta 1997)	9–10	4	18	686	38	55%	38%	7%
11	German FL in Belgian Dutch-speaking high schools (Lochtman 2002)	15–16	3	10	394	39	30%	56%	14%
12	Adult ESL in Quebec (Panova & Lyster 2002)	17–55	1	10	412	41	77%	21%	2%

Table 3.4: The Sequences of CF during Classroom based Studies (Between 1997-2011)

The Source: Lyster et.al., 2013

#### **Factors Affecting Teachers' Choices' of Feedback**

The multiplicities of factors interfering in the process of selecting a CF type over another makes it hard for teachers to handle the treatment at complete ease. Teacher's conventions of error treatment may depend on *the characteristics of the students*: The first factor is individual differences like "personality type, first language, culture, cognitive style, intelligence aptitude" (Cohen, 1975, p. 416). Then comes the previous historical account of the student as his/her academic record, errors previously observed, and treatment types previously used. Gass (1997) added that, "in looking at feedback and in conversational structures in general, a number of variables will be considered, among them task type, status, ethnicity, proficiency level, gender, and topic knowledge" (p. 114). The third factor is the current psychological state of the student including motivation, anxiety level and fatigue. In Based on these factors, and others, the teacher can decide about when to deliver correction (Immediate or delayed) and who is going to do so (Appointing the trouble source him/herself or another learner, or even interfering to guide the process).

Cohen (1975), on the other hand, believes that the teacher's approach may depend largely on the *nature of the students* (e.g., their reaction to correction), *the teacher's personality* and *cultural background*, and *the nature of the curriculum*. Some teachers may wish to handle correction mostly on an individualized basis, whilst others may wish to concentrate more on total class correction.

#### 4.4.2 Learners' Attitudes and Preferences

Some learners believe the usefulness of corrective feedback to decline as the course continues, which is tantamount to the fact that learners pay attention to each other's linguistic improvement.

Learners frequently appreciate to be corrected. Cathcart and Oslen (1976) confirmed that subjects of their study desired more correction from their teachers. However, they partially went along with Krashen's (1982) suggestion about the negative impact CF can have on learning and its uselessness for acquisition: They confirmed that the provision of CF types previously acknowledged by the subjects of their study to be appreciated have generated unsatisfactory classroom interaction.

Back to Yoshida (2008) inquiry about teachers' and learners' preferences for CF types, most of the subjects she interviewed appointed *output-prompting CF* before *recasts* so that they had the chance to work out on their awareness and correct their errors themselves.

# 3.4.2.1 Learners' Preference for Explicit Corrective Feedback

Issues of CF frequency, when and what errors should be rather corrected have received distinguished learners' preferences (Ellis, 1998). For identical purposes, Sheen (2006) designed a questionnaire, using a Likert scale (1-6) to measure language anxiety, attitudes towards error correction (Positive or negative) and grammatical accuracy. Findings exposed a favourable readiness to benefit from explicit (Especially Meta-linguistic clues) rather than implicit correction (Recasts mainly) in order to earn grammatical accuracy. She confirmed though, that learners' positive attitude towards error treatment cannot be accounted unless they are aware they are being corrected. Amador's (2008) findings were in line with those of Sheen's when a classroom dialogue was utilised to measure the preferences of twenty-three college students of English towards twenty error correction techniques.

#### 3.4.2.2 Learners' Preference for Implicit Corrective Feedback

To probe the association between learners' perceptions about *recast* provided during task-based dyadic interaction man the focus of the feedback, Mackey et al., (2000) collected data from ten learners of English as a second language and seven learners of Italian as a foreign

language during elicited recall protocols with the two groups. Subjects of the study showed serious positive attitudes towards correcting their pronunciation and lexical failures as both aspects are important to maintain intelligibility, in contrast to hesitant approval for morphosyntactic feedback as it is less significant to commit understanding. In accordance with these findings, Mackey et al. concluded that learners' perception about error treatment might well be correlated with the nature and the target of the feedback.

Havranek and Cesnik (2001), on the other hand, aimed at confirming that CF success is complementary to learners' proficiency level, verbal intelligence and attitudes towards correction. As such 207 native German speakers studying EFL were provided with recasts, repetition + recasts, and elicitation; afterwards, effects of each type were measured in a subsequent test. Findings revealed a positive correlation between high degrees of language proficiency besides the eagerness to receive correction and the benefits from CF itself.

Furthermore, the researchers' consistent debate about the efficacy of recasts has shed its shadows on investigating learners' preferences towards this CF type. Whilst Philp's (2003) study on 33 adult ESL students involving in a NS-NNS interaction and afforded recasting on their inaccurate *question forms* reported a weak perception of recast as a correction, if they were noticed at all, a more recent investigation was carried out by Egi (2010) on 24 foreign language learners of Japanese (enrolled in task-based interactions during which they received recasts on their errors, then asked to comment on videos including the correction process) have indicated a positive perception of recasts as a corrective feedback.

#### 3.4.2.3 Learners' Attitude towards Who Corrects

In the current study, we decided upon emphasizing teachers' CF rather than peers' interference in the view of the fact that prior research suggested more positive perception towards teachers' CF, whereas peers' correction can be influenced by their relationships.

Hence, the corrections would be relatively perceived as criticism, which may withhold utilizing the correction by the trouble source producer (Amador, 2008; Morris & Tarrone, 2003).

# 3.4.2.4 Learners' Attitude towards the Tasks in which Corrective Feedback is Embedded

According to many researchers (e.g., Bygate, Skehan, & Swain, 2001; Van den Branden, 2006) negotiation of meaning and attention to form via CF can be stimulated through interactional tasks.

Loewen et.al. (2009) investigated the beliefs of 754 L2 students at an American university regarding the role of grammar instruction and error correction. Discrepancies were detected between the ESL and foreign language learners in the area of attitudes to practice and speaking. Practice or speaking in grammar instruction was not desired by the ESL learners who believed they can develop communicative skills without much grammar instruction, whereas foreign language learners, particularly with the less commonly taught languages, Arabic and Japanese in this experiment, asked for more CF and Grammar instruction: "This difference might be attributable to the fact that these two languages are non-Indo-European languages and are perceived to be more challenging than languages such as German or Spanish" (Loewen et al,2009, p. 102).

#### **Conclusion**

Under the pressure of the learners' preferences and the need for extra feedback, the practical choice for teachers lies in the socio-cultural view to the problem. Teachers should maintain a flexible behaviour towards learners' oral errors whereby they provide feedback respecting the learners' individuality and the error context in order to evoke successful self repair as well as an improved oral production in the future. As highlighted in this chapter, it is

not easy to attain a conclusive evidence of the superiority of one CF type over another when considering the significance of uptake/repair or the type of CF most likely to promote acquisition. One reason is that many other variables surrounding the repair process are to be regarded; individual dissimilarities and contextual factors have a substantial influence on whether, how and when oral CF is effective. Therefore, adopting one CF strategy as the best may prove to be a delusion (Ellis, 2010). Overall, however, corrective feedback is acknowledged to be substantial in all its forms as a potential stimulus to acquisition.

# **CHAPTER FOUR**

# **Research Methodology and Procedure**

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#### CHAPTER FOUR

## Research Methodology and Procedure

#### Introduction

The current chapter portrays a comprehensive description of the tools and procedures used to fulfil the research aims. 03 main research tools were appointed to investigate the teachers' and the students' repair behaviour; their tendencies were probed with two attitudinal questionnaires, and then the authenticity of those findings was explored via a corpus study of a naturalistic classroom observation. Accordingly, the first main section is devoted to demonstrate the methodological principles adopted in this research including the Methodological approach, perspective and framework besides the methods of data collection, analysis and sampling. The two subsequent sections are to review the procedures of data collection and analysis, with a final section highlighting specific notions utilised in coding the data provided during the classroom observation.

#### 4.2 Research Methodology

Research is "Any systematic and principled inquiry in second language studies" (Brown, 2004. in Hinkel, 2011). Systematic reflects the fact that a research "must be well-organized, methodical, and precise". It is well known that the way we approach the research questions will have a profound effect upon the way we construct a study; in order to plan for the whole research process at a right point of time and to advance the research work in the right direction, carefully chosen research methodology is highly critical because it maps out the whole body of the inquiry. The choice of a specific methodology is not easy though: It does not constitute of sampling, collecting data and analyzing it rigid interpretations; but rather infers to understanding the human behaviour in depth which may reveal in most cases

conflicting views about a single social behaviour, namely errors and repair behaviour in this study. In this section, therefore, the main methodological bases of the study are illustrated.

#### 4.2.1 The Research Methodological Approach: A mixed Approach

Quantitative or qualitative? ;this prominent question has evoked a widespread debate for the last few decades in social research and SLA/FLA in particular (See e.g., Grotjahn, 1987; Van Lier, 1988; Seliger & Shohamy, 1989; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Johnson, 1992; Nunan, 1992; McDonough & McDonough, 1997; Brown & Rodgers, 2002; and Brown, 2004a). Extensively fluctuating, researchers' perspectives range from those considering both approaches as entirely separate, to those who are satisfied to mix them within their research projects. Bryman (1988) argued for a "best of both worlds" approach and asserted that better-quality findings can be extracted from a mixed qualitative-quantitative approach; this is a view with which we are in complete agreement for a divergence of causes to be illustrated afterwards. The need to establish definitions for both approaches, thus, is primarily critical at this phase.

The simplest definition of quantitative and qualitative approaches may be the one established by Punch (1998) who stated that the data in the former is represented by numbers whilst in the latter is not. This is distinctly mirrored in quantitative and qualitative researches: The focal work in quantitative inquiries is about interpreting *statistical* findings via *descriptive*, *exploratory*, *quasi-experimental*, *and experimental studies*. The substantial contribution in qualitatively oriented studies, however, is revealed in the "thematic data analysis" (Tedllie and Tashakori, 2009) of valuable minutiae towards understanding the phenomenon under investigation; this can be achieved through *case studies*, *introspection*, *Discourse and/or Interactional Analyses and classroom observation*. (The mentioned categories of quantitative and qualitative research were suggested by Brown, in Hinkel, 2011).

Blaxter, et. al., heretofore, explained the difference between the two approaches as follows:

Quantitative research is, as the term suggests, concerned with the collection and analysis of data in numeric form. It tends to emphasize relatively large-scale and representative sets of data, and is often, falsely in our view, presented or perceived as being about the gathering of 'facts'. Qualitative research, on the other hand, is concerned with collecting and analysing information in as many forms, chiefly non-numeric, as possible. It tends to focus on exploring, in as much detail as possible, smaller numbers of instances or examples which are seen as being interesting or illuminating, and aims to achieve 'depth' rather than 'breadth'. (1996: 61)

"The third methodological movement", suggested Charles Teddlie and Abbas Tachakkori (2009), is a pragmatic/mixed approach to scientific research adopting the strategy which seems most appropriate to the examination issue and not becoming involved with philosophical dilemma about which is the best approach. Practical specialists consequently allow themselves the opportunity to utilize any of the strategies, methods and systems commonly akin to quantitative or qualitative research. They perceive that each technique has its confinements and that the distinctive methods can be reciprocal. Having the capacity to blend distinctive methods has the upsides of empowering *triangulation*; a common feature of the mixed approach which "is another technique frequently identified with enhancing research quality" (Hinkel, 2011, p.180) involving, as cited in Alzheimer Europe (2013), one or all of these:

- a- Data triangulation: The use of a variety of data sources.
- b- *Investigator triangulation*: Different researchers inquire the same phenomenon.
- c- *Theory triangulation:* The use of multiple perspectives to interpret findings.
- d- *Methodological triangulation:* The use of multiple methods to study a research problem.

With regard to the previous definitions coupled with the aims of this research, a mixed

*approach* was adopted to *pragmatically* endeavour the error treatment patterns in classroom interaction considering relative uptake amounts. The convergent benefits afforded from this approach are:

- a- Qualitative research may facilitate quantitative research with providing background information on the context and subjects with acting as a source of hypotheses (Adapted from Punch, 1998). As an illustration in the present study, *Conversation Analysis* (CA), being a qualitative tool to disclose verbal and non- verbal repair behaviour, can administer enough data about their perceptions during interaction. Thereby, interpretations to the quantitative input are to be respectively more permeable.
- **b-** Quantitative and qualitative methods are repetitiously mixed towards an all-inclusive picture of the phenomenon under investigation (Ibid). In the current study, quantitative methods are utilised to plug the gaps in the qualitative data which arise because our presence in more than one place to describe all participants' perspectives and their preferences was thoroughly impossible. Numerical findings, thus, are vital in documenting implied repair attitudes in classroom interaction.
- *c* Generalizability is constantly authorised via the addition of some quantitative evidence (Ibid). Though the aim of this inquiry is to achieve a comprehensible description of repair patterns in classroom with which qualitative methods are valuable to construe variant perspectives, quantitative data is inevitable to yield generalizability.
- *d* Qualitative research may aid the interpretation of relationships between variables (Ibid). The relationships between errors and repair behaviour spotted in the current study, which is established in numerical forms, cannot be interpreted without revealing the participants' preferences and conventions through a deep qualitative description.

#### **4.2.2** The Methodological Perspective: An Emic- Etic Perspective

Acknowledging that "learning as an enculturation process" (Zhu and Chiappini, 2013), studying spoken errors occurring along the learning continuum becomes a part of inquiring social behaviour within academic contexts which requires the same socio-cultural perspectives to be implemented. *Emic* and *etic perspectives* are mostly dominant in Qualitative research; they are technical terms originally extracted from the suffixes of *phonemic* and *phonetic* (Kenneth Pike, 1967). The former attributes to any sound, namely unit, in a specific language and the latter portrays the system of cross-culturally notations representing those vocal units. The distinction between the two perspectives is comprehended through Pike's own words: while the "etic viewpoint studies behaviour as froms outside of a particular system," the "emic viewpoint results from studying behaviour as from inside the system" (1967: 37).

In light of these definitions; underpinning an emic research should be accorded with the real perceptions of its participants/subjects; their rules for behaviour besides their understanding to specific images, meanings and events. In the current study, this was mainly undertaken within the questionnaires through diagnosing participants' inclinations about the process of error repair in classroom. The etic approach, however, emphasizes the fact that those participants are "too involved in what they are doing" (Kottak, 2006) to accurately interpret their behaviour which calls for the researcher's own belief about what to regard as significant. This can be achieved through a set of pre-existing theories, hypotheses, and pre-assumptions to confirm or reject their application to an alternate setting or culture (Olive, 2014). The etic perspective in our research was respectively consistent during the interpretations of findings linked to previous research in the field.

While the emic perspective is perceived by numerous educational scholars to be rather efficient in the interpretation of individual experiences within a particular group as to rely on its inherent ability to reveal minutial implications (Garcia, 1992; Godina & McCoy, 2000; Saville- Troike, 1989), a thorough dependency on it is unattainable without an etic starting point of analysis or an outsider reference to speculate the rationale behind individuals' behaviour (Zhu and Chiappini, 2013). Accordingly, the current research was based on accumulating both perspectives:

Data collection was grounded on emic bases. The main aims of the questionnaires were to endeavour the nuances of repair behaviour whereby the respondents' indigenous meanings and attitudes about the process were vital in the analysis. Furthermore, during the classroom observation, which is an emic method (Olive, 2014), our presence as a member of the *insider* educational system authorised a further validity of the emic prospect.

Data analysis, nevertheless, was processed via a mixed perspective. Interpretations were afforded relying on prior theories besides conversation analysis which is a "radically emic approach" (Harklau in Hinkel, 2011). The observable spoken errors and their repair were emphasised which allowed anticipations about the normative inter-subjective comprehension of interaction. In other words, our analysis was initiated from etic interpretations towards an in-depth emic error and conversation analyses to evade overlooking the implied meanings and structures of repair work.

#### **4.2.3** Methods of Data Collection

The current study supplemented a primary method of qualitative data collection (Classroom observation) with assisting attitudinal questionnaires to augment and bolster analysis.

#### **4.2.3.1** The Questionnaires

The two structured questionnaires aimed at investigating the respondents' (Teachers and Students) attitudes towards error repair. Both questionnaires afforded a set of scaling questions (*Likert scale questionnaires*) to rank the respondents' attitudes and preferences either from *always* to *never* or from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*, besides some *multiple choices*' questions. The final section of the teachers' questionnaire, however, included *open-ended* questions to probe their conventions towards the effectiveness of corrective feedback in the learning betterment.

#### 4.1.3.2 The Classroom Observation

Observations are qualitative emic methods which are considered to be substantially contributing in the research validity as they depend on naturalistic language data sources. The authenticity of both the teaching and the learning processes is excellently revealed during classroom observation because the latter is significant in developing the teachers' performance itself (Jonson, 2008). In the current study, the classroom observation was conducted via video-recordings namely "Stimulated recall protocols" (e.g., de Courcy, 2003; Kang, 2005; Mullock, 2006), besides field notes to capture the authentic repair behaviour during classroom conversation.

There are divergent distinctions of observation types: Three relevant categorizations are to be identified here: Structured Vs Unstructured, Controlled Vs Uncontrolled and participant Vs Non-participant observations. It is worth noting, however, to state that some researchers make a strong attachment between the first and the second classifications (McLeod, 2015).

Structured observation, as asserted by Singh (2010), "works according to a plan and involves specific information of the units that are to be observed and also about the information that is to be recorded". Therefore, various features that are to be detected or

recorded are previously decided upon and well defined in a procedural manner which requires specific codes and labels to describe them. Singh adds that unstructured observation on the contrary allows the researcher to note down any details he instantly classifies as relevant while observing. In the current study, the major aspects to be investigated were *structured* prior to the classroom observation: *Repair work* categories were coded in accordance with J.K Hall classification (1997), *self-repair* (SR) and *corrective feedback* (CF) strategies were coded on the bases of Schegloff et.al suggested categorization (1997) and Lyster and Ranta taxonomy (1997,2007) in sequence. Furthermore, the completed repair works were symbolized by [ ] whilst uncompleted ones were coded simply by [in progress]. *Uptake* on the other hand was coded as [successful] or [partial] (See Appendices: C1, C2, C3 and C4).

Unalike naturalistic observations, a *Controlled observation* is oftentimes undertaken in laboratory settings. The researcher, thus, can make decisions about where, when and with which participants the observation should be conducted (McLeod, 2015). This type of observations is usually structured with which codes and schedules are utilised to describe aspects being investigated in a way that other researchers, in a process of testing *reliability*, can replicate similar studies employing the same schedules. Nonetheless, *uncontrolled* (*naturalistic*) *observations* take place in natural settings to portray spontaneous behaviour without any restrictions on the variables which yields more *validity* to the research (ibid). From a pedagogical perspective, naturalistic classroom observations are valuable in error treatment research within contexts of learning EFL; the authenticity of aspects, like corrective feedback CF, is well spotted and the "*ecological validity can only be achieved through classroom-based research*" (Ellis et.al., 2006. p.365). Between reliability and validity, our classroom observation aimed to attain the sufficient amounts of validity via recording the repair behaviour during impulsive classroom interactions in the department of English, Constantine University. To avoid the limitation of *less reliability* akin to naturalistic

observations (Singh, 2010), the technique of coding and categorizing what is to be calculated was borrowed from the controlled type; this allowed us to gather quantitative data towards easier interpretations and analysis.

The dichotomous pair of *participant Vs non-participant* observations can be derived from the above types whereby both can be either structured or unstructured. While a *participant observation* signifies "watching the events or situation or activities from inside by taking part in the group to be observed" (Choudhury, 2016) which requires a continual interaction with the other participants to achieve better insight of the inquired phenomenon, *non-participant observations* imply that "no participation of the observer in the activities of the group takes place and also there occurs no relationship between the researcher and the group" (Singh, 2010). The researcher then proceeds in a pre-planned manner specifying the relevant aspects which can be realistically and ethically observed (Alzheimer Europe, 2009). In the current inquiry, the choice of *non-participatory* classroom observation was established to, respectively, maintain the usual flow of interaction characterising any other unobserved Oral expression session. Our presence, however, was being regarded as a confining force to the interactional competency for some students.

To this end, the current pedagogical inquiry was based on a *structured*, *uncontrolled*, *non-participant* observation. This second tool of research was established to examine repair work of spoken errors within a classroom-based context that might ensure the ecological validity.

#### 4.1.4 Population and Sampling

Sampling is not a matter of representative opinions, but a matter of information richness. Accordingly, appropriateness and adequacy are paramount in sampling (Morse & Field, 1995). Merriam (2009) also discussed the process for selecting a sample and determining its size: She noted that it depends on the research questions, the data collected, the data analysis,

and the availability of resources. To the specific question of how many, Merriam wrote, "there is no answer" (p.80).

#### 4.1.4.1 Participants in the Teachers' Questionnaire

Participants in the Teachers' Questionnaire were selected from a large population of full time and part time teachers in the department of English at the University of "Frères Mentouri", Constantine. We decided upon a *non-probability purposive/Snowball sample* of 16 teachers of EFL.

#### What is Purposive and Snowball Sampling?

A *purposive sample* is a non-representative subset of some larger population added to *convenience* and *quota sampling* as non- probability sampling approaches in which even opportunities of participation are not allowed for all individual subjects in a population. It is constructed to serve a very specific need or purpose (Zikmund and Babin, 2007) whereby a researcher may have a specific group in mind, such as high level and experienced teachers. Units induced from this technique are sometimes labelled as *snowball samples* (Goodman, L.A, 1961) - so named because one picks up the sample along the way, analogous to a snowball accumulating snow; that is to say one participant may appoint another to take part in the inquiry regarding the research aims.

In accordance with the above definitions and towards achieving the purposefulness of estimating reliable data, our informants were selected from *Oral Expression teachers* who constitute the whole sample (100%) with a proportion of 50% teaching the module for over 05 years. Most of them have kindly recommended other participants' contribution which brought the *snowball technique* into realisation. Such a rich sample could respectively accomplish our purpose of inducing data from teachers' *experienced in face-to- face interaction with* 

*students*; as such they comparably earned an in-depth comprehension of their students' oral proficiency including their repair behaviour of spoken lapses.

It is noteworthy, however, to state that some teachers have had experience teaching other modules like Grammar (06 teachers), Linguistics (07 teachers), Psychology (02), Methodology (03) and Written Expression (03 teachers). This would enrich our findings as to rely on the divergence of "Form-based" and "content based instruction" orientations of these modules.

#### 4.1.4.2 Participants in the Students' Questionnaire

The targeted informants in the students' questionnaire were selected on a basis of *probability Cluster sampling*.

#### What is Cluster Sampling?

Cluster sampling, also known as one-stage cluster sampling, is a technique in which clusters of participants that represent the population are identified and included in the sample (Jackson, 2011). It is the third technique classified of *probability sampling* besides *random* and *stratified sampling*. Its advantages are respectively illustrated as follows:

"1/ It is the most time-efficient and cost-efficient probability design for large geographical areas. 2/This method is easy to be used from practicality viewpoint. 3/ Larger sample size can be used due to increased level of accessibility of perspective sample group members" (Dudovsiky, 2016)

This probability-based technique was adopted in this research. The whole population consisted of 800 second year LMD students enrolling in EFL programs at the University of Frères Mentouri- Constantine, for the academic year 2014/2015, was divided into X groups (Clusters). This allowed us to appoint 07 groups with a large number of 150 students as respondents to our questionnaire in a whole.

Furthermore, the choice of the second year was in the view that students at this phase of learning still produce regular spoken errors compared to third year students which allowed rich data. They, nevertheless, earned further oral proficiency than those enrolled in First year English classes which could enhance our chances to attain fairly higher extents of self repair (**SR**). This was also on the basis that teachers withhold correcting learners in lower stages of learning and show repetitious impulse to correct those in more advanced stages (Sheen, 2011) which would augment data about corrective Feedback.

Most of participants are homogeneous in terms of their linguistic, educational, and socioeconomic background which narrowed down the feasibility of influence of these factors on data analysis.

#### 4.1.4.3 Sampling in the Classroom Observation: Participants and Observed Sessions

The participants in the classroom observation were selected from the former samples of the questionnaires in order to maintain validity of data through comparison between the findings generated from all research tools.

Deciding which lessons to be examined was linked to those of which affording divergent data about errors and feedback along with teachers' approaches of teaching oral skills (Form or content-based orientation). Selection was respectively authorised on the basis of *purposeful sampling* (Patton, 2015): Selecting information rich cases in which data would be of substantial assistance to the researcher if accumulated from *few*, *but rich*, *sites* (Creswell, 2013). Creswell provided observations and some recommendations of sample size ranges for the five approaches: Case study, no more than 04 to 05 cases; Ethnography, a single culture sharing group; Grounded Theory Methodology, 20 to 30 cases; Narrative inquiry, 01 to 02 cases observed unless developing a collective story; and Phenomenology, 03 to 10 cases, with

observed sample sizes from 01 to 325. As such, our selection was merely four Oral Expression sessions as a case to the current study.

#### 4.1.5 Methods of Data Analysis in Classroom Observation

The major methods deployed to analyse data were error and conversation analyses.

#### 4.1.5.1 Error Analysis

The focal interest of the current study is to reveal the repair work of classroom conversation; analysing errors along with their treatment, thus, is of a thorough essentiality. Error Analysis, EA, contributes heavily in sorting out the learners' problems and identifying where they are on the interlanguage continuum. Therefore, teachers can provide appropriate feedback by cause of "What foreign language learners can do and cannot do could reveal important messages to language teachers about what is happening in their interlanguage" (Atmaka, 2016).

In the current research, the process of an error analysis was not wholly applied. Considering Corder's model of EA, the latter should be proceeded in five stages namely "collecting data, identifying, classifying the errors, explaining the causes and then evaluating them" [See Chapter One, Section two]. With regard to the aims of the study which do not relate to exploring the causes of spoken errors but rather to their repair, the last two stages were not attended.

It is noteworthy, however, to state that the distinction between errors and mistakes was not of primary interest in the current inquiry; in practice, it is often not possible to observe the distinction between errors and mistakes (Corder 1967:167). Also, bearing in mind that the focus of the current research is on students' and teachers' repair behaviour to any anomalous output, it is not of usefulness to highlight a rigid distinction between errors and mistakes whereby dilemmatic situations were encountered when attempting to classify them. Therfore,

the notion of *error* will be utilised as an *umbrella term* incorporating the concept *mistake* particularly for error treatment purposes.

In this research, moreover, Chaudron's view of error will be adopted as it covers both *form* and *content*. Subsequently, both errors deviated from the linguistic rules or appointed as inappropriate by the teacher are being investigated. All spoken breakdowns subsequently were regarded as errors and, thereby, classified into two categories:

- 1- Linguistic level: Including Grammar, Phonology, and lexical errors (Discourse errors type was omitted).
- 2- Error Gravity level: mainly intelligibility failures which were, sometimes, referred to as communicative breakdowns. Besides common errors (Juhanson 1978, Ludwig 1982).
  While the common errors were dealt with in the teachers' questionnaire, they were integrated with intelligibility problems. Irritating errors, as well, were considered as intelligibility troubles because taking in consideration each listener's stigmatized perception about a possible error is challenging (Lee, 1990).

#### **4.1.5.2** Conversation Analysis

The most frequently invoked methodology for the analysis of interaction in recent SLA/FLA studies has been *conversation analysis*, CA; this radically emic qualitative method was deployed in the ongoing research to comprehend the nuances of repair work accomplished during classroom observation. Acknowledging that the three decisive dimensions of any CA study are: *Action*, *structure* and *inter-subjectivity* [See Chapter One, Section Two], applying for a CA was respectively handled as follows:

d- The current study explored the patterns of error repair. The latter is a fundamental aspect of *action* through which the organization of actions or repair events is identified.

- e- Within the investigation of the accurate structures of *making an error* and *receiving a feedback*, interactants may ask for clarifications (When the teacher, in particular, initiates a corrective feedback) or may simply produce an *adjacency pair* of question/answer during the repair process. These pairs are the main core of the second CA dimension labelled as *structure*.
- f- *Inter-subjectivity*, the third CA dimension, was undertaken mostly in dealing with intelligibility breakdowns. Scholars insist on the inevitability of creating, maintaining and negotiating the inter-subjective comprehension of the participants' intentions, their state of knowledge, competencies, and their stance towards the talked-about topics (Heritage & Atkinson 1984: 11). This was paramount in the analysis whereby participants' repair behaviour was explored on the basis of estimating their oral competencies and possible intentions.
- g- Conversation Analysis was carried out referring to video recordings, or field notes, of the naturally occurred interaction with a careful examination of deviant cases as they are of great importance in any CA. Some interactional cases were extracted in order to cautiously explain the structural features of repair work.

It is noteworthy to state that the content of the analysed examples was transcribed in accordance with the notation developed by Gail Jeffersson (1977) [See Appendix D].

#### 4.2 Data Collection and Procedure

The database of the current study consisted of two attitudinal questionnaires and the classroom observation of four interactional sessions. Both questionnaires were handed earlier to the observation considering it as a check instrument of what was claimed by the teachers and the students in response to the questionnaires.

#### 4.2.4 Teacher Questionnaire

The five- sections' attitudinal questionnaire was handed to sixteen teachers in the department of English at the University of "Frères Mentouri", Constantine.

#### 4.2.4.1 Aims of the Questionnaire

As the first research tool, this questionnaire inquired teachers' conventions and preferences towards the repair work of spoken breakdowns; its aims, thus, were akin to the research questions whereby the informants were required to report their perceptions about the significance of error treatment and "who, when, what and how" to repair a student's oral failure maintaining an uptake-boosting CF.

#### **4.2.4.2** Description of the Questionnaire

#### **Section One: Demographics and Experience**

This section was mainly intended to collect data about the informants' experience in teaching, and chiefly Oral Expression teaching. The significance of inquiring their viral insight into learners' attitudes and the effective teaching methods is built upon a continuous face to face interaction.

#### **Section Two: Error Types and Influential Factors**

This section was designed to question the teachers' perceptions about the error types commonly done by their students. Admitting that there is no learning without goofing, our informants were required to classify a set of causes evoking the occurrence of these speech lapses beside an open-ended choice to state further causes.

#### **Section Three: Self Repair in Classroom**

The structure of this section served as a diagnosis of students' level of oral skills and their repair behaviour. The second part, which probed the informants' perceptions about their students' self repair preferences, consisted of highlighting their level of awareness and

involvement in error treatment then identifying their strategies in dealing with their own language mismanagement.

#### Section Four: Attitudes and Preferences of Corrective Feedback

The layout of this section was paralleled with the major questions of the current study: who, when, what and how to repair spoken errors. Separate parts, thus, were allocated with each question: Intending to question the informants' preference towards who provides more repairs, they were provided with the choice to apply for CF, to authorise opportunities for SR or to engage in a collaborative repair work with the students. Furthermore, the teachers were required to report their preferable timing to provide CF; either immediate or postponed. The part of What to correct addressed the teachers' attitudes towards breakdowns with regard to the linguistic level( Grammar, Phonology and Lexis), the gravity level( Intelligibility and common errors), the students' self confidence level and the acquisition level( Old or new linguistic knowledge). The last part of how to correct was designed to be the centripetal of the questionnaire: respondents were provided with an erroneous utterance- including a misuse of the simple past tense of the verb « to sleep »- that is supposed to be extracted from a teacher-student interaction, responses towards the effectiveness degrees achieved through the application of each CF type were then ranked on a five-level likert scale.

#### **Section Five: Usefulness of Corrective Feedback**

It is substantially worth investigation to obtain a commentary section about the teachers' attitudes towards the efficiency and effectiveness of their corrective behaviour in generating certain degrees of learners' uptake and further language acquisition. This section also included a final annotation about the recommendations suggested to stimulate self-repair and the betterment of the whole process of collaboration in repair work of spoken breakdowns.

#### 4.2.5 The Student Questionnaire

This questionnaire is the second tool of research utilised to fulfil the aims of the current research.

#### 4.2.5.1 Aims of the Questionnaire

While the first questionnaire was intended to probe the teachers' aptitudes towards repair work of spoken errors, this questionnaire was designed to investigate the students' tendencies of self repair and even their perspectives and responses on the teachers' corrective behaviour.

#### 4.2.5.2 Description of the Questionnaire

#### **Section One: Personal Information**

Including four questions, this section dealt with information related to the students' personal experience in studying the English language and their preferences of language use outside and inside classroom. Furthermore, the students' estimations to their level in oral performance were targeted in this section.

#### **Section Two: Self- Efficacy**

Inquiring learners' self efficacy while speaking is quite understandable; it determines their ability to engage in repair behaviour amongst other strategies. This two- parts section aimed to report the respondents' degrees of inhibition and self- esteem during any oral activity then during the process of repair work which can identify their willingness to involve in it.

#### **Section Three: Self- Awareness**

The seven concise questions of this section investigated learners' awareness towards both their erroneous speech and the significance of handling it. The students were asked whether they have high awareness in different situations of repair work.

#### **Section Four: Repair Attitudes and Preferences**

As the nucleus of the questionnaire, this section served to explore the four most vital questions when analysing an error treatment process: *Who*, *When*, *What* and *How to repair*.

The section presented an image about learners' self repair attitudes and their preferences towards their teachers' corrective feedback.

#### 4.2.6 Classroom Observation: Design and Procedure

The classroom observation is the fundamental tool of research in this study. Findings of both questionnaires were reinvestigated during a natural observation of repair behaviour.

#### 4.2.6.1 The Observation Settings, Duration and Instruments

The oral courses which were described as conversation classes took place in the Department of Letters and English Language at the University of "Frères Mentouri", Constantine. Teachers and their students were not informed of the express purpose of the study. Our presence during recording was mainly characterized as an observer from the outside of the interlocutors' system and without interference to fulfil the aims of a *Non-participant qualitative approach*. Moreover, factors such as age or sex of the participants were not a preconsideration of this inquiry and thus were not reviewed; Schegloff (1992) claims that considering speakers' age and cultural or social backgrounds is of decisive relevance only when interactants themselves orient to such distinctions which would be mirrored in the conversation minutiae and would therefore be brought to light merely after data analysis. This was was not the case for our participants because they belong to the same cultural background.

The classroom observation analysis was selected from a corpus of 621 oral errors/breakdowns including data from 04 video-taped Oral Expression sessions(3.03 hours) piloted by 04 non native-speaker EFL teachers and 84 out of 150 students who previously responded to the questionnaire. The whole observation, though, consisted of a larger corpus of 7 video-recordings and 5 sessions of field-notes whereby we observed the repair behaviour of the whole students' sample (137 subjects regarding occasional absences) and 7 teachers during a total sum of 10.18 hours. Selecting teachers participating in the observation was

limited to those fulfilling the questionnaire in earlier time and who were mostly part time teachers (Only two full time teachers enrolled in our observation).

#### **4.2.6.2** The Selection of the Analysed Sessions

For this case study, the representativeness of the selected 04 Oral Expression courses was estimated on the ground of the subsequent foundations:

- a- The recursive patterns of repair and corrective behaviour observed allowed narrowing down the number of sessions analysed from 13 into 04.
- b- The 04 sessions were supervised by teachers with different teaching orientations. We extracted findings derived from the teachers' questionnaire to appoint 02 of them adopting a *Meaning-focused approach* and the 02 others claiming a *Mix of meaning and form-based approach* to be utilised in their classes. This could allow us divergent data about corrective feedback to be relatively confirmed in subsequent stages of the observation analysis. It is worth stating that our choice did not target a teacher with *form-based inclinations* because none of the informants acknowledged such a teaching approach.
- c- As to consider the nature of Oral Expression courses in the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine, most of them are either *interactional* (With regard to those involving *Listening* then discussion) or *presentations+ Discussion*. Accordingly, the analysis was based on opting for both categories with each of which consisting of 02 sessions was opted for.
- d- Amongst the different interactional sessions, there were 02 with comparably the same theme of discussion (Immigration/ Illegal Immigration). Therefore, analogous and unlike instances of corrective behaviour were detected on a continuum of comparison between the two.

The table demonstrated in the next page exposes all the sessions observed with their themes, duration and number of students involved. It is substantial, though, to highlight that the sum of students' number illustrated here does not reflect the factual number of those taking part in the courses (137) due to our attendance in some groups more than once.

Sessions	Date	Type of Data	Type of The	Theme	Duration	Number of
		Collection	Session			Students
Session 01	15.02.2015	Videotaping+	Presentations	1* "Autism" (Only Discussion)	38 min	30
		Field notes		2* "Music"		
Session 02	16.02.2015	Field-notes	Interaction	"If I wereI would"	51 min	19
Session 03	20.02.2015	Videotaping+	1*Presentation	"The truth"	48.43 min	21
		Field notes	2*Play	"The Value of Family"		
Session 04	20.02.2015	Videotaping+	Presentations	1* "Astronomy"	44 min	11
		Field-notes		2* A Story Review		
Session 05	22.02.2015	Videotaping+	Interaction	"Illegal Immigration"	50.05 min	11
		Field notes				
Session 06	25.02.2015	Videotaping	Interaction	"The world of Facebook"	59.52	23
Session 07	09.03.2015	Videotaping+	Interaction	A variety of topics	47	17
		Field-notes				
Session 08	09.03.2015	Videotaping	Interaction	"Immigration"	45 min	21
Session 09	11.03.2015	Field-notes	Listening	"Customs and Traditions"	61 min	22
Session 10	13.03.2015	Field-notes	Interaction	"Freedom"	47 min	26
Session 11	19.03.2015	Field-notes	Presentation	"Friendship today"	41 min	11
Session 12	19.03.2015	Field-notes	Interaction	"Education in Algeria"	55 min	17
	Table 4.1: List of Oral Expression Sessions Observed					

Table 4.1: List of Oral Expression Sessions Observed

(10.18 hours)

**Note:** The highlighted sessions represent the main data of analysis

#### 4.3 Data Analysis

While the findings afforded from the questionnaires were interpreted in accordance with pre-existing theories in the field, data from the classroom observation was handled in a specific framework of analysis:

#### 4.3.1 Categorization of Errors

A permeable analysis of error treatment should be based on classifying those spoken errors in the first place to identify which ones receive more repair work. In the current study, the focal classification of classroom errors was based on linguistic levels on one hand; *Grammatical, phonological and lexical errors* (Lee, 1990), and on the gravity level on the other hand referring mainly to *Intelligibility breakdowns* as global errors "that need priority attention from any recipient as, otherwise, communication breakdown occurs" (ibid). Other categorizations of spoken errors were respectively disregarded as to narrow down the examined cases towards a manageable analysis; these types can be reviewed in the second section of the first chapter of this study.

#### 4.3.2 Categorization of Repair Work [J.K. Hall, 1997]

After classifying errors in order to facilitate the analysis of their repair, the process of distinguishing self-repair from others' interference in error treatment was established in accordance with Hall's taxonomy of repair types (1997) [See chapter 02, section 01]. This classification allowed us to locate the contribution of all participants in repair work; the committer of errors, the teacher and even the peers. The amounts of self-repair and corrective feedback, thus, were calculated with regard to who does the initiation or the completion of the error treatment. Therefore, scrutinizing SR and CF strategies in the forthcoming stages could be automatically done. Nonetheless, as the peers' cooperation was not associated with the aims of the study, it was merely investigated in the calculation of who does the repair?

#### 4.3.3 Categorization of Self Repair Strategies [Schegloff et.al., 1977]

In this stage, only *self initiated self completed repair* is diagnosed. The types of self-repair suggested by Schegloff (1977) [See Chapter 02, S.I.S.R Strategies] were utilised to highlight students' autonomous management of their own spoken failures. Students' strategies accordingly were allocated as demonstrated in table 4.2 and the amounts of applying for each set of strategies were subsequently calculated to reveal the degrees of students' dependency on them.

	CODES	SIGNIFIACTION	
	Non-Lex	Non lexical initiators or fillers	
	Ful-Rep	Full repetition of the erroneous item/Utterance	
Repetition	Par-Rep	Partial repetition of the error either via repeating a single	
		sound or part of the word/sentence	
Provision	Ins	Insertion of the appropriate target form	
of the Sub Substitution of the non-target item		Substitution of the non-target item with another	
Repairing		correct/incorrect	
Item	Oms	Omission of the error (Occurred in rare situations)	

**Table 4.2: Coding Self-Repair Strategies** 

The category of Self-initiated Other-repair S.I.O.R, however, included merely the strategies of Non-lexical fillers and repetition as to consider the provision of repairing items to be administered either by the teacher or the peers.

# 4.3.4 Categorization of Corrective Feedback [Lyster's & Ranta's Taxonomy, 1997; Sheen's &Ellis' Taxonomy, 2011]

To fulfil the aim of inquiring the teachers' attitudes and preferences of corrective feedback in classroom, the taxonomy of CF suggested by Lyster and Ranta (1997) was adopted with the addition of the terminology introduced by Sheen and Ellis (2011) including *explicit correction with explanation* (Ellis, 2007). 07 types, therefore, were applied in identifying the teacher's corrective behaviour as either reformulations or prompts (Lyster &Ranta, 1997) and explicit or implicit (Sheen& Ellis, 2011). The extents of yielding each type, thereafter, were calculated in order to determine the teachers' inclinations of utilising one type over another.

It is worth noting that all corrective moves were included even when the same spoken error was being dealt with.

Codes of special relevance to the timing of delivering corrective feedback are demonstrated in table 4.3:

CODES	SIGNIFICATION	
Imd	Immediate	
Post	Postponed	
Del	Delayed	

Table 4.3: Codes of Provison Time of the Corrective Feedback

# 4.3.5 Categorization of Students' Attitudes/ Responses towards Corrective Feedback A personalised Perspective

Lyster and Ranta (1997) explained that learners have certain reactions towards what was provided to solve their speech breakdown. They disclosed that the learner may reflect with a repetition of the teacher's feedback, a failure of the repair work or a self repair which implies an uptake [See chapter 03]. In our study, students' responses to the teacher's CF, which respectively mirrored their attitudes towards each CF type, were arranged into 06 categories along a continuum from negative to positive attitudes in relation to their efficacy in generating a successful uptake.

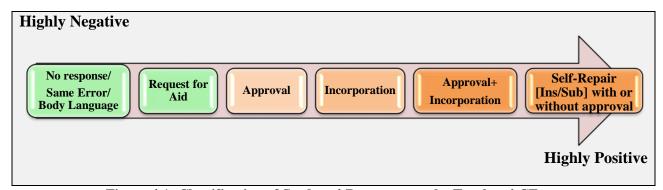


Figure 4.1: Classification of Students' Responses to the Teachers' CF

The graph above illustrates the suggested categorization of students' responses towards teachers' CF in the current study. When a student shows *no response*, reacts with *non-verbal gesticulation* or even reproduces the *same error*, this implies no evidence of positive attitude or efficacy of the corrective feedback yielded. Nevertheless, complete *self -repair*, with or

without approval, is to be considered as a highly positive attitude; this was spotted in forms of insertions( of the target item) or substitutions ( of the non-target item) following exclusively the prompting CF: When the trouble source student directly responds with an appropriated production, this means that her/his perseverance about the error has been activated through internalising the teachers' CF, and therefore, the learning of the target like form could take place. The four suggested categories between self repair and the thoroughly negative response differ in the degrees of positivity from nearly negative to favourable: While requesting for an aid or questioning the CF indicate that the student is doubtful about the teacher's corrective intention, approving with a mere yes on the teacher's interference could be perceived as slightly negative regarding the fact that there was neither an evident internalization of the corrective feedback nor an uptake. This kind of agreement, which is generated from reformulations oftentimes, could only be a conversational tool to move forward in the interaction without even noticing that there was a repairing segment in the teacher's feedback. The following category in the continuum, *incorporation* of the teacher's reformulations, can never be accounted as thoroughly negative or entirely positive; repeating the teacher's recast or explicit correction in a reproduced utterance implies that the student was either testing his/her language hypothesis akin to the error or he/she was just "echoing" the teacher's CF, which exhibits no learning of the target form in most cases (Ellis, 2011). Both categories, Approval and incorporation, were cautiously regarded to comprise unfavourable responses because they exhibit positive evidence for students who sometimes do not interpret CF as a correction in the first place. Nevertheless, producing an approval with an incorporation of the correct segment, which is induced from reformulations as well, was allocated as a high indication of positive attitude and uptake; utilizing an acknowledgement item previous to the inclusion of the teacher's feedback indicates that the error committer perceived it as a negative evidence rather than positive, and that he/she was internalising the repair work being held.

#### 4.3.6 Categorization of Uptake [Lyster and Ranta (1997) adapted]

In chapter 03 of the current study, uptake was defined as "a student utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; p.49). This newly asserted utterance does not certainly imply a repair of the erroneous speech nor does it activate absolute acquisition itself (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) because the student may react to a certain CF but never re-invest that repair in learning the linguistic rule linked to the error. The absence of uptake, however, does not necessarily entail a lack of perseverance (Sheen, 2006). In accordance with the mentioned facts, calculating the degrees of uptake resulted from the application of certain CF strategies would remain tentative in the view of the fact that only short term impact was investigated while long term effects or enduring uptake is left for further pursuit of research.

In this research, uptake was classified into 02 contrasting types: *Successful uptake*; referring to *repair* in Lyster and Ranta model (1997), and *partial uptake* to mean *needs-repair* in the same model. Successful uptake was suggested to signify any students' reaction with the incorporation of the teacher's CF or a self repair, while partial repair characterized students' approval (With a *yes* only) or peers' correction. The rationale behind this suggested distinction was the assumption that students' self repair or incorporation of the target form could reflect the achievement of the teacher's aim behind his/her CF move, whereas reacting with a "*yes*" could be roughly translated as an active awareness of the whole repair work. Furthermore, peers' completion, as well, does not obviously contain any repairing behaviour of the error committer which could be respectively accounted as a partial achievement for the teacher's CF.

# 4.3.7 Conventional Notions of Special Relevance to the Classroom Observation Analysis

Some notions were suggested in the ongoing research to maintain easier analysis. These are:

#### Complex Errors

A Complex error is the one whose type could not be identified especially when affecting communicability. An inaccurate utterance frequently evokes unintelligibility when there are more than one Grammar error in the utterance which was regarded as both grammatical and intelligibility breakdowns during analysis; an example of this:

Student: But as little as 15 seconds of music can change the way you just the emotions on other people' faces [Grammatical structure] No Repair [From Personal data]

The above illustration elicited a communicative breakdown which was decided upon to interrupt both accuracy and communicability.

#### • Complex Repair Works

This notion was associated with complex errors; a complex repair work thus represents the treatment of a complex error. The aim behind isolating this type of RW was to avoid reconsidering a single repair work twice during the calculation and the data analysis. It is noteworthy that not all complex errors received treatment.

#### • Repair in Progress

Coded as *in progress* in the transcripts of RW, this notion was utilized to signify an unfinished RW that was to be reached in another conversational move. The teacher, or another interactant, usually re-elicits the appropriate completion when the error committer fails to do so.

#### • Successful uptake

As labelled earlier, this notion refers to the student's reaction to CF with either a self repair or an incorporation of the provided target form.

#### • Partial uptake

Students' responses to CF with a yes or peers' completion with the appropriate completion were coded as partial uptake.

#### Conclusion

This chapter was devoted to describe the methods and procedures of data collection and analysis. Throughout the chapter, details about the methodological approach, perspective and framework were displayed: Adopting a mixed approach is thought to have benefits on describing statistical data by an amalgam of quantitative and qualitative methods. The population and the samples of both questionnaires and the classroom observation were further introduced with regard to the theoretical bases and the aims of the study; teachers and students in the English department at the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine, were appointed as respondents to the two questionnaires then as participants in a non-participatory classroom observation. These research tools were used in a comprehensive design that serves the uncontrolled nature of the inquiry. A final illustration of some notions that were itemised exclusively for analysis in the current study was accurately demonstrated. This chapter, thus, aimed to set the groundwork for the data analysis in the two consecutive chapters.

#### **CHAPTER FIVE**

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### Chapter Five

## The Analysis of Teachers' and Students' Questionnaires

#### Introduction

This chapter affords detailed analysis of the teachers' and the students' questionnaires exploring their attitudes and preferences towards conversation repair in classroom. As the current study investigates the attitudinal patterns of error repair in EFL classrooms at the University of Constantine, it is subsequently vital to probe both the teachers' and the students' conventions towards this inevitable process. This was accomplished via the analysis of two questionnaires submitted earlier by which the research questions have been fulfilled throughout the diagnosis of the different parts of each questionnaire: Whether error treatment is being adequately authorized, whether it is being processed cooperatively by both the teachers and the students or being attended by one participant rather than the other, which error types and timing of repair the participants agree about, and finally what strategies both participants prefer to apply during repair work. Furthermore, a distinct section in the teachers' questionnaire is set to question their estimations about the utility of CF in enhancing their students' *uptake*. Dissimilarities are to be hypothesized in the responses of the teachers and their students on the basis of the distinguished aims of teaching and learning; this would be confirmed, or rejected, by the end of this chapter.

#### 5.1 The Teachers' Questionnaire Analysis

This section deals with the analysis of data attained from the first research tool. The fivesection questionnaire was set to probe the teachers' conventions about error treatment of classroom conversation; as such, the analysis will revolve around answering the research questions.

#### **5.1.1** Section One: Demographics and Experience

Inquiring about the teaching experience and approaches adopted by the informants of the questionnaire would enrich the findings

	Options	Number of Responses	Percentages
Question One:	BA (License)	00	0%
Degree Held	MA (Master /Magester)	13	81.25%
	PhD (Doctorate)	03	18.75
	Oral Expression	16	100%
Question Two:	Grammar	06	37.50%
Modules taught	Linguistics	07	43.75%
	Psychology	02	12.50%
	Methodology	03	18.75%
	Written Expression	03	18.75%
	Less than 2 years	02	12.50%
Question Three:	From 2 to 5 years	03	18.75%
Teaching Experience	From 6 to 10 years	04	25%
	From 11 to 25 years	02	12.50%
	More than 25 years	05	31.25%
Question Four:	Only 01 year	03	18.75%
Teaching Oral Skills	From 2 to 5 years	05	31.25%
	More than 5 years	08	50%
Question Five:	Meaning- focused Teaching	03	18.75%
Approach adopted in	Form- focused teaching	00	0%
teaching Oral Skills	A mix of both Approaches	13	81.25%

**Table 5.1: Demographics and Degrees of Experience** 

As displayed in this table, the majority of **81**, **25%** hold a Master/Magister (MA) degree, while only 18.75 possess a PhD. more than half of the sample have been teaching over six years whereby 31.25 % have been teaching more than 25 years. Further decisive is that all informants have been teaching *Oral Expression* during a certain period of time, this proportion constituted of 50% who taught it for over 05 years and 31.25% who did so within a period of time between 2 and 5 years. These results affirm the valuable input these informants would add to the validity of data which will be employed to fulfil the aims of the questionnaire.

Other modules taught by the respondents were linguistics (43.75%), Grammar (37.5%), Methodology and Written Expression with equal percentages (18.75%) and Psychology (12.5%) besides other modules with respectively less importance in deducing results.

It is noteworthy that a weighty majority of **81.25%** confirmed their dependency on incorporating both approaches *form-focused* and *Meaning-focused teaching* to achieve an adaptive perspective beneficial to balancing between both *form and content-based instruction* (CBI) in accordance with both learners' needs and the specification of the lecture's objectives. Moreover, only 18.75 of the sample claimed their complete preference of meaning over form-based teaching which is an echo for the revolutionary tendency towards communicatively triggered classes of EFL based on content (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989) as such teachers can contextualize the language aspects being taught stimulating automaticity in learning. It is significant, nevertheless, to highlight that none of the informants acknowledged adopting a *form based instruction* (FBI); this is related to the teachers' willingness to abandon their dependency on mere *focus on forms*.

#### **5.1.2** Section Two: Error Types and Influential Factors

It is significant in the forthcoming phases of analysis to investigate types of errors spread amongst students in the view of their teachers.

#### 5.1.2.1 Part 01: The Teachers' Attitudes towards Spoken Errors in their Class

The teachers' inclinations about the significance of spoken errors in diagnosing the students' oral proficiency are vital in detecting their awarenees about this process in teaching.

#### 5.1.2.1.1 Question one: Are Student's Spoken Errors Important?

It is crucial to question teachers' diagnosis to their students' errors regarding the significance of their manifestation in speech as they contribute to learning.

Degree of Agreement	Str	Strongly		trongly Agree		Ne	utral	Disag	ree	Stro	ngly	To	otal
	A	Agree							Disa	gree			
Statement	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Oral errors are important	08	50	07	43.75	00	0	00	0	01	6.25	16	100	
in the learning process													

**Table 5.2:** The Teachers' Attitudes towards the Inevitability of Errors

Half of the sample reported their *strong agreement* of the fact that all sorts of errors produced in the learner's speech are important to trigger further learning. In addition to a proportion of 43.75% who responded with bare agreement. The informants here are not only approving on Cordor's point of view (1967) about errors as an assistance for teachers in approaching effective teaching, but rather depending on their own experience.

#### 5.1.2.1.2 Question Two: What are Error Cypes common in your Students' Speech?

Degree of Agreement		rongly gree	Agree		Ne	utral	Dis	agree	Stror Disag		To	tals
Statements	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar errors												
are the most	03	18.75	09	56.25	02	12.5	02	12.50	00	0	16	100
common in												
classroom												
Phonology errors												
are the most	03	18.75	08	50	02	12.5	03	18.75	00	0	16	100
common errors												
Lexical failures												
are the most	00	0	07	43.75	01	6.25	08	50	00	0	16	100
spread amongst												
students												
Communicative												
errors are the	04	25	09	56.25	01	6.25	02	12.5	00	0	16	100
most commonly												
made by students												

Table 5.3: The Teacher's Opinions about the Error Types Common in Classroom

Pertaining to the error type produced the most by students, teachers claimed *intelligibility breakdowns* to come in the first position with the approval of *81.25%* of the sample between strong (25%) and simple agreement (56.25%). Regardless the low percentage of disagreement

<sup>&</sup>quot;We may be able to allow the learner's innate strategies to dictate our practice and determine our syllabus; we may learn to adapt ourselves to his needs rather than impose upon him our preconceptions of how he ought to learn, what he ought to learn and when he ought to learn it" (Corder, 1967)

(12.5%), the current findings could be respectively explained by learners' low oral proficiency and strategic competence at this phase of learning.

The second error type to be detected by teachers as the most commonly done by students was *Grammar inaccuracy*; respondents strongly confirmed this with a proportion of 18.75% besides 56.25% who opted for the option *agree*, resulting in a sum of 75% [See item 01; table 5.3]. This majority is evidence that students still lack the adequate syntactic basics allowing a correct use of all Grammar rules. They, accordingly, produce either *non-target output* or only *target-like introducer forms* which do not necessarily impede communication. Otherwise, these finding indicate students' reluctance towards repairing their inaccurate speech as a result of either unawareness or the teachers' neglect of repairing this type itself.

Approximate percentages were associated with *Phonology errors*. 50% of the sample agreed that this type is common in students' oral production added to 18.75% claiming absolute agreement. Nonetheless, 18.75 stated their disagreement and only 12.5 reported a neutral response [See item 02]. Interpretations to such results can be similar to those demonstrated about Grammar errors in which students' oral production is still under effects of the inter-language phase whereby they find it challenging to achieve a native-like pronunciation along with exhibiting enough attention towards its correctness.

Hesitant responses, however, were exposed concerning *lexical failures*. Teachers were alienated into two groups: Those approving on lexical errors to be spread in students' speech more than other types (43.75%) opposed to those denying this (50%), besides a single neutral view. The statistically small gap between agreement and disagreement entails that students earn the basic knowledge of lexis needed to overcome lexical breakdowns. Worthy of further pursuit in this regard is speculating the reasons behind acknowledging communicative failures to be characterizing students' speech the most, while describing lexis mismanagement as seldom as possible despite the complementary bond between the two. Wrong choices of

words generate intelligibility troubles repetitiously unless they are immediately self repaired; as such, this immediate self-repair would be the first feasible interpretation to the teachers' classification whereby lexical breakdowns will be less notable. Whereas, the second plausible explanation could be that Grammar and Phonology errors in students' oral production are likely to cause intelligibility lapses rather than lexical errors do.

5.1.2.2 Part 02: Causes of Error Occurrence in Oral Production

Causes inducing Errors	N	%
Lack of learners' awareness of their own errors.	04	25%
Poor adequate linguistic Competence.	06	37.5%
Lack of Confidence and self- esteem.	06	37.5%
Teachers' tendency to neglect errors' treatment	02	12.5
Effects of the Inter-language phase.	05	31.25%
A mixture of all or some of the above factors	09	56.25%

Table 5.4: The Teachers' Opinions about Causes of Errors

Investigating the causes behind spoken errors may provide extra data about unsuccessful uptake to CF and, therefore, may assist teachers in selecting the appropriate CF to their students' errors.

The factor claimed by teachers (12.5%) to be the least inducing students' errors is *their tendency to neglect error treatment*; this implies the high awareness of the consequential role of error treatment in teaching. In addition to a quarter of the sample affirming that errors are caused by *lack of learners' awareness of their errors* which is an evidence of the average extent of attention given by students to their own errors, and probably to attempt repairing them. On the other hand, *effects of the inter-language phase* were reported by 31.25% to generate erroneous speech. Variously, higher alike percentages were related to both *poor linguistic knowledge* and *Low self confidence and self-esteem* (37.5% for both); it is subsequently, conceivable that these teachers recognized both factors as provoking error instances as the most in considering the fact that all teaching and learning processes are circumscribed by pedagogical/psychological factors (learners' self-esteem and confidence as

an illustration ), besides students' linguistic competence that determines the production of errors as to refer to the level of students' language proficiency.

Nevertheless, the majority of 56.25 % accorded that there is no factor, from the factors mentioned earlier, having the potential to generate spoken errors in isolation, but rather all or some of them together specifying the combination of *insufficient linguistic competence*, *low rates of confidence and teachers' negligence* to have maximum influence. The latter perception is logically rather accepted because the learning process is akin to a complex setting of factors and other participants' impact.

Some teachers introduced other factors eliciting error in learners' oral production such as *lack* of practice outside classroom, the absence of communicative tasks evoking authentic learning, and essentially, learners' neglect to the learning process itself.

#### 5.1.3 Section Three: Self-Repair in Classroom

The teacher is the most proficient participant in classroom conversation. S/he can detect carry out a diagnosis to spoken errors and their self-repair if there is any. Accordingly, the present section aims at exploring the students' self-repair in the view of their teachers'.

5.1.3.1 Part 01: The Students' Proficiency Level and Oral Performance

Teachers' Rating	Ve adva	ery nced	Adv	anced	Av	erage	E	Basic	Very	y basic	То	tal
Statements	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Students' level in oral activities (Oral skills)	00	0	00	0	05	31.25	08	50	03	18.75	16	100
Students' efforts put in oral classrooms	00	0	01	6.25	10	62.5	05	31.25	00	0	16	100
Students' role in oral error treatment	00	0	00	0	02	12.5	08	50	06	37.5	16	100
The extent to which students self repair their own oral errors	00	0	00	0	02	12.5	06	37.5	08	50	16	100

Table 5.5: The Teachers' Attitudes towards their Students' Oral Proficincy and Willingness to Self Repair

The purpose of this part is to investigate students' level of oral proficiency and the extents to which they deploy it in oral activities, and thereby, the intensity of S.R besides their involvement in error treatment.

According to teachers, students show fair levels of language proficiency to monitor oral tasks and speech as well. 62.5% of the sample stated average extents of performance in oral tasks, in addition to a solo response claiming advanced quality of efforts and attention given to oral classes whereas 31.25% chose to describe their students' oral performance as basic only [See item 02, table 5.5]. The latter percentage can be explained by three factors: The first might be an echo for a weak strategic competence and language proficiency to participate effectively in oral classes which was confirmed via results obtained from item 01. The second inhibiting cause is possibly related to students' lack of perseverance. Whilst the third could be complementary to psychological factors, one of which is poor self-esteem and confidence. However, the percentage of regarding satisfactory amounts of participation is, respectively, associated with finding observed in teachers' evaluation to students' level of oral proficiency, in which a simple majority of teachers (50%) admitted their students basic competence in oral skills, added to a proportion of 18.75% who insisted on describing this competence by very basic which can be explained by the early stages of acquisition or the poor exertion students put in learning EFL. Interestingly, 31.25% decided upon an average level of students' oral proficiency [See item 01] which correlates to the satisfactory amounts of performance in orall classes as demonstrated in item 02.

Paving the way for probing students' contribution in error treatment, particularly SR, the previous finding can be pre-interpretations of results obtained from items 03 and 04. While only 12.5% reported an average students' commitment to self repair their spoken failures, statistically approximate responses were detected to characterize students' engagement in error treatment, as a whole, as *basic* to *very basic*: over one third 1/3 of the sample (37.5%)

put up with *fair / basic* amounts of self monitoring erroneous speech by students, and further unappreciated was the approval of 50% on the fact that students *barely* self repair their flawed production [See item 04]. Besides to a frustrating percentage of 37.5% who defined their students' cooperation in solving spoken troubles as *poor* and *very basic*, added to a proportion of 50% stating fair assistance of students in repair work [See item 03] whereby they possibly react to the teacher's interference and show an uptake to the CF afforded . *It is, subsequently, significant to link this inhibition to low rates of language proficiency and linguistic competence acknowledged earlier*. These findings, though, are to be regarded with caution for their feasibility.

## 5.1.3.2 Part 02: Students' Attitudes and Preferences of Self Repair

This part was designed to include the main four questions in one's mind when it is about inquiring students' repair behaviour: Are they constantly aware of their own spoken errors? And if so, do they engage in self repair, or at least the whole process of treatment? What type of error and how do they prefer to repair? As such, this part supplies answers regarding teachers' perception whereby the teachers' response towards each question will be included in a separate table incorporating different statements.

Question 01: Are your Students Aware of their Spoken Errors and Error Treatment?

Teachers' Rating	Alwa	Always		Often		etimes	Rai	rely	Neve	r	Tot	al
Statement	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
They are not aware of	03	18.75	08	50	05	31.25	00	0	00	0	16	100
their oral errors												
They neglect	02	12.5	04	25	07	43.75	03	18.75	00	0	16	100
correcting their errors though they are aware	_	12.5	04	25	07	43.75	03	10.75	00	U	10	100
of them												

Table 5.6: The Teachers' Opinions about the Students' Awareness towards Spoken Failures

Relatively accurate findings disclosed students' unawareness about their speech breakdowns. Half of the sample decided that their students are unaware or unconscious of their flawed production *often times*, added to a percentage of 18.75% who went further in

denying minimum extents of awareness by pointing out *always* as a response to the statement [ see item 01]. These high percentages are indicators of poor linguistic competence which allows the recognition of errors whenever they occur. They do not, thought, entail lack of perseverance towards repairing those errors once being spotted either by self or others' identification. The evidence for this came by the nearly average degrees of teachers' approval that their students are *always* (12.5%) or *often* (25%) unconscious of how valuable it would be to correct their errors as long as being recognized [ See item 02]. Subsequently, students reflect upon their relatively fair linguistic knowledge by being unaware of their erroneous output, yet positively respond with repair attempts if they are assisted by an elicitation from another participant.

Moreover, while almost one third of the sample acknowledged *occasional* students' awareness of a non-target output occurrence [See item 01], which is an approval that some students earn either an adequate language competence to extract their spoken errors or, equally probable, an elevated eagerness for learning which activates extra efforts to behold troubled utterances despite little competence. The latter explanation was affirmed again by the teachers' responses with *sometimes* (43.75%) and *rarely* (18.75%) to statement 02, expressing their caution towards announcing students' neglect of error treatment if they attain sufficient aid from other participants to achieve autonomous internalization of the repair.

### Question 02: Do your Students Engage in Repair Work?

To probe the intensity of students' S.R and their cooperation to overcome spoken troubles, teachers, as experts in face-to face continual interaction, should be questioned. Therefore, the informants were provided with four statements to discover students' attitudes towards repair work; initiation and completion, or collaboration with other participants.

Teachers' Rating	Al	ways	0	ften	Som	etimes	R	arely	No	ever	To	otal
Statements	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
They take the leading role	00	0	02	12.5	02	12.5	10	62.5	02	12.5	16	100
in error treatment												
They initiate repair works	00	0	04	25	02	12.5	09	56.25	02	12.5	16	100
but do not complete them												
They complete repair												
works if only initiated by	02	12.5	03	18.75	10	62.5	01	6.25	00	0	16	100
another participant												
They wait for the	07	43.75	07	43.75	03	18.75	00	0	00	0	16	100
teacher's interference												
They cooperate with their	00	0	01	6.25	06	37.5	09	56.25	00	0	16	100
peers in repair work												

Table 5.7: The Teachers' Attitudes towards their Students' Contribution in Repair Work

Accurate findings exposed very low rates of S.R as perceived by the informants of the sample. They confirmed that their students self repair their non-target output on *rare occasions* (62.5%) and or even *at no time* (12.5%), whereas, the rest of teachers acknowledged medium extents of S.R with statistically equal percentages for both options *sometimes* and *often* (12.5% for each).

Further results went approximately along with the former observation; teachers stated their students' reluctance to involve in error treatment through, at least, initiating the repair work, whereby a slight majority of 56.25% denied their students' self-initiation, specifying *rarely* as a response to the question, added to 12.5% who claimed they observed this repair behaviour *not in any way* (which is very probable, based on previous research: Aouiche, 2011). On the other hand, the same amounts reported average degrees of S.R, providing alike examination about students' self initiation [See item 02]. Theories could be deployed to interpret such findings are complementary to previous ones revealed about students' poor awareness of their troubled utterances on one hand, on the other hand, they might well lack the efficient *strategic competence* and *oral proficiency* to accomplish S.R or even initiate it regardless the existence of enough *linguistic competence* or not. The other theory though, vibrant and equality persuasive, is that inhibition of S.R and repair-initiation, as well, could be generated from the teachers' corrective feedback itself whereby they, sometimes, provide immediate CF or

explicit correction which both can impede future SR (Explicit correction is generally known to withhold uptake, and hereby, future S.R, see Chapter 3: Corrective feedback effectiveness).

Nonetheless, the informants were in union that students complete repair work previously initiated by another participant [See item 03]. This indicates again lack of adequate competence rather than awareness: though the percentages of optimal approval on such statement did not surpass one third (1/3) of the sample, there was an appreciable proportion admitting that *other initiation-self repair* occurs *sometimes* only.

Interrogating teachers' measurement of their students' preferences to depend on other participants' aid in order to overcome their own failures is an alternative tool to uncover their repair preferences and the intensity of autonomous repair. Consequential results were akin to teachers' accordance about their students' tendency of demanding their assistance during repair work, either to initiate or complete, whereby a decisive majority of 87.5% - distributed equally between always and often- affirmed this tendency. Whereas, 3 teachers only asserted that they *occasionally* perceive students' requests for assistance while attempting to manage erroneous utterances [See item 04]. Conceivable interpretations to such findings could be seemingly related to the students' unawareness. They can be, also, resulted from three feasible factors, or rather their combination: One of which is what we labelled earlier as poor linguistic competence, which is a possible trigger to the second factor students' belief that the teacher is the proficient participant whom they potentially rely on to accomplish a successful error treatment, and it is noteworthy here to state the low rates of self esteem and confidence driven by such belief. The third explanation, though, could be generated from an inherited reliance on the teachers who continuously provide CF ( This will be dealt with in the forthcoming section of the questionnaire whereby the teachers' preferences of CF will be investigated).

Results where utterly different when the respondents implemented their diagnosis to students'-peers' collaboration in repair work: The teachers disclosed an *occasional* students' reliance on peers' aid with a proportion of 37.5% and went further in specifying those 'occasions' via responding by *rarely* (56.25%). This implies consequential evidence that students accept their peers' interference in very exclusive situations, which might conceivably relate to the high degrees of irritation and low self-esteem provoked by the engagement of an alike-proficient participant. There was, however, an anomalous response, 6.25%, that stated a *frequent* students' tendency to demand assistance in repair from other participants than the teacher. These learners usually owe a high motivation to involve in collaborative learning besides satisfactory amounts of self-esteem.

### Question 03: What do your Students Repair; Form or Content?

To probe this question is to answer on one of the main questions of this research, what do students repair? This is respectively in accordance with the teachers' perceptions.

Teachers' Rating	Alv	Always		ften	Somet	imes	Ra	rely	Ne	ver	To	otal
Students' Behaviour	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
They tend to self repair form-												
based errors only( Especially	02	12.5	08	50	04	25	02	12.5	00	0	16	100
Grammar errors)												
They tend to self monitor their												
communicative breakdowns	00	0	02	12.5	06	37.5	06	37.5	02	12.5	16	100
only												

Table 5.8: The Teachers' Perception about Error Types' Receiving more Self-Repair

Seemingly conflicting, preferences of the teachers and the students were implied within findings in this part. The teachers described what they, probably, prefer to correct less to have a higher interest of repair by students (Form errors), while what was hoped to be more repaired was being characterized by the least amounts of students' preferences namely intelligibility failures.

Findings exposed the students' high preference to handle their form inaccuracy (Grammar, phonology and lexis). According to subjects of the sample, students attend for *constant* 

(12.5%) and *repetitious* (50%) self-repair of non-target forms more than intelligibility breakdowns whereby 37.5 of the sample teachers claimed that students *barely* self repair communicative failures besides 12.5% who asserted that they so do *at no time*. Nonetheless, degrees of awareness of appropriating intelligibility were roughly shown in responses by *sometimes* (37.5%) and *oftentimes* with merely 12.5%; correspondingly, teachers are implying the fact that students are, to some extent, paying attention to comprehensibility even in exclusive situations and are affected by the teacher's CF whenever s/he elicits the situation exclusivity in the learner's attention by deciding on the seriousness of the intelligible trouble produced.

It is noteworthy to associate much of the students' repair behaviour to their teachers' CF and preferences. However they, sometimes, build their learning hypotheses along the interlanguage continuum away from teachers' perspective; findings of this question echoed this theory, in which students still endeavour form correctness contrary to teachers' preference to approach communicative failures as a response to the shift from *form-based* towards *content-based instruction*.

Interestingly, teachers' observation in the question under inquiry acknowledged some anticipation about students' willingness to manage form errors [See item 01, table 5.8]; they stated an *at intervals- focus* on form correctibility (25%) besides 12.5% claiming *seldom* emphasis. This might be a reflection to go along with the teachers' convention of authorizing *intelligibility management*. These findings would be confirmed in the forthcoming section of this questionnaire.

## Question 04: How do your Students Self Repair? (Paraphrasing or Repetition)

This question was set to identify the students' strategies used to engage in error treatment as regard to the teachers' perspective. Schegloff et.al classification of self-repair strategies

(1977) was opted for: *self initiation plus insertion*, which we referred to as direct *paraphrasing* and *repetition*.

Teachers' Rating	Alw	ays	C	Often	Som	etimes	R	arely	Ne	ver	T	otal
Students' Behaviour	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
They repeat the error more than once before correcting it.	04	25	09	56.25	03	18.75	00	0	00	0	16	100
They paraphrase the erroneous sentence without any repetition.	00	0	03	18.75	08	50	05	31.25	00	0	16	100

Table 5.9: The Teachers' Perception about Students' Self -Repair Strategies

Accurate findings signified students' dependency on *repetition*, either full or partial, more than paraphrasing to repair their spoken errors. Based on the teachers' observation, students *invariably* (25%) and *frequently* (56.25%) repeat the non-target output to attain a target-like output [See item 01], while they rely less regularly on paraphrasing to achieve appropriateness of speech: 50% decided upon sometimes to describe the frequency of students' application to this strategy, added to a percentage of 31.25% denying any strong attitude of using it by selecting *rarely* as a response [See item 02].

These findings can be feasibly interpreted by the low rates of both language proficiency and strategic competence discussed earlier in this section. Subsequently, students feel rather comfortable to utilize *repetitions* in a more efficient manner than paraphrasing because the latter requires extra proficiency, while the former provides a safety gap of time to internalize the ongoing repair work and recall the target form.

Nevertheless, hardly average degrees of proficiency were shown in some teachers' responses. 18.75% reported that their students *often* rely on paraphrasing which reflects the elevated competence to overcome a troubled utterance without repetition, in addition to an equal proportion stating that their students *occasionally* repeat an error during SR which, also, signifies further transfer into *paraphrasing*.

#### 5.1.4 Section Four: Attitudes and Preferences of Corrective Feedback

The whole section was devoted to answer the main questions of this research that are related to corrective feedback: Whether teachers provide CF to their students' failures or not, and if they do; when, what and how do they correct?

## 5.1.4.1 Part 01: Do you Provide Corrective Feedback?

The role of the teacher as the most proficient participant in classroom conversation can be revealed by the amounts of CF afforded and in which time. The aim behind this question, thus, is to probe teachers' preferences of **who** should deliver repair whenever a flawed output is produced by a student, and the extents to which they motivate students' SR attempts.

Degrees of Agreement		ongly gree	A	gree	Ne	utral	Dis	sagree		rongly isagree	То	tal
Statements	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Learners' oral errors should be corrected.	05	31.25	10	62.5	00	0	00	0	01	6.25	16	100
The teacher is the first responsible of error correction	03	18.75	08	50	01	6.25	03	18.75	01	6.25	16	100
Learners should repair their oral errors without teachers' interference.	00	0	04	25	01	6.25	08	50	03	18.75	16	100
Learners' self repair behaviour should be rewarded all the time	02	12.5	11	68.75	03	18.75	00	0	00	0	16	100
The teacher should cooperate with his students in repair work	05	31.25	11	68.75	00	0	00	0	00	0	16	100

Table 5.10: The Teachers' Attitudes towards Who Should Repair Errors

Subjects accorded on the significance of error repair with an optimal majority of **97.75%**, divided between strong (31.25%) and bare agreement (62.5%) [See item 01] which generates an approval on previous research in the field that gave substantial reliability to error correction (Russel & Spada 2006). Lyster. et.al (1999) further asserted: "A growing body of

classroom research provides evidence that corrective feedback is pragmatically feasibly, potentially effective, and in some cases, necessary" (cited in Shaffer, 2005).

Therefore, it is significant to approach students' errors with caution and adequate experience to authorize comfortable learning, as such, teachers are requested to adopt effective techniques of CF that stimulate language acquisition as well as learning in the view of the fact that some researchers in EFL were reluctant to admit the necessity of error correction relating that to its negative impact on learners (Truscott, 1999), and its elicitation to learning but not acquisition (Krashen and Terrill, 1983). In the same regard, there was only one teacher reporting his *strong disagreement* about the efficiency of error treatment which might mirror his *naturalistic* approaching to the process [See Chapter 2; **The effectiveness of error correction**].

It was respectively logical, based on their agreement about the inevitability of error treatment, that teachers went along with embracing the pillars of Lyster, Lightbown and Spada (1999) perspective: the teacher is the most responsible of error management [cited in Shiffer, 2005]; they, accordingly, affirmed this view by responding to item 02 with a consequential majority of 50% administering *often* as a reply, and 18.75% affirming that the burden of leading repair work is *invariably* theirs, while 18.75% chose to disregard this belief via simple disagreement and 6.25% with a strong disagreement. Seemingly unrelated, the latter percentages of disapproval are akin to those altering the assignment of repair work on the part of the student: The quarter of the teachers' sample showed their agreement that the student ought to engage in SR without their interference [See item 03]; and it is worth noting that this response implies students' commitment of SR either by an imposed responsibility or a permitted choice. In both cases, it is the teacher's inclination that decides the most comfortable for his / her students.

Interestingly unappreciated, the teachers reported considerable amounts of disregarding students' SR: Half of the sample disagreed on authorizing autonomous repair *without their intervention*, besides a proportion of 18.75% who went further by revealing a vigorous refusal to allow students' SR without any kind of guidance.

These results respectively have a twofold interpretation: The informants are either convinced that their students are unable to communicate a successful SR without their CF (this is supported by earlier findings linked to poor degrees of proficiency and, thereby, S.R itself), or are unconsciously willing to hinder students' impulse to commit SR attempts as regard to a pre-perception of their incapability to achieve that.

The teachers, however, were in accordance about the crucial support that rewarding can provide in eliciting SR and allowing alike behaviour in the future: 68.75% implied that rewarding students' SR is fruitful via selecting *agree* as a reply, while 12.5% insisted with appointing *strongly agree* [See item 04]. The former implication is akin to the spectrum of studies acknowledging the role of motivation in EFL (Lightbown & Spada 1993; Gardner et al, 2004.Cited in Bahous et al, 2011). Nonetheless, there was a relatively little response exposing reluctance towards providing rewarding SR whereby 18.75% of the sample appointed *sometimes*. These teachers might well accounted for the complexity of motivation as a learning trigger affected by a diversity of social and psychological factors.

### 5.1.4.2 Part 02: When do you Provide Corrective Feedback?

This question is a direct investigation of the teachers' preferences towards the suitable time to deliver corrective feedback for the students' spoken errors. Thereby, the three categories immediate, postponed and delayed CF were proposed. The latter was signified by CF "at the end of the task" and/or "at the end of the lesson/ session", while postponed was mainly identified by "CF at the end of the students' production/ sentences".

Teachers' agreement		ongly gree	Aş	gree	Ne	utral	Dis	agre e		ongly sagree	То	tal
Statements	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Learners oral errors should be immediately												
corrected – Even if it	01	6.25	02	12.5	00	0	08	50	05	31.25	16	100
interrupts the flow of talk-												
Teachers should provide a corrective feedback after the learner finishes the sentence containing the error	06	37.5	06	37.5	00	0	04	25	00	0	16	100
Providing corrective feedback should be done at the end of the current activity	03	18.75	10	62.5	02	12.5	01	6.25	00	0	16	100
Providing corrective feedback should be done at the end of the course- As a sum to all errors occurring in the lecture-	03	18.75	02	12.5	03	18.75	04	25	04	25	16	100

Table 5.11: The Teachers' Preferences of Immediate, Postponed and Delayed Corrective Feedback

Accurate preferences to administer a *delayed CF* at the end of the task were detected. 18.75% of the sample embraced the choice of *strong agreement* while the highest percentage of 62.5% decided upon *bare agreement*, contrary to an anomalous case (6.25%) responding by denial [See item 03]. Ranked as a second preference, *postponed CF* was spotted with statistically even percentages of vigorous and plain approval (37.5% for each), besides the quarter of the sample refusing the efficiency of CF being committed after the student finishes his/her non-target utterance[See item 02]. Furthermore, providing correction at the end of the lesson was the teachers' third choice with statistically serious denial; 18.75% claimed a *firm* readiness to adopt delayed CF at this stage of the course, added to a mere proportion of 12.5% claiming a *simple* agreement on that. It is significant, though, to expose a refusal of half of the sample to this far extent of delaying correction [See item 04]. Further noteworthy, is the very high degrees of the informants' hesitation conceded about assuming valuable uptake from students whenever being immediately corrected: 50% of the sample refused this inclination, in addition to 31.25% who thoroughly disregarded this corrective behaviour, opposed by merely

18.75 who disclosed a challenging willingness to assist their students with instantaneous CF. [See item 01].

The current findings have correlation with the teachers' convention to aim at fluency rather than accuracy, and content driven rather than form driven teacher-learner interaction; in which research about immediate Vs delayed CF afforded evidence that instant correction is correlated with stimulating the acquisition of linguistic forms, while triggering fluency and communicability is well prompted via delayed, or postponed, CF (Rahimi & Vahid Dastjerdi, 2012). It is therefore, by means of fluency focus, the respondents of the sample implied an eagerness to detain interruption to their students' oral production preserving fluency as defined by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005): "The capacity to produce speech at normal rate and without interruption".

However, it is significant to draw attention to the annotation about the observed statistical gaps between delayed feedback at the end of the task and at the end of the current course: Teachers revealed a superior impulse for the former while showing an depreciation of 50% towards the latter. This could be driven by the goal of stimulating the acquisition of the target-like input in relatively closer timing to the troubled output of the student; for that s/he is still keeping the linguistic and psychological settings of his/ her non-target utterance.

A further ground for such interpretation is the teachers' revelation of their willingness to yield CF at a rather closer pace: *postponed to the ending of the student's current production* which preserves the communicative flow without damaging the error treatment itself.

## 5.1.4.3 Part 03: Which Error Type do you Repair?

This part, as described earlier in Chapter 04, aimed at inquiring the teachers' attitudes towards errors types that should be corrected and qualities should be regarded when authorizing CF.

#### 5.1.4.3.1 Question 01: Do you Repair Grammar, Phonology or Lexical Errors?

Inquiring teachers' inclination to endeavour a specific type of linguistic errors over another is the aim behind this question.

Teachers' Rating	A	lways	Usu	ally	Som	etimes	Rai	rely	Nev	er	To	tal
Statements	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
When a Grammar	03	18.75	01	6.25	06	37.5	06	37.5	00	0	16	100
error occurs												
When Phonology and												
Pronunciation errors	03	18.75	08	50	05	31.25	00	0	00	0	16	100
are produced.												
When there is a	02	12.5	08	50	06	37.5	00	0	00	0	16	100
Lexical failure												

Table 5.12: The Teachers' Attitudes towards Error Types to be Repaired

Approximate results were spotted as regard to Phonology-induced and lexical errors. 50% of the respondents tend to approach Pronunciation and intonation with the same amounts of *frequent* interest towards students' wrong choice of lexis.Nonetheless, and roughly distinguished, the difference between the percentages of constant CF to both types was detected whereby 12.5 of the sample admitted they *always* correct lexical choices, while a slightly higher percentage of 18.75% opted for the same response with phonological errors [See items 02 and 03]. Almost even proportions of the sample appointed *sometimes* to all error types which reveals an average *situation-specific tendency* to supply CF to these types in accordance with the gravity or the frequency of the error itself, or even with each teacher's perspective about CF.

Findings are respectively understandable pertaining to *lexis mismanagement*. The easiness associated with pinpointing the not-target item then providing its target-like alternative only is the rationale behind these results. However, it is fundamentally questionable to expose alike attitudes towards Phonology lapses: adhering repetitious correction of students' mispronunciation or abnormal intonation may, in most cases, withdraw their fluency and their willingness to speak again. Lee (1990) asserts that "Correction of students' phonological errors at an advanced level and particularly with mature learners may risk affront to

personal dignity and perhaps even to cultural and national identity" (p: 05). The teachers, though, could have been referring to their personal experience in *face-to face interaction* where students ask for further correction/checks to their pronunciation beneficial to enhancing a native-like pronunciation.

Grammar inaccuracy, on the other hand, was claimed to be the least attended by the subjects of the sample: Merely 18.75% disclosed their *perpetual* preference to yield correction to students' inaccurate output. Besides a single response who claimed an *oftentimes* provision of CF to Grammar errors. Moreover, 37.5% of the sample confirmed their assumption that prompting accuracy is a matter of *occasional* decisions of interference based on the teacher's insight regarding its impact on the learner's acquisition and the communicability of his /her non-target utterance. An equal proportion, however, disregarded Grammar correctness via replying with *rarely* [See item 01].

It is utterly persuasive that teachers, acknowledging low rates of interest towards assisting students' with CF to achieve accuracy, are setting firm inclination to authorize the shift from *form-based* towards *content based instruction*, as such they redirect their students' awareness to target fluency over accuracy.

#### 5.1.4.3.2 Question 02: Do you Repair Intelligibility or Common Failures?

As discussed previously in chapter 01, early definitions of *intelligibility errors* described them as *global* breakdowns with influential impact on the communicability of learners' spoken messages (Burt& Kiparski, 1972). Thereby, weighty attention should be assumed from both teachers and learners to repair incomprehensibility which may generate recurrent challenging situations for teachers.

Teachers' Rating	Alv	vays	Us	sually	Som	etimes	Rar	ely	No	ever	T	otal
Situations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
When an error hinders the mutual understanding and comprehension [Intelligibility]	12	57	03	18.75	01	6.25	00	0	00	0	16	100
When Less serious errors frequently occur [Common Errors]	00	0	02	12.5	09	56.25	04	25	01	6.25	16	100

Table 5.13: The Teachers' Attitudes towards Intelligibility and Common Error's Repair

The informants of the sample, adopting the purposefulness of preserving meaning over form, afforded accurate responses of consistent and recurrent application of CF to intelligible output: 93.75% statistically distributed between *always* and *often* acknowledged their preference to handle comprehensibility troubles. Correlating this finding to CF on accuracy errors, teachers are seemingly devoting much perseverance to communicability rather than grammatical correctness which is conjointly triggered by fluency purposes.

Nonetheless, utterly distinguished responses were associated with authorizing CF to common errors; those emerging less or more repetitiously, yet do not damage the intended communicability. It is, thereby, the unnoticeable effect of these failures on communication that pushes teachers to overlook their correction unless they are more apparent in the student's speech, spotted by more proficient peers and/or, possibly, repaired by the student him/herself (ibid). The respondents reluctantly disregarded preferences of CF to common errors through the decision of 56, 25% upon *sometimes*. Besides the quarter (1/4) of the sample acknowledging the exclusivity of situations when they take part in error treatment of this type, in addition to an anomalous response thoroughly denying any preference towards providing CF for this type. This is probably to allow self-monitoring or peers' interference in these situations. 12.5%, however, confirmed their *oftentimes-attitude* to provide CF on common errors; this is likely driven by an insisting corrective behaviour despite the nature and the seriousness of the troubled output [See item 02].

## 5.1.4.3.3 Question 03: Do you Construct your Corrective Feedback Regarding the Students' Confidence?

It was believed in early studies about error treatment that consistent or even repetitious corrective feedback has a disrupting echo on the learner's inter language system and his inner willingness to contribute in a repair work or in oral tasks altogether. Krashen and Terrel (1983) stated that over correcting learners, even those who owe a high self-esteem, could negatively affect the learner's future involvement in interaction. It was, though, opposed by recent research that learners, more or less confident, may well expect CF over their flawed production (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, 2007). Table 5.14 demonstrates the respondents' views about referring to the students' confidence when yielding a CF.

Teacher's Rating	Al	lways	Us	sually	Som	etimes	Ra	rely	Ne	ver	To	otal
Situations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
When a confident	03	18.75	03	18.75	07	43.75	03	18.75	00	0	16	100
learner errs.												
Te 41	00	0	05	21.25	07	42.55	02	10.55	0.1	( ) =	1.0	100
If the error is made by	00	0	05	31.25	07	43.75	03	18.75	01	6.25	16	100
a less confident												
learner.												
Only after adapting	02	12.5	04	25	07	43.75	01	6.25	02	12.5	16	100
the feedback to												
individual differences												

Table 5.14: Adapting Corrective Feedback along with the Students' Self-Confidence

In accordance with the previous view, which is respectively a plausible interpretation to the current findings, teachers showed uncertain responses to whether they rely on students' self-confidence whenever assisting them with corrective input [Items 01 and 02]. The relatively highest percentages were expressed with *sometimes* (43, 75% in both items); as such, teachers were in agreement that whether the trouble source maker is a more or a less confident participant, their decision to afford a CF is complementary to other factors than self confidence itself. Nearly even percentages of ignoring dissimilarities in students' confidence during CF were identified through responses by *rarely* and *never*: Seldom correction was reported to be with equal amounts for both confident and less confident students (18, 75%),

whilst merely one teacher indicated s/he corrects less confident learners *at no time*. On the other side of the approval continuum, 37.5% of the sample exhibited their impulse, equally between always and often, to be comfortable to interrupt confident students producing flawed utterances, opposed to 31.25% who implied less inclination towards those with poor self-confidence via replying with only *often*.

Interestingly, results uncovered the teachers' reluctance when being asked whether they attend for an adaptive approach to address individual psychological distinctness among students [See item 03].

## 5.1.4.3.4 Question 04: Do you Trigger Previous or New Linguistic Knowledge When you Repair?

This question was opted for as personal enthusiasm to inquire teachers' readiness of incorporating new language concepts to be acquired simultaneously within a repair work of an erroneous track of a learnt form.

Teachers' Rating	A	lways	Us	sually	Som	etimes	Ra	rely	Ne	ver	T	otal
Situations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
When the error												
contradicts the already	08	50	07	43.75	00	0	01	6.25	00	0	16	100
learnt knowledge.												
If the error treatment												
introduces a new	03	18.75	06	37.5	02	12.5	00	0	00	0	16	100
linguistic knowledge to												
the learner.												

Table 5.15: Adapting Corrective Feedback along with New Linguistic Knowledge

Findings were substantially alike; 50% of the sample was extensively interested to set a twofold goal for their CF: To endeavour errors generated from a partial acquisition of previously learnt aspects simultaneously with prompting new linguistic knowledge akin to the non-target output itself with little or much association. Furthermore, teachers revealed slightly distinguished proportions to express less extensive attitude towards the two options via appointing *often* as a reply. These results are of consequential evidence that teachers of our department respectively earn flexible behaviour in teaching.

## 5.1.4.4 Part 03: How do you Repair?

The purposefulness of this part is to inquire the teachers' preferable strategies to handle the students' spoken failures via appointing the most appropriate one to deal with a tense misuse [Simple past].

Teachers' Rating		ery ective	Eff	ective	Ne	utral	Ine	ffectiv e		ery fective	T	otal
CF Techniques	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
"Pardon!" or "Can you say that again?" (Clarification Requests)	02	12.5	09	56.25	00	0	05	31.25	00	0	16	100
"I sleep"? (Repetition: With a raised tone/Pitch)	09	56.25	06	37.5	01	6.25	00	0	00	0	16	100
You slept early?! Were you tired? (Recast: Implicit	07	43.75	05	31.25	00	0	04	25	00	0	16	100
correction without pointing the error)												
"Yesterday, I" (Elicitation: Stimulating Self Repair)	08	50	06	37.5	00	0	02	12.5	00	0	16	100
"What tense do we use when saying <u>yesterday?"</u> ( Meta-linguistic Clue)	03	18.75	05	31.25	02	12.5	05	31.25	00	0	16	100
"Slept not sleep" (Explicit Correction)	00	0	05	31.25	01	6.25	08	50	02	12.5	16	100
"Sleep is the present simple, use the past tense: Slept"  (Explicit Correction with meta-linguistic explanation)	02	12.5	06	37.5	00	0	02	12.5	06	37.5	16	100

Table 5.16: The Teachers' Preferences towards Corrective Feedback Strategies

Teachers used to believe, and still being the case for some, that CF discourages self-repair SR, however Lyster and Ranta (2007) proved the likeliness of all CF types to maintain the flow of communication regarding the learner's expectation of the interference. It is difficult, yet, to thoroughly confirm the effectiveness of one type over another for the complexity of CF settings (The teacher's teaching method and preferences besides the learner's perceptions about CF along with his/ her psychological state and proficiency level). Regardless this view,

the informants in this questionnaire were asked to expose their preferences of authorizing certain CF on the basic of their feasibility in the remedy of spoken errors.

Consequential findings denoted teachers' preferences to contribute *prompts* rather than *reformulations* and rely on *implicit* over *explicit* CF: The optimal percentages of appreciation (93.75%) were associated with *repetition* as an implicit prompt to correct the targeted error, approving on its strong effectiveness (56.25%) and simple effectiveness (37.5%). Followed by *elicitation*, the respondents implied an approximate appreciation via appointing very effective (50%) in stimulating probable uptake; speculation about this response can be linked to preferences of utilizing other CF types than elicitation.

Moreover, teachers ranked *recasts*, as implicit reformulations, to be relatively less effective via the accordance of 75% of the sample, distributed between thorough and bare appreciation [ See item 03 ], besides the claim of 25% about the *feebleness* of recasts to generate the desirable uptake via appointing *ineffective*. *Clarification requests* were detected to be the teachers' fourth preference; 50% confirmed that deploying this technique would feasibly fulfil the aim behind CF, added to a proportion of 12.5% only affording further evidence of the correctibility that can be driven whenever applying simple requests to prompt self-repair, 31.25%, though, stated the inefficiency of this type [See item 01]. Furthermore, percentages revealed lower degrees, still valuable, of interest towards *meta-linguistic clues* to assist the trouble source student overcoming his/ her non-target utterance: 50% of the sample was divides between the *extensive inevitability* of this type (18.75%) and its *adequate effectiveness* (31.25%), whilst a proportion of 37.5% chose to deny the utility of this strategy in stimulating learning of the target alternative of the spoken failure. Besides another proportion of just 12.5% reporting neutral attitude to deploy meta-linguistic clueing.

Nevertheless, reluctant preferences were revealed in responses towards the inadequacy of explicit reformulations: *Explicit correction* received the least amounts of interest by

teachers shown mainly via 50% of the sample claiming its ineffectiveness besides 12.5% affirming its zero-productivity impact, antagonistic to an average proportion of 31.25% defending the utility of direct provision of corrected output [See item 06]. Interestingly hesitant responses were expressed by the statistical balance between proponents and opponents of the advantageousness resulted from deploying *explicit correction with explanation* [See item 07].

The latest findings persuasively convey the teachers' inclination to disregard *explicit reformulations* whether with or without meta-linguistic references. It is well recognized that applying for explicitness in providing ready substitutions to the learner's spoken lapses stimulates no long-term acquisition or uptake but rather immediate learning of the correct form which may fade away along the inter-language continuum. An indication of poor uptake induced from *explicit correction* was established by Sanz and Morgan (2004)

Further evidence of addressing implicitness by the informants is the respectively lower intensity of appointing *meta-linguistic clueing* despite its prompting nature in the view of the explicit implication inherited in such Feedback as in *« what tense do we use with yesterday? »* [See the example illustrated in table 5.16]. This, to some extents, impedes higher awareness of the ongoing repair work because the student is almost provided with the correct form, that is to say, there is no extensive *«stretching of the linguistic resources »* as described by Long (1991, Cited in McDonough 2005). Such stretching is usually stimulated by more implicit prompts as *elicitation*, *repetition* and *clarification requests* whereby the learner utilizes extra proficiency to internalize his/her non-target like utterance.

In accordance with the latter annotation, and as observed to be prevailing the teachers' preferences towards the applicability of CF, implicit prompts had their thorough interest; accurately related to studies supporting the fundamental language development led by authorizing more indirect error treatment through the use of *elicitations* and *clarification* 

*requests* (Mcket & Philip,1998). Then with further inclination of preferring *recasts* as implicit reformulations that conserve time (Yoshida, 2008).

The rationale behind this impulse to utilize prompts (especially *repetitions*, 93.75%, and/ or elicitations, 87.5%) compared to recasts (75%) as reformulations of "an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way" (Brown, 2007) is conceivable. The two former types have potential usefulness in activating the students' awareness of the whole setting of his/ her flawed utterance then eliciting him/ her to draw on his /her own linguistic resources. Previous research (eg: Grass, 2003; Long, 1996; Mackey, in press, Pica, 1994. Cited in McDonough 2005 ) asserted that generating a modified output by the trouble source maker via *prompting* him/ her to operationalize his /her damaged speech is likely to trigger language acquisition and development. Recasts, despite their highest applicability amongst teachers even out of the classroom worldwide besides their unobtrusive impact on the communicative flow, are less effective in prompting SR due to the critical inhibition driven by indirectly administering the correct alternative to the student's goof which, in most cases, withholds his/her ability to realize whether an error has been produced in the first place, and if she / he does, only learning of the target-like form would occur but not acquisition. This makes recast as a mere "echo" as labelled by Lyster and Ranta (2007) which generates the student's approval with some incorporation of the teacher's input without sometimes noticing modifications.

As regard to the variant agreement about the utility of the three implicit prompts (clarification request, repetition and elicitation) which was observed in the statistical gaps between responses towards each of them, the researcher decided to refer to the localization of the non-target output; in other words the teacher's tendency to, intentionally, imply the accurate location of the error to be consequently recognized by the student. It is, thereby, plausible that clarification requests were less permeable as a preference by the teachers

compared to both *elicitation* and *repetition*, whereby the former type entails a larger area of ambiguity for the student: Expressions like "pardon", "can you repeat" or "I cannot understand" are likely to confuse the student's attention about his/ her teacher's corrective intentions. This relates mainly to what Pinker (1989) discussed as "the problem of blame assignment" reporting that when the negative evidence does not appoint the troubled item within the student's utterance, it would be harder for him/her to extract it for repair purposes. It is well approved, however, that learners potentially reach SR attempts after teachers' repetition of the exact error or focus on the closest item to it within the sentence in order to elicit related rules of its correct use.

Subsequently, an assumption about the superiority of extents to which the teachers accorded about the effectiveness of *repetitions* should be established. It is possibly due to the convention among teachers, as well as researchers, that CF would rather stimulate SR and learner's uptake if the teacher reduces the troubled utterance into the minimum indication of the error with stress or tone emphasis (Chaudron, 1977, 78, 79)

## 5.1.5 Section Five: Usefulness of Corrective Feedback

This section was devoted to probe the teachers' attitudes towards the efficiency of CF and the relevance achieved between their most preferred type and uptake intensity expected, in addition to a simple illustration to their opinions and recommendations about the uptake hindering factors and SR stimuli.

# 5.1.5.2 Question 01: Which Corrective Feedback Strategy Allows Higher Extents of Uptake, and Why?

It is notable that this question is complementary to findings related to the investigation about the applicability of CF strategies in the previous section, what characterizes this question yet is that results will be interpreted by the respondents' opinions themselves.

Teachers' Estmations	N	%
CF Strategies		
Repetition	5	31.25
Recast	2	12.5
Elicitation	5	31.25
Meta-linguistic Clues	1	6.25
Explicit Correction+Explanation	1	6.25
All/Some of the Strategies	2	12.5
Total	16	100

Table 5.17: Estimations of Uptake Generated from Corrective Feedback Strategies

The teachers confirmed their preferences revealed in the previous section; they attributed expected higher uptake to the application of both *repetition* and *elicitation* with an approval of 31.25% for each. As such, they interpreted their choice by seemingly heterogeneous, yet complementary, factors in the view of the learning process: They confirmed that *repetitions* elicit SR through evoking the student's awareness of his/ her own errors and, therefore, stimulates the willingness to achieve more language proficiency. This can authorize future self recognition of errors and autonomous internalization to be more permeable. The teachers insisted, as well, on the enduring echo of *repetition* on both *uptake* and *self-repair* by means of triggering self-confidence to take part in error treatment. On the other hand, the informants rationalized the utility of *elicitation* by approaching the same learning aspects namely *Awareness*, *autonomous operationalization* of errors then *automaticity of SR* and uptake which was expressed by one teacher as "*elicitation enhances the student's memorization of the linguistic points*". They refereed also to the feasibility of elicitation in ameliorating students' responsibility towards the whole process of learning.

**Recasts** were claimed to be less generators of uptake with the agreement of only 12.5%. The respondents here reported the positive impact driven by this type on preserving the students' self- esteem during error management which motivates him/ her to accomplish S.R and probably attain uptake.

Nonetheless, *meta-linguistic clueing* and *explicit correction with explanation* were the least acknowledged to reinforce uptake (Each of which had the approval of 01 teacher). The

teachers provided little explanation to their choices: Those agreeing on *meta-linguistic clues* inferred to its potential to provoke rehearsing the internalized rules about the error, whilst the proponents of *explicit correction*, which is entailed by linguistic information, correlated successful uptake generated exclusivity from such explanation itself whereby yielding adequate data can make things clear for the learner.

Interestingly, a proportion of **12.5%** indicated that drawing on the diversity of CF types altogether is the most effective method to improve students' uptake. These teachers speculated that utilizing them inter-reliantly and simultaneously with the students' needs would be respectively productive.

#### 5.1.5.3 Question 02: Do you Apply the Strategy you have Appointed?

It is important to question the teacher's application of the CF types claimed to be effective to reveal whether they built those estimations on an authentic basis or just speculated this effectiveness without empirical evidence. The aim behind this question, thus, is to ascertain whether teachers are fulfilling their preferences in classroom or not, if they are not, it is by means of extrinsic circumstances that these preferences are detained.

Option	N	%
Yes	15	93.75
No	01	6.25
Total	16	100

Table 5.18: Extents of Utilizing Corrective Feedback Strategies Selected

Results revealed consequential application of teachers to their inclinations during error treatment with the approval of 93.75%. The teachers' accessibility to their preference could pertain to their invariable attitudes towards error treatment, and probably, regardless their students' preferences towards CF (This will be investigated in the analysis of the students' questionnaire and the observation). A thoroughly insignificant percentage of 6.25%, nevertheless, affirmed s/ he is not deploying what he already identified as the best trigger of uptake. It is vital to expose the CF type that was selected by this teacher aiming at diagnosing probable reasons impeding its applicability: By opting for *meta-linguistic clues*, this teacher

may confront students' reluctance to positively react to his/ her intended goals whereby they may face troubles detecting the error; this could have affected the teacher's decision to utilise this CF strategy.

## 5.1.5.4 Question 03: How would you Rate the Importance of Corrective Feedback in Improving your Students' Oral Proficiency?

The reliability of oral corrective feedback has been discussed along chapter 03 of the present study; it is vital, though, to question the teachers' perseverance towards it.

Option	N	%
Extreme Importance	04	25
High Importance	10	62.5
Average Importance	01	6.25
Poor Importance	00	0
No Importance	01	6.25

Table 5.19: The Teachers' Perceptions about Corrective Feedback Importance in the Improvement of Oral Performance

A substantial proportion (62.5%) confirmed the trustworthiness of CF to enhance the students' oral performance via selecting *highly important*, besides the quarter of the sample asserting its *extreme significance*. The agreement on its average value in promoting better oral fulfilment was expressed in one view only, in addition to another anomalous response denying any influence of CF on students' learning and proficiency, which is worthy of further pursuit in other research. The respondents' consensus about the utility of CF in enhancing learning EFL is understandable for its contribution in developing the learners' capacities to self internalise their speech management and move forward automaticity of learning.

## 5.1.5.5 Question 04: What do you Think are the Factors Affecting your Students' Uptake?

In this question we are illustrating teachers' speculations of the most influential factors causing disturbance in students' uptake, and they as follows:

- 1- *Lack of reading and practicing* what has been read or listened.
- 2- Individual differences: Referring to language proficiency and competence, besides psychological dissimilarities of self-esteem, self-confidence and the degrees of interest and intrinsic motivation.
- 3- Teachers' corrective behaviour: subjects labelled this factor as the "teachers' methods in correction" and/or "teachers' ignorance of the student's role in repair".
  That is to be linked to some teachers' unintentional thorough control over the repair work, or even by excessive correction. The informants, also, could be referring to the choice of CF as well.
- 4- *Lack of awareness:* It is persuasive to consider students' poor consciousness towards the contribution of spoken error treatment in the betterment of their accuracy and fluency, as well as its weighty contribution in exhibiting successful uptake.
- 5- *The inter-language phase effects*: along the inter-language continuum, all the learning processes are affected by the learners' ill-formed hypotheses about the language, one of which is the process of error repair and its reflection on uptake.
- 6- *The atmosphere and the topic:* The informants could have implied the settings where spoken failures' management takes place during the courses. The nature of tasks imposes both the CF choice and the amounts of uptake regarding content-based instruction Vs Form-based instruction.

# 5.1.5.6 Question 05: What Recommendations would you Offer for the Enhancement of Students' Self-Repair?

It is fruitful to earn some recommendations from the informants of this sample considering the critical contribution they would afford based upon their experience. Some valuable recommendations are to be illustrated:

- 1- Students should read and practice the language more
- 2- Teachers should utilize all corrective feedback strategies regarding individual differences.
- 3- Teachers should focus on stimulating students' confidence and attain adequate extrinsic motivation resources.
- 4- Teachers ought to allow more opportunities of SR via withholding extensive CF and adapting it to achieve SR (Partial or Successful) ,as such students would benefit from the extra time resulted from the former behavior to internalize the error and recall correct forms.
- 5- Teachers are advised to allow peers' aid and creating small groups for interaction which devotes some peers' back up when producing an error. (The learners would not feel bothered by a peer's interference if s/he receives it as an alliance assistance).

#### 5.2 The Students' Questionnaire Analysis

The students' questionnaire is the second research tool adopted to fulfil the aims of the current inquiry. This questionnaire is paralleled with the one handled to the teachers whereby 150 students were questioned about their views and attitudes about the process of repair work, this is in accordance with the research questions.

#### **5.2.1** Section One: Personal Information

This preliminary section was set to investigate the experience of the sample students in oral tasks and their involvement during classroom interaction.

#### 5.2.1.1 Question 01: How Long have you been Studying English?

The present question determines how long the respondents have been studying English to cautiously estimate their proficiency in face-to- face interaction. All the respondents have been enrolled in English classes for a maximum of 09 years which is expected to have a respectively positive impact on their oral performance.

#### 5.2.1.2 Questions 02: Do you Like Oral Expression Classes?

Option	N	%
Yes	131	86.66
No	19	13.33
Total	150	99.99

Table 5.20: The Students' Appreciation towards Using English inside Classroom

This question reveals the students' desire to involve in oral tasks inside classroom. Table 5.20 exhibits a majority of 86.66%, showing an approval of appreciation towards Oral courses. This can report both the high qualifications that oral expression teachers in the English department owe and the profound desire to practice the language which students have. This can be an initial interpretation to findings about the involvement of students in error repair in later phases of analysis whereby they feel at ease to cooperate in this process.

#### 5.2.1.3 Question 03: Do you Use the English Language outside Classroom?

Option	N	%
Yes	102	68
No	48	32
Total	150	100

Table 5.21: The Students' Appreciation towards Using English outside Classroom

An evidence for previous finding is the high proportion of students who announced a tendency of deploying English outside the classroom by 68%. While the rest denied using English outside. This might be caused by the social milieu that communicates using a different mother tongue, Arabic, and a second language, French.

## 5.2.1.4 Question 04: How would you Rate your Speaking Level from Weak to Excellent?

Option	N	%
Weak	10	6.66
Satisfying	135	90
Excellent	05	3.33
Total	150	99,99

Table 5.22: The Students' Estimations of Their Speaking Skill Proficiency

It is certain, when it comes to learners evaluating their own language skills to find some over estimations; it is necessary, though, to obtain such a data. The extreme majority of our sample (90%) claimed a *satisfying level* of speaking skill, whereas, only 6.66% admitted a weak level and merely 3.33% of the sample reported *excellent oral skills*.

What is noticeable in the analysis of this section is that within the extreme majority who believed they owe a satisfying speaking skill, there was a proportion of 57.33% affirmed an appreciation towards language practice both inside and outside the classroom in accordance with previous findings. However, there were some anomalies most of whom (9 participants) preferred outside classroom practice rather than doing so during oral courses; this may imply a hidden dislike to oral classes.

In the forthcoming sections, questions are rather formulated as divergent situations to be proposed to students in order to explore their reactions to each situation.

#### 5.3.2 Section Two: Self- Efficacy Evaluation

It is of critical to investigate the students' self efficacy during oral tasks where they certainly employ repair behaviour. This can assist the forthcoming interpretations of findings of the classroom observation. While the first part of this section explores learners' self-efficacy during spoken production, the second part is a quick consideration to their point of view about the factors causing inhibition.

## 5.2.2.1 Part 01: Evaluating the Students' Self-Efficacy and Degrees of Inhibition

Low degrees of Self-Confidence and Self-esteem cause significant inhibition amongst learners. Adelaide Heyde (1979) exposed, in a study on American college students of French as a foreign language, the tight correlation between high self-esteem and elevated oral performance.

Frequency	A	lways	0:	ften	Som	etimes	R	arely	N	lever	To	tal
Situations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I feel that other students speak English better than I do.	11	7.33	25	16.66	90	60	17	11.33	07	4.66	150	100
I feel good when I have to speak in front of my classmates.	33	22	30	20	57	38	14	9.33	16	10.66	150	100
I am nervous when I participate in oral sessions.	16	10.66	12	8	30	20	40	26.66	52	34.66	150	100
I am enjoying my English oral classes because I am satisfied with this level of my oral performance.	50	33.33	33	22	49	32.66	14	9.33	04	2.66	150	100

Table 5.23: The Students' Level of Self Efficacy

#### • Situation One: Low Self- Confidence

The aim behind situations 01 is to concede the levels of self confidence among the participants of the sample; so that a close image about their individual capacities involved in oral performance is drawn.

Low self- confidence degrees were marked by a majority of 60% in only some situations for participants. The students admitted they have the feeling of being inferior to their peers in oral performance only in specific occasions, which might be attached to the individually different adversities faced in some oral tasks or situations. The findings on both sides of sometimes were equally disclosed; 7.33% of the sample answered to the question by always, and 16.66% claimed they often face such low confidence, whereas, 11.33% replied by rarely and merely 4.66% said they never encountered such a feeling. The latter findings imply that students can manage oral tasks, including error repair, with relatively average degrees of self confidence and they feel at ease during oral classes.

#### • Situation Two: High Self- Confidence

The examination of item 02 in table 5.23 is a confirmation to the previous one whereby the students affirmed their *occasional* high self-confidence degrees by a proportion of 38%; this is again related to the oral task nature. However, a higher proportion of students exposed a high self-confidence during oral performance whereby 22% claimed they *always* feel confident while speaking in classroom, added to 20% revealed they *often* do. Nevertheless, not more than 9.33% of the sample announced that they *rarely* have high self-confidence talking in front of their mates, besides an approximate percentage of 10.66% who have gone a little further by acknowledging they *never* felt comfortable to speak in classroom. The latter finding can be considered quite threatening to their future oral performance as well as the process of language acquisition which may have its roots in the teachers' behaviour inside

classroom and the poor motivation utilised to trigger these students' involvement in conversation.

#### • Situation Three: Inhibition among Students

Measuring inhibition degrees is fundamental when inquiring oral performance and error treatment. It is well known that high degrees of inhibition, caused by a variety of reasons, lowers the quality of the learners' spoken production and, thus, their ability to self monitor and self repair their speech.

In table 5.23[See item 03], the informants showed a relatively strong resistance to inhibition, hence, an elevated prediction of a better oral performance and self error repair. 34.66% conceded they are *never* nervous or inhibited while speaking in class; this indicates that they are thoroughly motivated to speak under any circumstances. Furthermore, 26.66% were not far from the same claim reporting *rarely* as a response to the question, while only the fifth of the sample have chosen *sometimes* to reply which reveals lower inhibition during oral classes. This tendency might be associated with limited oral situations, or under all circumstances but rather to the general student's perception of the classroom atmosphere. 8% of the sample, however, admitted they *often* feel inhibited to participate in oral sessions, and a little further 10.66% stated that they are *always* confront inhibition as an obstacle to speak.

#### • Situation Four: Self Esteem

This question was set to inquire the degrees of participants' self-esteem as an essential innate motive to monitor learning and, simultaneously, oral performance. 1/3 of the sample, represented by a proportion of 33.33% expressed their complete satisfaction during oral classes based on their oral skill level [See item 04]. This elevated self-esteem is capable of triggering an enhanced engagement in oral activities. Adding to this, a proportion of 22% answered with *often* to confirm the complete satisfaction which indicates high degrees of self-

esteem. Moreover, 32.66% preferred to establish *sometimes* as a response to the question; such an answer is influenced by how much students adjust their self-esteem to the learning situation or the oral task. The least percentages came by 9.33% responding with *rarely* followed by *merely* 2.66% claiming they have a poor self-esteem (low oral skill level) to be involved in oral interaction.

#### 5.2.2.2 Part 02: The Students' Perception about Causes of Inhibition

Although learners are not as qualified as teachers and practitioners to diagnosis the causes of inhibition, they are a rich source of data to be investigated when it comes to their opinions about what decreases their self-confidence and inhibits learning.

I often lose confidence when:	N	%
a- The teacher immediately corrects my errors.	15	10
b- The teacher does not provide correction to my errors	19	12.66
c-The teacher re-corrects me when I provide a wrong correction to my error.	07	4.66
c- I cannot find the appropriate correction to my error	60	40
d- My classmates interfere to correct my error.	47	31.33
e- All/ some of the previous reasons	02	1.33
Totals	150	99.98

Table 5.24: The Students' Perception about Causes of Inhibition

The causes of inhibition and lose of self-confidence during the process of error treatment, according to the students of the sample were divergent. They ranked them on the following scale: Less than the half (40%) reported *option* (*d*) "I cannot find the appropriate correction to my errors" as the major cause of confidence' lose, which indicates learners' desire to self monitor their speech including their errors. Followed by a proportion of 31.33% who stated their "peers' interference" — Option (e) — as an obstacle to maintain adequate confidence during oral production (This finding would be confirmed in the fourth section of the questionnaire: Statement.07, Question.9 and question.15). Students' disregard their mates intervention which provides a further evidence of their preference for either self-repair or the teacher's corrective feedback. Moreover, taking into consideration the previous finding,

grading option (d) as the first cause of inhibition, we could assume this proportion is in favour of Self-repair as well.

The next rank of inhibition' causes was reserved to option (b): when "The teacher does not provide correction to my errors" by a percentage of 12.66%; though respondents showed a desire of self- repair, they expressed their enduring need for a teacher- directed error treatment (This finding would be supported in question 09, statement.02). Followed by option (a): When "The teacher immediately corrects my errors" with a proportion of only 10%, which disclosed a relatively low disapproval towards immediate corrective feedback. The last ranking was option (c) by 4.33%; this proportion of respondents affirmed that when "The teacher re-corrects a wrong choice of self repair", s/he would disturb the student's capability of self monitoring his/her speech.

An isolated case (1.33 %) has placed *all the previous causes* on the same position of the scale; this might be explained that inhibition for this student is equally affected by all the reasons depending on the learning situation.

#### 5.2.3 Section Three: Self- Awareness Evaluation

To involve in error treatment, learners should be aware of their spoken errors; the recognition of both the existence of an error and the significance of dealing with it. Furthermore, identifying one's spoken errors is a proof of a highly aware learner, but failing in such a process does not make her/him unqualified to develop future abilities to self monitor her/his speech. This section, thus, aims to measure the awareness degrees among students: To what extents they are capable of detecting errors in their own speech and willing to participate in repair work?

Frequency	A	lways	Often		Som	etimes	Ra	arely	N	lever	Total	
Situations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I worry about my oral errors.	54	36	39	26	36	24	17	11.33	04	2.66	150	99.99
I feel confident to talk even with errors.	25	16.67	15	10	27	18	53	35.33	30	20	150	100
I fail to recognise my spoken errors unless my teacher interferes.	01	0.66	25	16.66	72	48	43	28.66	9	6	150	99.98
I can spot the errors in my speech and correct them.	26	17.33	42	28	63	42	19	12.67	00	0	150	100
I can spot the errors in my speech but I don't correct them.	00	0	07	4.67	33	22	42	28	68	45.33	150	100
I try to correct my errors even if I am not sure of the appropriate answer/correction	57	38	41	27.35	34	22.65	15	10	03	2	150	100
I can recognise my classmates' spoken errors and interfere to correct them.	24	16	37	24.67	58	38.66	16	10.66	15	10	150	100

Table 5.25: The Students' Awareness towards Error Treatment

#### • Situation One: Awareness Degrees towards Oral Errors

This statement probes whether students are aware of their errors or not. if a learner is bothered by the existence of errors in her/his oral production, that will be a motive to develop appropriate strategies to deal with the same errors in the future namely *uptake* (Lyster and Ranta, 2007)

A wide range of the sample agreed they worry about errors in their speech in different degrees yet all with the same standpoint: "I worry about my errors". The majority of 62% (36% having answered by always and 26% by often) confirmed their awareness about their spoken failures. And a little further, 24% chose to set sometimes as a reply. Whereas, only 11.33% exposed their poor awareness by providing rarely as an answer, and the least proportion (2.66%) was presented by those who denied any sign of awareness. These findings indicate the students' high awareness that errors are to be corrected

#### • Situation Two: Degrees of Ignoring Errors

This situation was set to measure participants' awareness with respect to the principle of not interrupting the communicative flow via continual error treatment. Some learners, as well as some teachers, may deploy that principle as an escape from the significance of error treatment, however, the informants of the questionnaire responded positively to the question: They presented an affirmation of awareness about the gravity of neglecting spoken errors whereby more than the half of the sample denied this: 35.33% acknowledged they *rarely* feel confident to leave their errors untreated, beside 20% who said they *never* did. Students, then, do not give priority to the discourse flow over the importance of repair work.

The students, on the other hand, preferred to provide *sometimes* as a reply to such a question (18%) for they have already confronted the situation either by being confident to overlook their errors or being really cautious to do so. While a proportion of 16.66% admitted they *always* overpass their errors and keep talking besides only 10% reported they *often* do. The latter findings reveal the unawareness of some students as regard to this process implying the feasibility of being overwhelmed by low oral proficiency.

#### • Situation Three: Recognition of Errors with the Teacher's Assistance

Some students fail to spot their spoken errors and, therefore, they are in confrontation with troubled language acquisition. However, the interference of the teacher enhances the learner's opportunities to overcome such troubles.

As demonstrated in table 5.25, almost the half proportion of the sample 48% acknowledged they *sometimes* "fail to realize they have produced an erroneous speech unless the teacher interferes". The most reasonable explanation for such a choice is that students tend to notice their errors merely in some learning situations or oral tasks needing a teacher's

assistance, and that depends on the individual perceptions of that situation. 28.66% affirmed they *rarely* encounter such situation, and 6% set for *never* as a reply to the question. These results are a clear claim that students disregard teachers' help for the recognition of errors which entails their high potential linguistic competency. Nevertheless, 16.66% of the sample declared they *often* depend on the teacher to identify erroneous output added to a minimum percentage of 0.66% who afforded *always* as an answer; this is a further evidence for the previously mentioned claim. It is noteworthy, though, to inquire the reliability of these findings in the forthcoming phases of analysis.

#### • Situation Four: Individual Recognition of Spoken Errors

This situation is a quick primary review for the students' ability to self repair spoken errors. It is critical at this point to confirm that the completion of the whole process of repair, both the identification and correction of the error, is the focal goal of any repair work (Schegloff et.al., 1976, Lyster &Ranta, 1997 and 2007, Sheen &Ellis, 2011). This ability was attached, according to the participants, to some specific situations by 42% yielding sometimes as a reply, and they went further in confirming their full capability of Self-Repair by responding they often complete the repair process (28%) besides 17.33% reporting they always do. This is a strong evidence of an elevated awareness of error treatment among students. However, only 12.66% revealed the rare occasions whereby they both detect their spoken errors and correct them.

#### • Situation Five: High Awareness of Errors with Negligence of Treatment

It is common that learners show a high capability of detecting errors, and yet, a low awareness of treating them. This would negatively affect the acquisition of the target form.

Aiming to examine low degrees of awareness towards the importance of repair work, this situation was suggested. Findings revealed satisfactory levels of awareness towards error

treatment, which is an approval for the previous results: 45.33% contradicted the statement of "I can spot the errors in my speech but I do not correct them" altogether. Adding those who replied with rarely raises the percentage of denial to a considerable majority of 73.33%. Nonetheless, on the other extreme of the frequency scale, no student accepted to disregard handling her/his errors after observing them, and only 4.66% admitted they usually take the risk of neglecting their own spoken errors. The reported results highlight the students' awareness about the inevitability of errors' repair.

#### • Situation Six: Attempts of Self- Repair

Learners' awareness of the seriousness of error treatment is highly correlated with their attempts of repairing their errors regardless their doubts about the correction appropriateness.

Students in this inquiry affirmed a high tendency to fulfil a repair to their erroneous speech: While 38% stated they *always* make attempts to reproduce appropriated forms for their spoken breakdowns, and another proportion of 27.35% added an approval for doing that by deciding upon *often* as reply on the situation. This is vital in exposing the informants' willingness to cooperate in repair work of their troubled speech. Only 10% of the sample, however, informed they *rarely* undertake such an attempt in addition to the least proportion (2%) that preferred to appoint *never* trying to search for an appropriate output. These two latter results are an echo of the low strategic competence some students have developed.

The rest of students (22.66%) chose "sometimes" to reply on the question; this could be interpreted that some students prefer to go for a self- repair without the certainty of appropriateness merely in specific cases.

#### • Situation Seven: Awareness of Cooperative Repair work

If a learner's self- repair is a strong sign of her/his awareness, undertaking a peers' correction is a further effective strategy to develop a higher sense of cooperation during error treatment. The statement above was set to inquire how students behave in these situations.

The average percentage of 38.66% expressed their reluctance via replying with *sometimes* on involving in a peer's repair; students usually delay their interference to correct their mates either because the uncertainty about the appropriate correction or the fear from the trouble source student reaction. This would be dealt with in the forthcoming questions about peers' correction. Still, the participants revealed a considerable awareness about cooperative correction through an agreement of a majority of 61% distributed between *always* (24%) and *often* (37%). However, low levels of awareness about peers' interference were presented mainly by students who replied they *rarely* interfere to assist a classmate (10.66%) and those who prefer to *never* engage in such a situation(10%); the mostly accepted reason for this is the possible doubts they may have about the applicable correction.

#### **5.2.4** Section Four: Repair Attitudes and Preferences

This section is set to reveal the respondent' perceptions about repair work. The main questions of the inquiry, thus, are to be answered in accordance with the students' views.

#### 5.2.4.1 Question 01: Who does Repair?

The focal debate of our research is to highlight the contribution of each participant in the classroom repair process; whether it is a learner-based repair or triggered by the teacher. Identifying *Who* takes the responsibility of error repair is significant to determine both the willingness of the students to self repair their spoken breakdowns and, therefore, manage the acquisition of a target language besides the desire of teachers to elicit learners' awareness of error treatment. Hence, this part of the questionnaire was dedicated to probe the respondents'

attitudes and preferences towards taking the leading role in error repair, moreover, how they perceive their teachers' intervention during the process.

#### **5.2.4.1.1** Attitudes and Preferences for Self-Repair

	Frequency	Al	lways	C	ften	Som	etimes	Ra	rely	No	ever	To	tal
Situations		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I prefer cor spoken err mys	ors all by	46	30.66	33	22	43	28.66	22	14.66	06	4	150	9.98
I try to ret acquired kn correct my e fail to do so teacher h	owledge to errors, but I ounless my	06	4	28	18.66	72	48	36	24	08	5.33	150	9.98
I feel annoye teacher over-	•	81	54	31	20.66	20	13.33	13	8.66	05	3.33	150	9.98

Table 5.26: The Students' Attitudes and Preferences for Self-Repair

#### • Situation One: Preference for Self- Repair

An elevated capacity of *self-Repair*, as approved by all researchers and EFL practitioners, is a firm evidence of a highly aware learner and an effective strategy to enhance oral performance, therefore, language acquisition itself (ibid).

Nearly one third of our sample (30.66%) expressed their *absolute preference* of undertaking a whole self-repair process; moreover, 22% were in favour of the same preference, yet, with a less confirmation using *often* as a reply to the question. This preference towards self monitoring speech failures does not eliminate learners' preference towards the teacher's interference and provision of C.F, as established in earlier questions findings. A proportion of 14.66%, though, claimed they *rarely* go for a *self-Repair* move, added to a percentage of only 4% denying any desire to handle their errors all by themselves. Thereupon, 18.66% of the sample showed low rates of awareness about self repairing their oral errors compared to 52.66% (between *always* and *often*) exposed self- repair preferences. Nevertheless, 28.66% reported their *Situation-specific preference* for self- repair supplying

*sometimes* as an answer whereby students tend to select the situation where they take the leading role in repair work in accordance with their level of oral proficiency.

#### • Situation Two: Students' Attitudes of Initiating Repair

Initiating a repair work is a solid evidence of the learner's readiness to involve in self-repair. Therefore, degrees of initiation attempts uncover the willingness of learners to monitor their speech.

What is noteworthy about the percentages in table 5.26 is the students' choice of **sometimes** (48%) as a major indication that their attempts to initiate repair work are *situation-Specific attempts*. The students' ability to start a repair work is tightly associated with a mixture of other factors:

- The fear from the teacher's, or even peers', reaction.
- Lack of adequate language proficiency to undertake a repair work of a specific error.
- Lack of awareness about the inevitability of error treatment.

The proportions of denying or admitting the willingness of *initiation* as an attitude were almost equally divided between the other options of the question: While the least percentage of 6% expressed their *all the time- readiness* to fulfil a repair work and 28% said they *often* do, 36% of the questionnaire respondents acknowledged a *rare* tendency to try deploying acquired knowledge to handle their errors and merely 8% that disclosed they *never* attempt to initiate error treatment. These results, again, confirm the students' tendency to adjust their repair behaviour with regard to the oral task in hand besides the availability of the sufficient linguistic back-up after detecting a spoken error.

#### • Statement Three: Students' Attitudes towards Over-Correction

The students, according to previous findings, welcome the teacher's interference in their handling of repair work even with fluctuated percentages. It is distinct, however, when it comes to *over correction*; learners accept a corrective feedback in limited areas and with restrained amounts without the teacher repeating the correction over and over for this may cause the learner to be less confident or embarrassed. Item 03, table 5.26, aims at confirming this principle.

A majority of 54% reported their extreme rejection to the teacher's over correction by using "always feeling annoyed when my teacher over-corrects my spoken failures", followed by 20.66% who expressed their usual feeling of inhibition by the teacher over correction, added to 13.33% pointing sometimes. However, only 8.66% revealed they rarely feel annoyed when the teacher focuses on one particular error more than once, and a least proportion of 3.33% disclosed their extreme indifference (never) towards over correction. This is plausibly akin to the fact that very few learners can handle a teacher's extensive interference in any circumstances without any complains.

#### 5.2.4.1.2 Attitudes and Preferences towards Others' Contribution in Repair Work

The students of the sample in previous findings affirmed a high willingness to undertake the repair process, but they continue to show evidence of reliance on the teacher. The most conceivable explanation for this is the poor equivalence between learners' awareness of error treatment and the inadequate proficiency or confidence (Or even other causes) to handle the process. This part of the questionnaire inquires the respondents' reaction towards others' interference.

Frequency	Al	ways	Often		Som	etimes	Ra	arely	Never		Total	
Situations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I feel helpless when my teacher ignores my errors.	14	9.33	21	14	80	53.33	25	16.66	10	6.66	150	100
I wait for the teacher to correct me.	10	6.66	22	14.66	55	36.66	40	26.67	23	15.33	150	100
I feel confident after the teacher provides correction to my errors.	51	34	39	26	38	25.33	16	10.66	06	4	150	100
I feel afraid to talk right after the teacher corrects me.	12	8	15	10	28	18.67	34	22.66	61	40.66	150	100
I want the teacher to provide more correction to all my errors.	71	47.33	21	14	42	28	13	8.66	03	2	150	100
I want my classmates to help me correcting my spoken errors	10	6.66	15	10	24	16	41	27.33	60	40	150	100

Table 5.27: The Students' Attitudes and Preferences of Receiving Corrective Aid

#### • Situation One: Students' Attitudes in the Absence of Corrective Feedback

In table 5.27, students were not quite sure of the amount of confidence they may lose when the teacher ignores their errors. A wide range of participants (53.33%) preferred to supply *sometimes* as an answer, they revealed that being unable to handle repair work without a teacher's C.F is relatively *situation-specific*; they, thus, develop capabilities of SR according to the language acquired linked to the error otherwise, they tend to rely on the teacher's CF.

The results were equally divided between the other options: 23.33% (Divided between always and often) confirmed their disability in the absence of C.F, and an almost alike proportion (23.32) as well denied that they feel helpless without the teacher's back-up which indicates their readiness to overcome spoken failure without this assistance.

#### • Situation Two: Students' Attitudes towards The Teacher's Initiation of Repair

The aim here is to state a direct proof about whether the informants approve on the teacher's interference or not, on the other hand it is a primary examination to their willingness of initiating a self-repair. The findings affirmed a rejection to the teacher's interference and a preference for self-repair whereby 42% of the sample denied the choice of "waiting the teacher to correct their spoken failures" (26.67% claimed they rarely depend on the teacher to provide a correction, and 15.33% affirmed that this has never been one of their options to overcome an error). Nonetheless, only 6.66% exposed an extreme reliance on their teachers to contribute a repair work, added to 13.33% who followed the same stream providing often as an answer. Some other informants (36.66%) chose sometimes to assert that their initiation move depends on a variety of circumstance; some of which could be the difficulty of correction for the learner, or the general tendency of the teacher to yield treatment all the time. Accordingly, the respondents have not provided a clear-cut about their attitudes towards receiving an initiating assistance from the teacher which reflects their poor awareness about the mechanism of repair work as they are not trained to do so.

#### • Situation Three: The Students' Confidence after the Teachers' Correction

In previous findings, the students revealed an intensity of awareness about self repair, their dependence on teachers to administer the final completion of repair. Results of the current question prevailed that a majority of 60% of the students reported high extents of earned confidence after the teacher supplies oral correction (34% replied with *always* and 26% with *often*). Moreover, a percentage of 25.33% exhibited a near response by answering *sometimes* which implies that they, in some situations, feel inhibited by the teacher's CF to their errors. On the other hand, only 10.66% expressed a *rare* feeling of confidence when the teacher

interferes to afford CF, while the least proportion of 4% claimed they *never* feel comfortable to engage in oral tasks after a teacher's correction.

Tracing back to part B in the *self efficacy* section [See table 5.24], 12.66% of the participants ranked option (b) "*The teacher does not provide correction to my errors*" as the third possible cause of inhibition. The very same informants contributed a confirmation to their responses in this question: 17 students out of 19(11.33%) admitted they *always* feel confident to perceive a teacher's C.F, besides the two others who responded by *often* to the same question. This is evidence that students feel inhibited and helpless in the absence of a corrective feedback.

#### • Situation Four: The Students' Attitudes towards the Teacher's Interference

These results can be an affirmation to those of situation 02 above. Once more, the students in this questionnaire disclosed a positive behaviour towards teachers' CF: Nearly half of the sample (40.66%) acknowledged that a teacher's corrective feedback *never* inhibits their willingness to undertake talking, added to 22.66% who thought that would restrain their confidence in very rare situations. A proportion of 18.66%, providing *sometimes* as a reply, announced an average agreement about the teacher's obstruction; the way some students perceive C.F is restrained to the situation and how this feedback was approached by the teacher. Nevertheless, 10% of the sample who answered by *often*, exposed a relatively negative response when the teacher attempts to handle their spoken breakdowns, besides only 8% who claimed they *always* feel inhibited if the teacher does that which affects their oral performance. These findings are a positive, though not a solid, evidence that the respondents prefer to be assisted by a CF rather than processing the repair work all together.

#### Situation Five: The Students' Preferences for the Teacher's Correction

The focal issue to be dealt with in our research is to highlight the degrees of involvement in repair work by both teachers and students besides their preferences of handling it. The students' preference towards corrective feedback implies the degree of their willingness to repair their speech failures.

In pedagogy of TEF, teachers should be the optimal source of correctness when an error is produced by a learner. Learners, therefore, seek more correction from the teacher, especially when it is a new linguistic data which is not acquired yet (Walz, 1982). This was evident in the responses of the majority who revealed an elevated desire to receive more C.F whereby 14% confirmed they *often* need extra correction, in addition to 47.33% who went further by answering they *always* want their teachers to supply more correction. This might be interpreted either as a students' reliance on the teacher to handle the repair process or as a result of a deficiency in C.F desired by them. On the other hand, only 2% claimed their complete satisfaction about the amounts of C.F brought by their teachers and that there is no need, in all situations, to receive more correction, besides a proportion of 8.66% who admitted they *rarely* prefer their teachers to administer correction to all speech breakdowns. Nonetheless, a percentage of 28% preferred a more neutral choice by answering *sometimes*, disclosing a situation-specific preference for receiving C.F.

#### • Situation Six: The Students' preferences for Peers' Interference

It has been previously disclosed in section 02, part 02(Causes of inhibition) that students feel inhibited by their peers' intervention in error treatment. This statement is to probe their preference towards this kind of *others' interference* in repair work: An approximate half percentage (40%) confirmed their *extreme refusal* to their mates' help when dealing with an error, added to another proportion of 27.33% reporting they *rarely* prefer a classmate helping

them in an error treatment. 16%, however, expressed their *situation- specific preference* of allowing peers' interference. Nonetheless, only 10% revealed their *usual* acceptance for a peer's correction and a least proportion of 6.66% claimed they *always* want their mates' aid. The students who have a solid self-esteem and confidence usually have this tendency of allowing other participants, of the same level, to intervene in their talk, whereas, the former results of denying the peers' help are respectively referring to embarrassment factors.

It is noteworthy, as a conclusion to this part of the questionnaire, to set a principle about students' attitudes and preferences towards *who does repair work*. The students revealed a *selective behaviour* when it comes to terms of correcting their errors depending on:

- The hardness of repair and their previous linguistic knowledge about the error.
- The teacher's emphasis on identical errors: Whether the teacher focuses on the gravity
  of similar errors or not, and even on the same error when produced more than once or
  by peers.
- The gravity of the error according to the student. And other factors.

Findings revealed an *average preference towards self-repair* whereby 48% affirmed they attempt processing their knowledge to repair their erroneous speech in *some cases* only, besides nearly 30%, distributed between *rarely*" and *never* [See item 02, table 5.27], who admitted their avoidance to such a behaviour. Equally significant, 52.66% disclosed their Self-repair preferences [See item 01], whereas, attitudes and preferences for receiving more corrective feedback were remarkably detected with a percentage of 79% between *always* and *often* which confirms they can rebuild the confidence lost during the error production after being corrected by the teacher [See item 03]. Moreover, the students affirmed their preference

for C.F with *always* (47.33%) and *often* (14%); that is to be a sum of 61.33% of the sample [See item 05].

Although these slightly apparent differences, findings in this section did not expose high extents of a preference rather than the other: The students, according to the inquiry of "who corrects" expressed a *situation-specific strategy* when dealing with errors hereby they tend to select where to undertake a self-repair and where to depend on a corrective feedback.

Accurately distinct findings were associated with the students' preference towards *peers'* correction. They conceded a refusal to their classmates' obstruction during repair work with a percentage of 37.33% choosing to be *never* tolerant with the peers' interference added to 27.33% selecting *rarely* to the question.

#### **5.2.4.2** Question 02: When does your Teacher Interfere to Correct your Errors?

The timing of the teacher's interference is critical in keeping the communicative flow.

#### 5.2.4.2.1 The Students' Attitudes towards the Timing of Corrective Feedback

Inspecting the students' perception about their teachers' choice of CF timing is significant.

Frequency	Al	ways	Often		Som	etimes	es Rarely		N	lever	Total	
Situations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I feel pressed by my teacher to immediately correct my errors	12	8	29	19.33	27	18	58	38.66	24	16	150	100
My teachers immediately correct my spoken errors.	30	20	36	24	54	36	24	16	06	4	150	100
My teachers leave me some time-gap to correct my errors.	09	6	36	24	63	42	25	16.66	17	11.33	150	100
My teachers provide error correction after I finish my sentence.	29	19.33	22	14.66	69	46	20	13.33	10	6.67	150	100
My teachers provide error correction at the end of each activity.	22	14.66	21	14	47	31.33	30	20	30	20	150	100
My teachers provide error correction at the end of each session.	38	25.33	38	25.33	33	22	25	16.66	16	10.66	150	100

Table 5.28: The Students' Perception about Teachers' Immediate, Postponed and Delayed CF

#### • Situation One: : Attitudes towards Teachers' Elicitation of Immediate Self-Repair

This statement was set to disclose the students' attitudes towards immediate corrective feedback (I.C.F): First, whether their teachers elicit *immediate self-repair* or not, taking into consideration that when the teacher provides I.C.F, s/he is triggering the same attitude in learners. Second, how they react to such a corrective behaviour.

Results exposed a comfortable atmosphere provided by teachers' during the error treatment process. A wide range of the students (54.66%) stated they receive low degrees of pressure from the teacher to immediately handle their spoken errors: The percentage was divided between those who supplied *rarely* as an answer with a share of 38.66%, and those who extremely refused the fact that they have been stressed to immediately contribute immediate self repair I.S.R. (16% for *never*). This is a confirmation that regardless the extents of I.C.F administered by the teachers, they rarely, if not never, tend to push their students toward I.S.R, which boosts a wide acceptance among students.

Teachers, in accordance with the students' perception, prefer to stimulate instant self-repair in specific situations which was shown in the responses of 18% who supplied *sometimes* as an answer to our question. This can be linked to the teachers' tendency to target intelligibility problems only.

In contrast, the tension created by the imposed necessity of immediate self-repair was expressed to be infrequent whereby only 19% of the sample reported that their teachers *often* prompt I.S.R which they usually feel stressed about. Moreover, a small proportion of 8% admitted to be involved in an undesired immediate repair work provoked by the teacher.

These findings are evidence that the high degrees of immediate corrective feedback are not of significant impact on the teachers' decision about stimulating the same attitude in

students; they aim at allowing comfortable atmosphere for self-Repair to take place naturally and willingly.

## • Statement Two: Degrees of the Teachers' Immediate Corrective Feedback (Students' Perspective)

According to the informants of the sample, teachers in the department of English have a relatively elevated tendency to provide C.F instantly. 20% of the students being asked if their teachers provide I.C.F replied by *always*, a little further, 24% supplied *often* as an answer. Accumulating the two proportions, the total amount of respondents who admitted their teachers are in favour of I.C.F is 44%. In addition to 36% who reported *sometimes* to concede the fact that teachers rely on specific conditions to decide whether the situation needs immediate interference or not.

Nonetheless, a percentage of 16% affirmed that their teachers *rarely* administer an I.C.F; which is an indication that they have very limited rules or standards to select what is necessary to be instantly corrected and what should be left for postponed or delayed treatment (The standards vary from a teacher to another). The last six respondents (4%), *denied any existence of teachers' I.C.F*; which is rare in the field of EFL teaching.

#### • Situation Three: Teachers' Postponed Corrective Feedback(Students' perception)

Postponed corrective feedback (P.C.F), as defined in the theoretical part, is a technique deployed by the teacher to enhance the learner's possibilities of self-repair via delaying interference for a limited time; usually before the student finishes the sentence containing an error.

By analyzing the current findings, percentages were almost equal on both sides of the *sometimes* option: 28% affirmed the limited averages of P.C.F whereby 16.66% asserted that their teachers *rarely* deploy this type of corrective feedback, while 11.33% claimed they

never received it. One plausible interpretation to this is the teachers' dependency on immediate or delayed corrective feedback (I.C.F Vs D.C.F). On the other extreme of the scale, the respondents replied by always with a proportion of only 9% which indicates that they get minimum extents of this C.F type among other types, besides 24% who went a little further by answering they often confront teachers' P.C.F. This may trace back to the teachers' attitudes in delivering CF in the English department, University of Constantine, whereby they tend to afford instant CF or delay it tilt the end of the sessions consisting mainly of reports, presentations or listening activities. Distinct findings, however, were detected in the sometimes option; 42% exposed the teachers' tendency to contribute a postponed correction under specific conditions. This situation –Specific attitude and preference as well is attached to the standards affecting each teacher's decision to adopt a certain choice of C.F timing; standards based on the seriousness and the frequency of the error besides the confidence of the rouble source student.

#### Situation Four: Postponed Corrective Feedback at the End of the Sentence

Some scholars consider corrective feedback at the end of the sentence as a postponed C.F, whereas others classify it into the category of delayed C.F. It is an effective way to allow the learner some time to revise her/his erroneous speech. The aim of this question is to highlight to what extent this type is deployed by teachers in accordance with the students' perception.

Once more, findings support the principle of *situation specific attitude*: The students confirmed that their teachers *sometimes* supply C.F at the end of the sentence with a percentage of 46%, followed by those who claimed their teachers *always* use this type of correction19.33%, added to the proportion of 14.66% who replied with *often* to makes the tendency of correcting at the end of the erroneous sentence rather stronger. The teachers, with regard to the students' perception, may prefer to administer CF after ensuring that the student

has had enough time to rehearse the linguistically target form, this confirmation usually takes place at the end of the sentence.

Nonetheless, the students reported that their teachers *rarely* tend to provide CF at the end of the sentence (13.33%), adding to a percentage of only 6.66% who claimed the absolute absence of such a tendency by replying *never*. These proportions are suggesting another type of delayed corrective feedback to be employed by the teachers.

#### • Situation Five: Delayed Corrective Feedback at the End of Activities

Another type of delayed corrective feedback (D.C.F) allows teachers to correct at the end of each activity; this would reinforce the possibilities of self-repair . This type, however, is more effective in written discourse rather than in speech, and it is mainly attached to Grammar tasks (Dabbaghi, 2006).

The pedagogical aim behind this question is to inspect the students' estimations about the extents of teachers' D.C.F at the end of activities. Findings disclosed an average use of this type (According to participants): They admitted that their teachers avoid it in which 31.33% contributed *sometimes* as an answer; a plausible interpretation for this is the situation-specific principle adopted by teachers whereby they select the appropriate time for C.F based on the nature of both the oral task and the error itself. An additional proportion indicating that the teachers avoid D.C.F at the end of activities was represented by percentages of *rarely* (20%) and *never*" (20%); the most conceivable cause for this avoidance is the essence of spoken discourse, which creates a difficulty in correcting by the end of an oral task. Nevertheless, relatively small proportions, and almost equal as well, were apparent in the choices of *always* (14.66%) and *often*" by 14%; this reflects the average use of D.C.F by teachers at the end of a task.

#### • Situation Six: Delayed Corrective Feedback at the End of the session

Some educators in EFL claim that delaying corrective feedback at the end of the session has a firm impact on learners' confidence and positive self-esteem; teachers adopt this type of C.F by either video typing the whole course, including spoken errors made, then discussing them at the end of the session, or by just jotting them don to be corrected afterwards unless they are self repaired.

More than 1/5 of the sample stated the observation that their teachers tend to delay C.F till the end of the session: 25.33% claimed they *always* receive delayed correction for their speech breakdowns, if not self corrected, at the end of the course, another 25.33% reported the same tendency, with a less severity though answering, with *often*.

These findings reveal a high tendency of adopting D.C.F by the end of courses, and this might be explained by the corrective behaviour shown by Oral Expression teachers in our department; in which the nature of oral sessions including presentations requires such behaviour.

#### 5.2.4.2.2 The Students' Attitudes towards Immediate Corrective Feedback

How do you feel when your teacher immediately corrects	N	%
your spoken errors? Frustrated	10	6.66
Bothered	13	8.66
Indifferent	09	6
Embarrassed (Sorry for I made an error)	51	34
Satisfied	67	44.66
Total	150	100%

Table 5.29: The Students' Attitudes towards Immediate Corrective Feedback

The time of administering a corrective feedback is crucial in triggering learners' reaction towards a successful future uptake. Researchers, as previously established, have argued about the best timing for providing correction; while Daughty (2001) stated the efficacy of immediate correction, Ellis and Basturkmen (2001) confirmed that immediate C.F inhibits

acquisition (In Lyster and Ranta, 2013) .The majority of them, yet, approved on providing a minimum time-gap for the learner to revise his/her speech and reconsider a specific linguistic background after a spoken breakdown. The aim behind this question then is to examine the applicability of this view on the subjects of our research.

Nearly half of the sample (44.66%) expressed their satisfaction to receive *immediate C.F.*The most plausible interpretation for this acceptance is the students' dependency on the teacher during error treatment: Either as an inherited reaction to the teacher's usual instant corrective attitude or as a confirmation to the students' preference for corrective feedback rather than Self-repair which might be of extrovert learners who approve on immediate correction. Studies, in this regard, have revealed that extroverts have a positive attitude towards immediate C.F rather than postponed or delayed one (Rahmaty Kelahsarayi, 2014). Another proportion of 34% showed a less extent of comfort towards receiving instantaneous C.F, saying that they often feel "*embarrassed and sorry*" when the teacher does not allow adequate time to initiate a self-repair.

On the other hand, a percentage of 8.66% claimed they feel "bothered" if the teacher supplies quick C.F, besides 6.66% implied extreme refusal by answering they feel "frustrated" by the provision of this C.F whilst merely 6% showed an "indifferent" response to the timing of teacher's correction. The speculations about these relatively small proportions can be related to the introvert and less confident students.

#### 5.2.4.3 Question 03: Which Error Type to Repair?

On the basis of the students' perception towards repair works processed during EFL courses, their reaction to a 03 sets of questions was probed with regard to: First, their tendencies of the error type they are likely to self repair the most, their perception towards the

teachers' focus on correcting specific error types rather than others, and finally their preferences about which type they desire to be further corrected by their teachers.

It is critical at this point to bring to mind that error types dealt with here are *the Linguistic-induced errors* [Grammar, Phonology and Lexical failures] and *Gravity-induced errors* [Intelligibility, referred to as communicative and common error].

#### **5.2.4.3.1** Self-Repair Attitudes

Frequency	Al	ways	О	ften	Sor	netimes	Ra	rely	N	lever	To	tal
Situations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I tend to recognise and correct my Grammar errors.	60	40	40	26.66	37	24.66	12	8	01	0.66	150	100
I pay attention to my pronunciation errors.	83	55.33	30	20	24	16	07	4.66	06	4	150	100
I tend to select my words carefully while speaking.	53	35.33	46	30.66	42	28	06	4	03	2	150	100
I tend to pause while speaking to make sure both my classmates and my teacher are getting the meaning(s) of my speech.	30	20	51	34	50	33.33	15	10	04	2.66	150	100
If others do not grasp the meaning I want to convey, I paraphrase my sentence(s).	45	30	38	25.33	42	28	13	8.66	12	8	150	100
I fail to convey meaning while speaking to my classmates or my teacher.	09	23.33	35	23.33	64	42.66	30	20	12	8	150	100
I fail to convey meaning unless my teacher helps me doing so.	07	4.66	24	16	57	38	44	29.3	18	12	150	100

**Table 5.30: The Students Attitudes towards which Error Type to Self Repair** 

#### • Statement One: The Students' Attitudes towards Self-Repair of Grammar Errors

The aim behind this statement is to inspect the degrees in which the informants of the sample repair their inaccurate output.

Findings remarkably revealed the students' focus on dealing with their grammatical errors: 40% claimed they have a firm tendency to process Grammar failures, while 26.66% disclosed a less frequent tendency with the answer *often*; this tendency could be inherited from Grammar- based methodology adopted by some teachers who still believe Grammar is rather decisive in EFL teaching and learning process.

Participants who prefer handling Grammar errors in moderate extents scored 24.66%, marking their *situation-specific tendency* with *sometimes*. A conceivable interpretation is the reliance of these students on other error types to correct beside grammatical ones. In contrast, there was notably a small proportion (8%) reporting a *rare* tendency of processing Grammar errors. This proportion might be of those students unaware of either their spoken errors in a whole or the grammatical correctness in particular. In addition to an anomaly (0.66%) who admitted s/he *never* handles Grammar errors, which indicates high degrees of unawareness towards Grammar correctness. Another perception about participants who acknowledged low degrees of operating Grammar failures might well trace back to their preference to rather endeavour communication.

#### • Statement Two: The Students' Attitudes towards Self-Repair of Pronunciation

Triggered by their desire to earn a native- like fluency, learners should involve in a continual adjustment of their pronunciation errors. This question interrogates students' awareness of their pronunciation failures and, rather significant, their readiness to repair them or contribute in the treatment.

The informants reported substantial awareness and inclination to oprationalise their erroneous pronunciation, subsequently, a statistically decisive percentage of 55.33% stated their consistent contribution in such process. Besides a proportion of 20% that acquiesced a less frequent management of this type of error via adopting the *often option*. The students,

according to these findings, can be prompted by two conceivably possible motivations: Either their eagerness to acquire a native-like accent through continuous attempts to adjust pronunciation, or the influential corrective behaviour of their teachers who address mainly Phonological correctness, or even both possibilities.

16% decided upon the option of *sometimes* acknowledging they direct their attention towards pronunciation lapses at intervals. This could be interpreted by a variety of reasons: One of which is their impulse to give higher perseverance to other error types. Another perception is their preference to make their attitudes towards pronunciation correctness as situation-specific as possible. In this regard, some learners inherit the selective behaviour from their teachers who prefer keeping the communicative flow over constant corrective feedback.

Nevertheless, a slight proportion rejected the vital role of controlling erroneous pronunciation: 4.66% contributed the answer *rarely*, while only 4% admitted they tend to handle their pronunciation errors *at no time* which uncovers a weak alertness towards the criticality of pronunciation as a key towards fluency and, therefore, successful language acquisition. A conceivable annotation for such finding, despite its voluntary gravity on the whole results concerning the same question, is the fact that some students come upon a poor management of their own pronunciation failures. This is due to either the teachers' negligence or an exaggerating tendency to over-rank communication; subsequently, based on the students' perception, developing an autonomous behaviour towards pronunciation correctness would be inhibited.

#### • Statement Three: The Students' Attitudes towards Self-Repair of Lexical Errors

The lexical choice is a valuable criterion to measure the learner's proficiency level.

According to Llach (2006): "The role of vocabulary as an indicator of proficiency level is a

generally acknowledged fact in the sense that lexical errors are a manifestation of lack of lexical knowledge, it seems reasonable to think that they will relate negatively to levels of proficiency" (p1)

Consequently, processing lexical misuse reveals the learner's competency. Moreover, ignoring vocabulary exactness minimizes the learner's communicative opportunities.

Findings of the question under inquiry approached extents of students' consciousness of their vocabulary choices. A relatively intense tendency to endeavour lexical mismanagement was detected whereby the respondents reported over 66% of answers between *invariable and repetitious habits* to self monitor their vocabulary errors (35.33% replied with *always* besides 30.66% who answered with *often*). These appreciable findings were an approval that participants, as a reflection to the whole population, owe a positive perception about the need for self control over their lexical choices in order to heighten their language proficiency and communicative abilities.

A further proportion of 28% claimed they intermittently tend to address vocabulary exactitude during oral production; this might well be explained by an approximately poor awareness of the serious affect of word choice on the communicative flow and, therefore, decreasing their oral performance.

The least amounts of attention towards lexical correctness were revealed by the fewest numbers of participants: 4% stated they *rarely* appropriate their vocabulary to maintain specific meanings, besides merely 2% who exposed *never* doing so. Speculating the reasons behind this cannot be associated with poor vocabulary only, but low degrees of awareness.

#### Statement Four: The Students' Awareness towards Communicative Breakdowns

To maintain a communicative class is a vital objective in today's EFL teaching; for this reason, researchers, trainers and teachers are involved in a highly complicated process to

rather prompt communication and limit the focus on Grammar; trigger the learner's self control over his meaning instead of addressing form. Inevitably, learners' should be aware of any communicative breakdown as well as the seriousness of a self treatment; they need to realise, at an early stage, that teachers are not allowed to contribute a constant corrective feedback to such kind of spoken failures in consideration of avoiding a disrupted communicative class.

The aim behind this question, therefore, was to explore the intensity of the students' awareness of their communicative mismanagements and how critical it is to operationalize them. If a learner admits he was unable to convey meaning, at any phase of oral production, then s/he is conscious he made an error regardless the fact whether s/he was able to process an appropriate correction or not.

Poor responses of ignorance were detected in students' answers to this question; only 10% claimed they, in *rare* occasions, refrain from speaking to reproduce a comprehensible speech. In addition to a mere percentage of 2.66% reporting they are aware of their communicative flaws *at no time*. Speculations about these results cannot be akin to other factors than some learners' ignorance of the significance towards self monitoring communicative tasks for successful language acquisition.

Nevertheless, acceptable extents of awareness towards involving in the remedy of unintelligible speech were reported among the rest of the sample considering that involving in an error treatment incorporates the possibility of others' correction: 20% stated they always mind others' understanding and, therefore, attempt to handle their communication lapses, besides 34% claimed they *frequently* do. These substantial portions of the sample interpret the elevated averages of awareness towards error treatment of this type, and even those

replying with *sometimes* (33.33%) are affirming their considerable consciousness at occasions, conceivably influenced by an inherited attitude to regard form over meaning.

#### • Statement Five: Awareness and Self Repair of Communicative Breakdowns

While repetition or partial repetition of the erroneous output besides immediate provision of the correct form are the main techniques to overcome Grammar and pronunciation errors, paraphrasing an erroneous sentence rather characterizes communicative failures and indicates the level of self repair. Inquiring extents of using self repair via paraphrasing reveals students' attitudes towards processing their own incomprehensible speech.

Findings revealed considerably vital awareness and willingness to repair communicative breakdowns: 30% of the sample declared an invariable tendency to personally repair any comprehension problems originated from their speech, another percentage of 25.33% reported an approximate response selecting *often* as an answer; the students, via admitting this tendency, are prompted by their readiness to take control over communication as a key towards internalizing the language in a native-like negotiable setting.

A relatively average proportion of 28% stated they attempt to provide self-repair to their intelligibility lapses only at *specific situations*. This category of students may lack the adequate strategic competence to negotiate meaning in all repair situations. We detected further percentages of ignorance in claims of respondents who provided *rarely* (8.66%) and *neve*r (8%) as answers to the question. Probable interpretations to these results, despite their statistical insignificance, can be related to very low rates of awareness: If a learner reflects poorly to his/ her own communicative errors, messages to be communicated will be unintelligibly received by his/her audience which, subsequently, will affect the language acquisition of both the trouble source student and his/ her peers.

#### • Statement Six: The Students' Self Repair of Communicative Breakdowns

Previous findings exposed high extents of awareness towards repair of communicative breakdowns, and while participants revealed a positive attitude to adjust their incomprehensible speech by themselves (55% reported a self repair tendency), they uncovered remarkably hesitant responses to admit the failure of those repair works.

Only 8% of the sample claimed they reproduce favourable self-repair outcome all the time, stating they *never* fail doing so, besides 20% who reported they *rarely* supply such unsuccessful treatment to their communicative breakdowns. These almost unsatisfactory amounts might be well explained by the level of the informants (2<sup>nd</sup> year LMD students) who are still in early stages of mastering efficient techniques to provide flawless communication.

Levels of reluctance were notably acknowledged by replying *sometimes*: 42.66% admitted they hinder comprehensibility in different occasions even after attempting to repair. Added to a percentage of 23.33% asserting they *repetitiously* confront obstacles to communicate the intended meaning. These findings conceded the effects of the inter-language phase on students whose communicative proficiency is not fully reached yet despite elevated awareness. Another explanation can be linked to the students' intention to depend on other participants in conversation to complete the repair work.

Regardless whether successful self repair to this type of error is achieved or not, the respondents of the sample acknowledged an appreciable alertness to operate their communicative breakdowns.

### • Statement Seven: The Students Perception about the Necessity of Corrective Feedback to Convey Meaning

Discovering the extents of learners' dependence on CF to achieve meaning is not the only goal behind this question, but rather how much teachers tend to administer assistance for the

trouble source maker in case of an unsuccessful completion of the repair process which may, mostly, generate a learner's reliance on their teachers to complete repair work in the future.

Results conceded an appreciable denial to this behaviour: The students confirmed their ability to achieve meaning without the teachers' aid, wherein a minimum of 4.66% declared they can complete self repair towards intelligibility *at no time* unless the teacher provides help. This shows poor perseverance of self repair. Moreover, merely 16% reported they *often* fail to repair incomprehensibility when the teacher is not there to support; this frequent failure may be in view of the fact that some students still lack the consequential communicative proficiency at this early stage of acquisition. Nonetheless, this does not call for the teachers' guidance all the time so as to avoid learning inhibition.

Venerable findings were associated with participants' denial of thoroughly losing their capacity without their teachers' assistance whereby they affirmed they are trapped in such a situation *oftentimes* (38%) or at *exclusive occasions* (29.33%), which signifies teachers' impulse to intervene at specific situations only. Either repetitiously or at anomalous situations, the decision to provide CF is based on teachers' individual perceptions about the necessity of obstruction. The respondents here are fully conscious that their teachers used to restrict alternatives of interference, thus, they manage to self monitor their communication out of failure.

The last proportion, 12%, was of those claiming a perfect ability to self repair their communicative lapses, responding by "*never*" to our question, which suggests two persuasive interpretations; one of which is the elevated strategic competence these learners earned (It is impossible, though, to receive no CF at this level of language acquisition), the second factor might be related to teachers' voluntary unwillingness to provide CF for communicative

breakdowns in order to attain convenient interaction, characterized mainly by meaning negotiation and, therefore, more self repair opportunities.

It is noteworthy to state how different types of error were ranked to be considered as a priority of repair by subjects of the study: Students tend to deal with Pronunciation errors as a primary focus, then grammatical inaccuracy and lexicon misuse, and finally communicative failures.

### 5.2.4.3.2 The Students' Perceptions about the Teachers' Attitudes to Target Specific Error Types

The teachers' choice of what is to be repaired is to be approached from the students' perspective. Therefore, some situations were designed to investigate their reaction to the teachers' choice of error types targeted.

Frequency	Al	ways	C	ften	Sor	netimes	R	arely	1	Never	To	tal
Situations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
When speaking in this class, I am not worried about my Grammar errors.	21	14	30	20	59	39.33	27	18	13	8.66	150	100
My teachers emphasize the correction of Grammar errors only.	13	8.66	18	12	49	32.66	34	22.66	36	24	150	100
My teachers focus on the correction of my pronunciation.	39	26	39	26	40	26.66	19	12.66	13	8.66	150	100
My teachers correct merely my wrong lexical choices. ( words' choice)	16	10.66	13	8.66	42	28	39	26	40	26.66	150	100
My teachers interfere only when there is a communicative failure.	15	10	24	16	63	42	36	24	12	8	150	100

Table 5.31: The Students' Perceptions about Error Types Handled by Teachers

# • Statement One: The Students' Perception about Degrees of Inhibition Generated from Grammar Correction

When a learner is worried about his Grammar inaccuracy, this may reflect the continuous pressure imposed by the teacher to operate this type of error. Thereby, this question probes to what extent teachers direct students towards grammatical errors repair rather than other types.

The most remarkable percentage, 39.33%, was disclosed by subjects reporting *occasional* feeling of oppression to respect Grammar correctness which entails a teachers' tendency to emphasize Grammar accuracy in peculiar situations only. Specifying these situations is built upon each teacher's image about what Grammar concepts are rather significant to be repaired whenever an error occurs, or even when it is profitable to do so.

Statistical implications of whether students are encouraged to handle Grammar lapses or not was rather allocated with the options of *always* (14%) and *often*" (20%), suggesting a nearly additional tendency of teachers to set an urge for grammatical accuracy among their students. However, lower percentages, but almost equal to those claiming teachers' continual elicitation of *form appropriateness*, were detected in responses by *rarely*" (18%) and *never* with just 8.66%. The plausible explanation behind these results is the shift from "form-focused teaching to communicative/ task based teaching; wherein, teachers are moving smoothly, and sometimes hardly, from emphasizing *form* towards establishing *communication* as a major target in oral production.

### • Statement Two: The Students Perception about the Intensity of Corrective Feedback on Grammar Errors

This question aims at exploring students' perspective about the intensity of teachers' reliance on administering to Grammar errors.

According to the respondents' observation, low degrees of teachers' interference to address inaccuracy are marked (Either through explicit CF or demands for learners' self repair SR): Only a whole of 20% of the sample affirmed that their teachers request Grammar correctness all the time(8.66%) or continuously(12%), opposed to another 14% that claimed teachers' ignorance of students' inaccurate spoken production selecting the option *never*, this can be interpreted in terms of the communicative preferences teachers are currently adopting. It is evident that maintaining the flow of conversation without invariable interruption preserves the learners' confidence and self-esteem. Moreover, 22% reported that their teachers *barely* provide CF to their grammatical lapses, which reflects a selective corrective behaviour shown by some teachers; as such, they point out inaccuracy in very exclusive occasions (Defined by necessity of correction).

Nonetheless, adhering meaning over form with an inflexible neglect to the latter encourages a fluent yet flawed language. Once teachers refrain from corrective feedback on inaccuracy, they boost *fossilized Grammar*. As such; uncorrected grammatical concepts would be embedded over time, and finally, become a habit that stimulates no urge for self repair in regard to the fact that fossilized Grammar would inhibit noticing errors in the future.

It is meaningful, then, to spot the highest percentage of responses demonstrated in the option *sometimes* (32.66%). Students implied that their teachers intervene to guide the student towards grammatical correctness in specific situations, not very limited but rather necessary, which is conceivably explained by teachers' preference to conserve the communication flow and maintain accuracy as well. Regarding that advances in this requires a skilful and cautious teacher to define where to interfere and where to remain neutral.

### • Statement Three: The Students' Perception about the Intensity of Corrective Feedback on Pronunciation Errors

Exploring students' vision about the intensity of CF to their Pronunciation errors is the aim behind this question. In this regard, a positive teachers' attitude towards operating Pronunciation flaws was considerably acknowledged by participants delivering equal amounts of response via both *always* and *often* to reply on the question (26% for both, see table 5.31). This reveals a high tendency to deal with this type of error as regard to other types, may be by cause of teachers' desire to evoke a native-like fluency in learners. In addition to a proportion of 40 students (26.66%), who claimed their teachers' reliance on *situation specific corrective feedback* when handling misused pronunciation rules; this category of teachers' usually prefers to administer enough amounts, yet not interrupting, of Corrective feedback.

Less than a quarter (1/4) of the sample viewed teachers' interference in its lowest degrees: 12.66% claimed their teachers provide CF to pronunciation flaws at very exclusive occasions; the most plausible explanation is associated with their inclination to secure the interaction continuance. Whereas, only 8.66% confirmed they *never* correction or observations on misused phonetic rules, which may uncover a slight lack of teachers' awareness of the vital role they contribute when selecting what demands an urgent repair without affecting students' interaction.

### • Statement Four: The Students' Perception about the Intensity of Corrective Feedback on Lexical Errors

The inquiry of learners' opinions about extents to which their teachers supply CF to inappropriate lexemes discloses one of the reasons why learners could adopt such behaviour.

Reluctant findings were exposed through the analysis of this question. Subjects could not decide whether their teachers tend to manage lexical choices or not: While the slightly highest percentage- though not notable, 28%- was of those stating they *sometimes* receive CF on the

wrong use of the language diction, the evidence of whether adhering or neglecting the treatment of this type by teachers was statistically distributed with almost equal probabilities between *often* and *rarely*, and then, *always* and *never* (See 5.31). The most persuasive rationale behind these findings lies in the convention of providing enough opportunities for learners to manipulate the language through free lexical choices as a result of its diversity. As such, there is an implication of stimulating self repair left by the teachers to learners in order to adjust words that sound to disrupt the message being communicated.

### • Statement Five: The Students' Perception about the Intensity of Corrective Feedback on Communicative Breakdowns

It is crucial to probe students' image about the extents to which their teachers intervene in communication. In accordance with results, subjects of the study believe that their teachers focus on the treatment of communicative breakdowns in moderate averages. A noteworthy percentage of 42% reported, by replying with *sometimes*, a *selective method* adopted by teachers when it comes to hindering communication, wherein they appoint communicative failures based on distinct circumstances ( Most significantly on the basis of severe miscomprehension). A further inclination of this *selectivity* was observed in responses with *rarely* (34%), which entail very exclusive situation s where the teacher obstructs the communicative flow. This can be conceivably interpreted by means of conserving communication as well as other types' correctness in learners' spoken production.

The informants of the sample affirmed an absolutely insignificant emphasis directed by teachers to communication treatment: 16% claimed their teachers *barely* acknowledge this type as the only target of corrective feedback, besides a proportion of merely 10% who supplied *always* as an answer, indicating that interference to adjust interactional moves has never been a focal strategy by teachers. These low percentages explain teachers' tendency of preserving enough space for negotiation in case of incomprehensible speech. Furthermore,

admitting that teachers' interest is not akin to communicative errors only is an approval of regarding other types as well. Even the least proportion of 8% who delivered *never* as a reaction to the question are admitting that very few teachers believe that erroneous communication should never be confronted with obstructive Cf.

# **5.2.4.3.3** Repair Preferences towards Error types

Exploring the learners' attitudes towards what to correct gave us an insight into what they are used to repair regarding external factors affecting their choices. Whereas in this part we questioned what they want to correct or receive as CF.

Students' desire to rather receive *form-based* than *content-based correction* might well mirror the teaching approach adapted in classroom.

Degrees of Agreement		Strongly		Agree Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Total			
Statements	N	gree %	N %		N %		N %		N			N %	
I want my teacher to correct more my Grammar, Pronunciation and Lexical errors.	79	52.66	48	32	16	10.66	07	4.66	00	0	150	99.98	
I want my teacher to help me when only having a problem in conveying meaning.	51	34	34	22.66	28	18.66	28	18.66	09	6	150	9.98	

Table 5.32: The Students' Preferences about Corrective Feedback of Form and Content

# • Statement One: The Students' Preferences towards the intensity of Corrective Feedback on Grammar and Pronunciation Inaccuracy

This question is to inquire students' explicit preference towards the need for extra assistance via corrective feedback of grammatical and pronunciation errors.

Statistically decisive, findings exposed students' urge for additional guidance when they misuse Grammar or Pronunciation rules; wherein, over the half of the sample, 52.66% *strongly preferred* such behaviour, added to a proportion of 32% who stated their *bare* 

agreement. These results are logically interpreted by learners' eagerness to progress in the inter-language phase via learning correct forms directly from the teacher, therefore, utilizing them to develop language proficiency and avoid over-generalizing some linguistic rules. The logical annotation to this is learners' point of view about the vital role CF plays in strengthening their Grammar and Pronunciation.

On the other hand, via appointing *strongly disagree*, no participant announced his/her interest to receive further CF on Grammar and pronunciation lapses, besides seven students (4.66%) who declared they *disagree* with maximizing teachers' interference to supply correct forms; these two proportions- despite the statistical insignificance- uncovered either a satisfaction of CF amounts already being delivered, or considering CF itself as discouragement.

# • Statement Two: The Students' Preferences towards the Intensity of Corrective Feedback on Lexical and Communicative Breakdowns

In order to attain an explicit indication of whether students of our department need more attention from teachers to provide aid in troublesome communicative situations, we administered this question. And as lexical choices are correlated with convenient communication, we related the two aspects in one question.

Respondents conceded appreciable desire to obtain teachers' backup when goofing to maintain intelligible communication or misuse their diction: 32% announced their firm approval, added to 22.66% stated they demand teachers' support to manage well communicative and lexical breakdowns. The most persuasive reason behind these findings lies in students' desire to earn more strategic competence to negotiate meaning in view of the fact that they actually have poor proficiency at this almost early stage of acquisition.

On the contrary, less than 20% expressed their reluctance to gain from teachers' advocacy; 18.66% did not appreciate having extra repairable moves of teachers in cases on incomprehensible speech, besides a last amount of 6% who implied a totally negative preference by selecting *strongly disagree* as a reply. This category, despite its comparably statistical weak influence, generally have a readiness to self repair communicative flaws not on the basis of full competence only, but also on the consideration of teachers' CF as a discouragement.

Based on results exposed in this part of the questionnaire, we noticed a peculiar pattern in learners' attitudes and preference towards repairing specific types of errors over others, and even receiving corrective feedback on the same types. The students asserted their tendency to primarily self repair Pronunciation errors (75.33%) followed by inaccurate Grammar (66.66%) and lexical wrong choices (66%), then finally, communicative breakdowns (54%). Statistically significant is the implied correlation students made, wherein they ranked their preferences towards receiving CF complementary to their actual attitudes; as such, Grammar and pronunciation errors CF was chiefly preferred(84.66%) than lexical and communicative lapses' (54.66%).

Another annotation worth explaining is the unintentional neglect that teachers reveal towards students' preferences to receive more corrective feedback on their grammatical goofing. As regard to participants' understanding, this type of error is having the least amounts of interest by teachers, 20.66%, (Compared to Pronunciation errors, 52%, lexical choice 36.66%, and communicative failure 16%). it is practically persuasive to interpret this by the previously detected preferences of demanding more CF on Grammar errors, thereby, students' recognition to the quantity of CF would be identified as insufficient.

# 5.2.4.4 Question 04: How to Repair?

The strategies and techniques utilised during a repair work should be investigated to reveal the attitudes of classroom participants in dealing with spoken errors.

# **5.2.4.4.1** Self-Repair Techniques

As discussed earlier in chapter two, learners have specific techniques to overcome their spoken errors. Therefore, their attitude towards utilizing one technique over another is probed in this part.

When you realise you made an error and you intend to correct it, do you:	N	%
Pause and wait for/ ask the teacher to correct	26	17.33
Try to recall the appropriate correction via pausing and	34	22.66
repeating the error more than once		
Try to <b>paraphrase</b> your sentence omitting the error	80	53.33
Ask for your classmates' help	10	6.66
Total	150	99.98%

Table 5.33: The Students' Claims of Applying Self-Repair Techniques

Substantial results were akin to the technique of *paraphrasing* the sentence including the error with 53.33%, which means that students here decided upon the *omission of the error* without dealing with the originated troubled form and, then, *reformulating the whole sentence*. The students, applying this technique, are certainly processing their erroneous speech towards self repair, yet without handling the flawed form or meaning itself (Regardless the fact that communicative breakdowns are exclusively repaired this way), and the logical rationale for this is the students' tendency to preserve time and effort internalizing and recalling the appropriate linguistic form besides the poor strategic proficiency to do so.

The second technique identified by the respondents was *repetition* by 22.66 %, repetition of the whole erroneous sentence, the complete uncorrected form or partial repetition [See chapter 02]. It is logical that learners of a foreign language consume some time to recall the linguistic knowledge acquired while processing any task during the inter-language phase. This

question is an examination of whether students of our sample require time to correct after erring or not.

The students affirmed that they make long or short pauses, with repetition in furtherance of gaining time to retain the correct form. Speculations about the rationale behind this would be the higher awareness and willingness of this category of learners to handle their errors and rehearse the linguistic rules already acquired about the troublesome production in the same time; correspondingly, these learners would utilize extra effortful time to either internalize their failure, but finally, obtain further uptake from their own experience or previous CF.

Nevertheless, when learners are not conscious of the vital role self repair contributes in their learning process, or have poor linguistic backup, they recurrently demand for others' assistance and mainly the teachers'. Accordingly, merely 17.33% declared their dependence on teachers' corrective feedback as a third technique applied. Whereas, barely 6.66% chose *dependence on peers' aid*, apparently due to the frustration brought up by peers whenever intruding on the trouble source production and, therefore, students feel inhibited (An evidence for this was shown in Section 2, peers' correction).

### 5.2.4.4.2 Preferences towards the Teacher's Corrective Feedback

Subjects of the study were introduced to an example of an erroneous (Containing a misuse of the past tense "ed" rule) to his/ her teacher's question. Then, they were asked to describe their appreciation degrees towards different types of possible corrective feedback. [Strategies suggested are based on Ranta § Lyster Taxonomy, 2007)

*The example:* 

*Imagine you have done the oral error in the example below:* 

- Teacher: What did you do in your last vacation?
- Student: I visit my sister in Canada [Grammatical Error]

Degrees of Appreciation		Very reciated	App	reciated	No	eutral	Unap	preciated		Very Unappreciated		Fotal
CF Types	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
"I am sorry! What did you say?"/ Pardon!!  ( Giving you time to revise your answer)	47	31.33	49	32.66	34	22.66	10	6.66	10	6.66	150	99.98
"I visit?"  (Teacher repeats your error with a raised intonation)	15	10	30	20	19	12.66	41	27.33	45	30	150	99.98
"Oh, You visited your sister?" (Teacher corrects your error without making your mates aware that you made an error)	64	42.66	44	29.33	19	12.66	10	6.66	13	8.66	150	99.98
"Last vacation you"  (Teacher stresses the word - last- to indirectly remind you of the appropriate tense)	64	42.66	38	25.33	22	14.66	23	15.33	03	2	150	99.98
"What tense do we use with the word –last-?"	12	8	57	38	59	39.33	16	10.66	06	4	150	99.98
" No, it is :Visited, not :Visit-!!".	12	8	36	24%	22	14.66	50	33.33	30	20	150	99.98
"We say visited because it is in the past tense".	46	30.66	46	30.66	40	26.66	12	8	06	4	150	99.98

**Table 5.34: Degrees of Appreciation towards Different Corrective Feedback Strategoies** 

It is decisive to identify the students' attitudes and preferences towards CF authorized in the view of the fundamentality of acknowledging their preferences in establishing a renewed perspective about error correction itself.

Very accurate findings revealed their preference to receive *reformulations* alternatively to *prompts*, and *implicit* over *explicit* corrective feedback. A consequential majority of 72% reported their approval towards *recasts* as *implicit reformulations*. The proportion was statistically distributed between *strong and simple appreciation* [See item 3 in table 5.34]. On the other hand, a critical percentage of 61.32% showed their interest to receive *explicit correction with meta-linguistic explanation* as an *explicit reformulation* [See item.07]. These findings can be interpreted by the students' eagerness to acquire from notable reformulated output instead of merely prompted aid by the teacher; in this regard former literature of error treatment has shown learners' preference for accurate explicit correction, [see chapter 03, Section 03]. Consequently, subjects of the study preferred *recast* and *explicit correction with explanation* for they contain clear correct input that facilitates internalization in terms of time and effort.

Nonetheless, it is vital to point out the weak extents to which respondents favoured *bare explicit correction* with 32% only [See item 06] revealing their denial to positive perception of this CF type. The apparent question to be asked here: Why exposing this depreciation while accepting *explicit correction with explanation*? The most persuasive factor lies in the nature of both types: Wherein, the latter supplies the learner with a meta-linguistic scope about her/his error which is recognized by him/ her as an additional step towards acquiring the rule, and therefore, generalizing it, the former might call for mere embarrassment and frustration.

Further evidence to this interpretation was spotted in percentages accepting *implicit* over *explicit* CF: Again *recast*, having the highest extents of favourable CF, *elicitation* with

67.96% [See item 04] then *Clarification request* with 64% [See item.1]. Added to 46% who decided upon *meta-linguistic clues* as an explicit prompting [See item.5] and, finally, *repetition* with only 30% [See item.2]. It is substantial to highlight that statistics are the sum of absolute and simple appreciation.

As for the latter comparably small proportion linked to *repetition*, it is probably resulted by a weak comprehension of the linguistic rationale behind repeating the error by the teacher, wherein the learner cannot fully detect the targeted trouble to be repaired.

Having acknowledged the students' preferences towards *implicit Prompts*, *elicitations* and *Clarification requests*, a plausible interpretation relates to former research in the field (eg, Ammar, 2008; Lyster, 2004; Lyster and Ranta, 1997, 2007; Sheen, 2007): learners usually exhibit a high tendency to react positively to signified guidance by the teacher rather than *explicit correction* whereby they avoid all factors affecting their confidence and self-esteem. Furthermore, being confronted with a prompting CF is rather stimulating to their autonomous cognitive skills towards testing their hypotheses about the language.

The relatively low percentage of *Meta-linguistic cueing* (46%) is respectively akin to probable poor linguistic and strategic competencies of some students responding to the current questionnaire.

It is crucial, though, to reconsider students' preference towards *recast*. Taking advantage of a ready-reformulated output is fairly relative when they frequently would not be able to induce the corrective intention from this ambiguous strategy. This will be further inquired in the classroom observation to the authentic reflection of all strategies on students' repairing behaviour.

# 5.3 Summary of Findings of the Techaers' and the Students' Questionnaires

Interrogating the teachers' and the students' attitudes and preferences towards error repair in the department of English, University of Constantine, revealed a twofold- spectrum of findings as regard to the research questions. Both respondents reported harmonious inclinations towards some aspects of error repair, whilst imbalanced preferences were conceded in other aspects. The first annotation was that informants in both sides approved on the substantial contribution and necessity of error remedy in enhancing the learning process (93.75% of teachers' accorded that error repair should be done considering spoken errors as normal phenomena during learning the language, besides 87.5% who confirmed its effectiveness in enhancing students' oral skills). Seemingly incompatible attitudes were detected when identifying who engages more in speech repair work: The students admitted their believed- to be valuable contribution via self-repair SR (With a percentage of 52.66%) while unveiled a strong desire to receive more corrective feedback CF (61.33%) which brings to one's mind that SR amounts were just over estimations of self repair attempts but not genuine. The teachers on the other hand, confirmed their contribution as *inevitable primary* resources of error remedy with 68.75% with regard to the students' poor oral proficiency and SR extents that were approved to be unsatisfactory by 87.5% of them. Nonetheless, dissimilarities were spotted in attitudes about when, what and how to repair. While teachers claimed they postpone their CF till the student finishes her/his troubled utterance (75%) and denied their preference for delayed CF(31.25% only), results were utterly different when the students asserted delayed CF as an overwhelming technique adopted by teachers (76%) besides acknowledging their satisfaction towards immediate CF if provided(42%). Furthermore, distinctions between preferences towards which error type to be repaired were accurately exposed whereby the students demand more corrective attention to be devoted for form errors (84.66%), whereas, the teachers implied their CLT approach via adopting a firm tendency to manage *intelligibility breakdowns* with an overwhelming percentage of 93.5%. Preferences of strategies utilized in repair were expressed in thoroughly different orientations: SR strategies were asserted by 81.25% of the teachers to include *repetitions* against merely 22.66% of the students claiming this repairing behaviour. 72% of the students expressed heir appreciation towards *reformulating CF* (*Recasts* with 72% and *explicit correction+explanation* with 61.32% of appreciation) opposed to the teachers' preferences of *implicit prompts* (31% of confirming their utilization for both *repetitions* and *elicitations*) as claimed to be excellent triggers for higher extents of *uptake*. This might well relate to the unlikeness of perceptions about the effectiveness of CF strategies. The evidence for these similarities and differences in the teachers' and the students' corrective behaviour would be further investigated in the classroom observation analysis.

#### **Conclusion**

This chapter was an inquiry to the teachers' and the students' attitudes and preferences towards the whole repair work of spoken failures. The first hypothesis of the ongoing research "the Teachers' and the students' attitudes and preferences towards conversational repair work would be distinct on the basis of the dissimilarities between the two participants in the levels of awareness and proficiency" was confirmed in this chapter. The teachers and the students reported unalike attitudes especially towards what and how to deal with troublesome speech which highlights their divergent perceptions about the whole process. These findings would be affirmed or rejected throughout the analysis of the classroom observation in the forthcoming chapter.

# **CHAPTER SIX**

# The Analysis of the Classroom Observation

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# Chapter Six

# The Analysis of the Classroom Observation

#### Introduction

The analysis of data derived from the classroom observation constitutes the present chapter. The repair behaviour of 04 teachers and 138 students during a sum of 181.48 minutes is investigated and analysed throughout the four sections of the chapter. The selected classes varied from free discussion of particular topics namely *illegal immigration* and *Immigration* (Session 01 and 02) to presentations (Sessions 03 and 04); this selection allowed a richness of data about the divergence of repair behaviour brought by the nature of each session. The 07 main questions of this inquiry, thereby, are being fully answered throughout the examination of data provided in this chapter which would be an approval or a rejection for what have been discussed in the analysis of both questionnaires and, thus, the research hypotheses.

**Session One** 

Nature of the Course: Communicatively driven teacher-students' Interaction

**Topic: "Illegal Immigration"** 

Date: 22/02/2015

**Duration: 50, 05 Minutes** 

Number of Students: 11 Students

The repair behaviour of 11 students and their teacher was observed during 50 minutes of a

communicatively driven interaction. The students were informed about the theme at the

beginning of the session, and were divided into two groups as regard to their opinions (With

or against illegal immigration). For this purpose, the teacher provided stickers for students:

Those who are with used stickers of a smiling face, whilst those expressing a refusal to the

idea got a sad- face stickers.

The teacher initiated the interaction with jotting down some ideas related to the theme on

the board, leaving a time-gap for the students to think about. Then she elicited discussion with

questions about the causes behind expressing an opinion rather than the other. During the

session, the teacher regularly attempted to involve all the students through prompting

questions which activated more negotiation of form and repair work opportunities.

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# 6.1.1 Were the Students' Errors/Breakdowns Repaired?

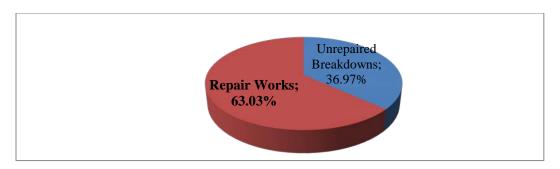
The extents of error repair in a CLT class define the levels of perseverance towards the contribution of this phenomenon in enhancing the learners' oral proficiency along the interlanguage continuum. Should students' oral breakdowns be repaired? This question will be answered via exploring the amounts to which all the participants in this communicatively driven session have cooperated in repair work.

	N	%
Errors/ Breakdowns	223 (- 12 complex errors)=211	100
Repair Works	144 (-11 complex RW)=133	63.03
Appropriated Output	120	54.29

Table 6.1: Errors and Repair Work Done -Session 01-

Out of 211 spoken breakdowns, 133 (Including 11 complex errors) received repair work with a valuable percentage of 63.03%, resulting 54.29 % of desirable output (90.22% if calculated in accordance with the accomplished repair). The interactive nature of the session might well interpret this amount of awareness towards the impact of overcoming errors in order to accomplish flawless communication. Further evidence of this estimated awareness will be inquired via answering the interacted questions about the participants' contribution in repair work and how they consciously managed spoken failures during interaction.

In graph 6.1, the extents of repaired errors besides those unrepaired are exhibited. It is significant to state that the students in this session were set to comfortable conversation and negotiation of meaning which generated higher extents of appropriating their speech.



Graph 6.1: Proportions of Repair Work Done -Session 01-

# 6.1.2 Who was Responsible for Repair Work?

Repair Work Type	N	0/0
S.I.S.R	68	42.5
S.I.O.R	08	5
O.I.S.R	52	32.5
O.I.O.R	32	20
Total	160	100

Table 6.2: The Distribution of Repair Work Types -Session 01-

Findings demonstrated in this table reveal a valuable contribution of the students in repairing their own oral errors. The students' full commitment in repair was marked with 42.5% implying adequate extents of awareness and oral proficiency as well, besides 5% only scored in S.I.O.R whereby the trouble source maker initiates repair but shows an unwillingness to complete it; this is a strong evidence that students in this group lack the sufficient proficiency to fulfil repair work in very few occasions. Nonetheless, the percentages of others' involvement in error treatment imply relative dependency of students on others' assistance in solving the spoken troubles. When the student fails to initiate repair work, it is substantial for the teacher to look deeper in the causes of unsatisfactory degrees of initiation as it is preferred to others' initiation (Schegloff, et. al., 1977). These findings would be further confirmed through discussing the results illustrated in table (6.3) bellow.

<b>Participants</b>	N	%
Students' Self Repair	68	48.12
Teacher's Corrective Feedback	59	39.09
Peers' Interference	17	12.78
Total	144	99.99

Table 6.3: The Participants' Contribution in Repair Work -Session 01-

There was a weighty contribution of students in self monitoring their speech breakdowns in this session. 48.12% of self repair against 39.09% of corrective feedback reflected the highly profitable atmosphere of interaction which provided students with extensive opportunities of self repair due to the secured and comfortable settings of the course. Self initiated self repair has always been preferred to others' interference because it reflects an

advanced proficiency level as much as it is an opportunity to enhance this proficiency itself (Schegloff et. al., 1977). In accordance with this, the relatively high engagement of students in solving their errors in this session can be explained by an elevated level of linguistic and strategic competencies, another speculation would be the availability of self repair contingencies created by the teacher who preserved students' self confidence while interacting about the theme.

The teacher's contribution though was marked to be influential as well. Leading 39.09% of repair work reflects the teacher's adaptability when students failed to self repair; she subsequently authorized CF on the basis that conversational adjustments would not be satisfactory unless supported by some types of prompting and negative evidence (Long, 1996, 2007; The interaction hypothesis). This was evident as well in the teacher's cooperation with peers in solving two negotiation troubles *implying a firm collaboration between all interlocutors and the trouble source maker* [See Items: 09 and 36; appendix C1, 04]

# 6.1.3 Which Errors/Breakdowns Were Repaired?

Identifying error types repaired the most can typify the approach adapted in an EFL classroom. Whether the teaching approach is a *form-based* or *a content-based instruction*, students would embrace relatively an identical approach to that of the teacher without sufficient attention to their preferences.

<b>Participant</b>	Trouble	Teacher	Peers	Total
Error Type	Source Maker			
Grammar Errors	20 (2 Attempts)	17	04	41 (Out of 99 errors)
Phonology Errors	02	02	01	05 (Out of 11 errors)
Lexical Breakdowns	36(2 Attempts)	08	09	53 (Out of 66 breakdowns)
Intelligibility Breakdowns	10	32	03	45 (Out of 47 breakdowns)
Total	68	59	17	144 Out of 223 errors

Table 6.4: The Participants' Contribution in Repair Work in Accordance with Error Types
-Session 01-

Error Type	N	%
Grammar Errors	41	28.47
Phonology Errors	05	3.47
Lexical Breakdowns	53	36.80
Intelligibility Breakdowns	45	31.25
Total	144	99.99

Table 6.5: Error Types Repaired -Session 01-

Note: The percentages are calculated according to the total number of repair works done not to the number of errors/breakdowns committed in each type.

The lexical and comprehensibility troubles received the highest percentages of treatment (36.80% and 31.25%) besides lower percentages of dealing with inaccurate forms (28.47% for Grammar errors and a minimum of 3.47% for Phonology failures). The valuable amounts of repairing lexical choices and unintelligible speech are strong implications of the communicative orientation of the course which adheres content rather than form correctness.

Nonetheless, interpreting these findings should be regarded with caution because the number of errors committed in one type can be small which logically induce less attention of repair. This was apparent for phonological errors whereby the proportion of 05 repair works directed to manage this type does not mirror a low consciousness towards Pronunciation correctness when taking in consideration the sum of errors detected in the same type (11 errors only). The same observation was linked to the management of lexical failures and more accurately intelligibility inconvenience: Although handling the latter constituted an average amount of the whole repair work done with a percentage of 31.25%, the real proportion of treatment targeted almost all *incomprehensibility* occurred during the session (45 out of 47 breakdowns) which heavily validates the interactional nature of the course. Repair of *lexical breakdowns*, also, should be regarded as substantial despite the seemingly average percentage (36.80%) in which 53 out of 66 have received repair.

*Grammar errors*, nonetheless, received less attention (only 41 out of 99 errors obtained repair with a percentage of 28.47% out of the whole repair work). The students' preferences

of self monitoring this error type was detected with 20 Self repairs besides lexical management (36 Self repairs) against a lower willingness to treat these two types by the teacher (17 and 08 corrective moves targeted Grammar and lexical choices in sequence). This is mainly associated with students' eagerness to process form over content in pursuance of attaining more linguistic competence and proficiency about the language rules. The dominance of self repair on lexical adjustments on the other hand was due to the regular

Nevertheless, *intelligibility troubles* repair witnessed the teacher's supremacy with a proportion of 32 Corrective feedbacks against only 10 self repairs. This can be interpreted by the teacher's preferences of triggering content over form via guiding most of repair works detected to convey meaning.

lexical search students' applied to recall a previously acquired form.

It is significantly worth noting that speculating the targeted error type handled in complex repair works occurring in this session can be a roughly impossible. When the teacher authorized a CF to solve a lexical search as in the example below, she was conceivably treating two errors within one repair work

# Example01:

Student: As a result of that, I would illegal immigration because in Algeria we can't ehh...

Teacher: So you mean someone in Algeria cannot develop himself if he is capable or talented and he can do that and develop himself or herself if she's in another country? [Immediate Recast]

In this illustration, the student was reluctant for s/he lacked the adequate linguistic knowledge of the grammatical rule to communicate the desired meaning. This was shown in pausing by the non-lexical filler "ehh". The latter non-verbal marker is considerd as an implicit marker to pass the floor to another participant, who is the teacher in this situation;

whereby she adjusted the grammatical structure and provided the missing lexical items

beneficial to accomplishing intelligibility.

The students, as well, were managing complex errors in a way that solved both lexical and

comprehensibility trouble in two self repairs with the use of body language only. The

following example demonstrates the students' employment of non-verbal resources to

overcome a spoken failure:

Example 02:

Student: People who have money, who have....

(The student puts his hand on his shoulder) [Self Repair]

In this example, the student used body language to express the missing item *power* as he

did not owe the adequate linguistic competence to employ the exact lexeme. Another

illustration for this is shown in item 20 [Appendix C1; Table 04]

Nonetheless, the students seemingly missed achieving their lexical search but still

maintained intelligibility in two other situations whereby they reproduced completely

different contents leaving behind incomplete lexical gaps, which reflects possible weaknesses

in the linguistic competence.

Example 03:

Student: For example they are.... [Missing lexeme]

We are just studying [Self-Repair]

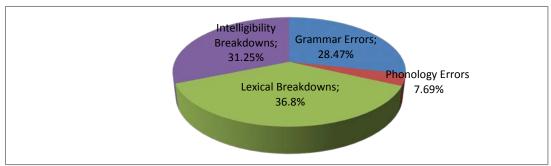
Within the same turn, the student substituted the whole content of her communicative

message when she could not provide the appropriate missing lexeme which preserved the

flow of interaction regardless the unrepaired lexical failure [See also item 29, appendix C1;

table 04].

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Graph 6.2: Proportions of Error Types Handled -Session 01-

Note: The percentages reported in this graph are calculated in accordance with the total number of repair works (144 errors) regardless those considered as *complex* because deciding about the function targeted by the teacher (Treating the error as a grammatical or a lexical item or as an intelligibility problem to be solved, or even both functions) when dealing with a *complex error* is relatively difficult. Therefore, gauging that both functions are being repaired in complex errors was adopted.

#### **6.1.4** When Was Corrective Feedback Provided?

To endeavour a student's spoken errors implies a variation of decisions. Besides choosing to interfere or not and opting for specific types of errors to be handled, the teacher should determine about the appropriate timing to supply CF regarding both the type of the failure and the strategy to be appointed. This will commit or withhold a positive reaction of the student.

CF Timing	N	0/0
Immediate	49(- 07 for Complex RW)	65.62
Postponed	22	34.37
Delayed	00	0
Total	64	99.99

Table 6.6: Immediate, Postponed and Delayed CF -Session 01-

Note: The total amount of corrective feedback is not calculated in accordance with the number of repair works led by the teacher but with regard to the number of turns/moves belonging to the teacher's interference. Some repair works constitute of more than one trajectory; labelled in the current study as compound repair works.

Believing that immediate CF would inhibit the flow of communication (Dubaghi, 2006) has lost its validity since research affirmed the efficacy of CF delivered instantly after the learner commits an error ((Barbetta, Heron, & Heward, 1993; Barbetta, Heward, Bradley, & Miller, 1994; Laurice et.al, 2015). Despite the interactional nature of the current session, the teacher was constantly affording *immediate correction* to her students' errors (65.62%). She

plausibly recognized that benefiting from her CF would not of much impact on students unless she conserves the error setting itself, this is a confirmation that she is monitoring students' understanding during instruction and is responsive to their failures.

While delayed correction (CF at the end of the session or the activity as appointed in this research) was detected at no time due to the interactional nature of the session, postponed CF was scored with 34.37% of the teacher's interference. Providing this after a while-correction was chiefly distinguishing the second, or the third, trajectory in compound repair works (Repair works consisting of more than one stage to be accomplished) to solve incomprehensibility when the first interference appears to be unsuccessful. An example of this is illustrated in the following repair work:

Example 04:

Student: That's it, this is a start

*Teacher: What's your point?* [Immediate Elicitation]

Student: [...] we throw [...] throw our (Hand Gesture of Throwing a gum)

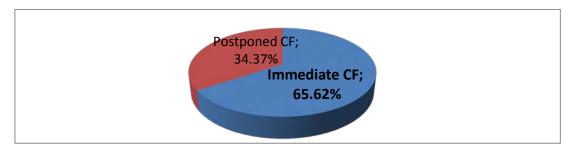
[Partial repetition+ Body Language]

Teacher: yes, we spit everywhere as one of my teachers used to say. [Postponed Recast]

Student: Then we say people who clean the floor don't do their work! This is wrong

[Successful uptake] / Topic Continuation

In this example, the student produced a grammatically correct utterance but without conveying meaning which generated a possible incomprehensibility. The teacher attempted to manage the student's unintelligible speech by an overlapping immediate elicitation assuming that she would reproduce a more accurate utterance. A postponed recasting, however, followed the student's failure to introduce the correct form which allowed a continuation of interaction without going back to self repair the first troubled utterance. Further examples of postponed CF within compound repair works are illustrated in appendix C1 [items 62 and 94; table 01 and items 01,02,03,07 and 09; table 04]



Graph 6.3: Proportions of Immediate, Postponed and Delayed CF -Session 01-

# 6.1.5 How did Participants Repair?

In this part of the analysis, the participants' strategies and techniques to appropriate spken breakdowns are investigated.

# 6.1.5.1 Self-Repair Techniques

Understanding the learners' strategies in operating their own failures enables their teachers to recognise their levels of linguistic and oral competencies and, therefore, would help them in establishing teaching methods that exhibit learning through encouraging these strategies. Moreover, identifying the way they react to the teachers' CF would confirm the utility of strategies utilised by the teacher during the cooperation to solve a spoken trouble. Accordingly, this part inquires both self initiated self repair strategies and techniques resulted as an attitude towards the teachers' CF.

Strategies	(Nor	ı.Lex	(Non.Lex)		(Non.Lex)		(Non.Lex)		Body Language	
Error Types	)+	Ins	+Su	b	+Rep+ Ins		+Rep+ Sub			
<b>Grammar Errors</b>	00	0	04	6.25	02	3.12	14	21.87	00	0
Phonology Errors	00	0	01	1.56	00	0	01	1.56	00	0
Lexical	03	4.68	04	6.25	22	34.37	04	6.25	03	4.68
Breakdowns										
Intelligibility	00	0	03	4.68	04	6.25	01	1.56	02	3.12
Breakdowns										
Total	03	4.68	12 (-02 complex RW) = 10	15.62	28	43.75	20	31.25	05 (-02 Complex RW)=03	4.68
		64 Self Repair Cases (99.98%)								

Table 6.7: The Application of SR Techniques in Accordance with Error Types-Session 01-

Table 6.7 exposes comparably high degrees of involving the *repetition strategy* to fulfil most of self repair done: 43.75% of repetition with insertion was yielded mostly while

managing *lexical breakdowns* whereby the student frequently pauses with quasi-lexical fillers

or cut-offs, repeats a part or the whole of the troubled utterance, then inserts the appropriate

linguistic item after benefiting from the a time-bonus afforded by both the non-lexical

initiator and repetition. An additional proportion including repetition with a substitution of

the non-target like forms (31.25%) was detected in handling inaccurate linguistic forms in

particular. Grammar errors, unlike lexical search, require a substitution of the incorrect output

rather than inserting another, as such students substituted 14 inaccurate forms out of 20

through an intense employment of *non-lexical initiators+ repetition* strategy. The remaining

proportions of repetition with substitution observed while handling lexical and

comprehensibility breakdowns [See table 6.6] were associated mainly with replacing the

wrong choice of lexeme (lexical errors) or reformulating the whole idea to convey meaning

(intelligibility problems). Examples of lexical substitution after repetition were exhibited in

divergent situations during the course [See appendix C1, table 03; items: 03, 54 and 55].

Whilst for the intelligibility breakdown whereby the student repeated a part of her/his

utterance then replaced a lexeme that was believed to be wrongly chosen with another, item

40 [Appendix C<sub>1</sub>, Table 04] demonstrates how the student wanted to convey further meaning

of her/his speech via substitution:

Example 05:

Student: So you're not changing, you're not a good person.

[Partial repetition+ Substitution]

The student here repaired her utterance not because it contained an error but for purposes

of adding extra information to convey the exact meaning with stressing the focal words.

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Nonetheless, bear *substitution* without any repetition (15.62%) characterized primarily Grammar errors' and lexical lapses' self repair (04 substitutions for each type). This is plausibly akin to the nature of these two error types whereby producing a non-target like form calls for the vitalness of substitution once the student is aware about the trouble source. It is significant, though, to state that substitution without any kind of repetition implies relative *advanced cognitive and interactive skills*. Self managing incomprehensibility with substitution, however, is considered to be a mere reformulation when the student feels s/he would not be able to convey meaning the way s/he presented the first time, an example for this is shown in items 29 and 37[Appendix C1, table 04]:

Example 06:

Students 01: Lot of people who risk their lives to travel by (A missing lexeme)

-Or [...] there's a funny person who hid himself in the wheels of the plane (Adapted)

[Non Lexical initiator +substitution]

Example 07:

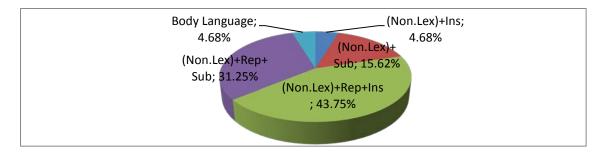
Student 02: Well for me it's not [...] personally I want to go there [...] to change people.

[Non Lexical Initiator +Substitution]

The students here were aware that they did not earn the adequate interactive proficiency to convey meaning the way they started their speech. They, therefore, shifted towards reformulating the whole utterance after initiating with a breath lengthening then appropriating the troubles utterance withing the same turn. The distinction between the two is that the first student conveyed a thoroughly different idea after the substitution while the second reformulated only the structure but not the content.

Worthy to discuss is the utilization of *body language* detected in students' self repair. Two students could convey meaning three times with non-verbal resources (4.68%), which is critically important as evidence of the potentiality of achieving comprehension even without

lexical resources. Illustrations of this can be derived from the previously discussed examples 02 and 04.



Graph 6.4: Proportions of the Application of Self -Repair Techniques-Session 01-

## **6.1.5.2** Corrective Feedback Strategies

The aim behind investigating CF types attended the most by the teacher is to reveal her attitudes and preferences of managing her students' spoken failures. The sums of interference are calculated in accordance with each error type:

The teacher utilised a variety of CF strategies with higher dependency on recasts. Accurate findings conceded the teacher's high reliance on *recasts* to process her students' oral errors with a percentage of 64.06% followed by *elicitations* with more than the quarter of the total CF application and *clarification requests* with a very humble use 7.18%, then comes a single utilization for each of *explicit correction*, *elicitation+ Recasts* and *recast+ Body language*.

CF Strategies Error Types		rificatio Request	Recast		Elicitation		Explicit Correction		Elicitation + Recast		Recast+ Body Language	
Grammar Errors	01	1.56	15	23.43	02	3.12	00	0	00	0	00	uage 0
Phonology Errors	00	0	02	3.12	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Lexical Breakdowns	01	1.56	06	9.37	01	1.56	00	0	00	0	00	0
Intelligibility Breakdowns	01	1.56	25	39.06	14	21.87	01	1.56	01	1.56	01	1.56
Total	03	4.68	48(-07 Complex RW)= 41	64.06	17	25.56	01	1.56	01	1.56	01	1.56
		64 Cases of Interference (99.99%)										

Table 6.8: The Application of Corrective Feedback Strategies in Accordance with Error Types -Session 01-

The substantial provision of *recasts* was clearly noticed in repair works of comprehensibility breakdowns (25 Conversational recasts out of 41). The teacher was implicitly reformulating students' troubled utterances creating communication cut-offs whereby she either provided the missing lexical item that generated speech incomprehensibility as in example 01 previously discussed, or adjusted the appropriate structure in order to adapt the targeted content as in example 09, or just reformulated the

Example 08:

Student: I mean go there with [...] with papers. [Grammatical+ lexical - induced breakdown]

students' utterance to convey further meaning [See item 06; table 04. Appendix C1].

Teacher: You're with going or immigrating to a foreign country without coming back if you have the

official papers that

Student: I mean if I have

Teacher: that permit you to stay there without problems, that's what you mean [Immediate Recast]

Student: Nodding with her head [Non-verbal response]

During few overlapping turns, the teacher assisted the student who could not recall the missing linguistic item due to either a poor linguistic competence or stress effects. Whilst in the second example, the teacher adapted the troubled structure produced by the student to appropriate both form and content with an immediate recast. Subsequently, she implicitly allowed the target-like forms without affecting the students' self-esteem or the flow of communication.

The unobtrusive nature of *recasts* can explain its wide utilization in dealing with Grammar errors *-15 Didactic recasts* out of 40- [See items: 11, 42, 50; table 01. Appendix C1]. Recasts can allow correctness without being noticed as interruptions of the interaction stream (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). This is, however, regarded to be a negative point rather than positive in some classroom settings, in which learners with low proficiency levels or rare confrontation

with this type as a corrective behaviour might well leave the recast unnoticed. The utility of

recasts provided in this session then is to be discussed in the uptake findings.

*Elicitations*, as well, were detected with a fairly important proportion of 26.56%. This

implicit prompting strategy stimulates students' ability to self internalize their errors and gain

more cognitive and interactive proficiency for future similar situations. Accordingly, the

teacher in this session made use of *elicitation* to trigger intelligibility between interlocutors in

an almost perfect communicatively driven teacher-students' interaction whereby14 out of 17

eliciting corrective feedbacks were authorized to negotiate meaning during the whole

interactional session. Even in managing inaccurate forms, *elicitation* was employed twice to

induce the correct target-like output which implies the teacher's intention to activate students'

self internalization and awareness.

Example 09:

Student: He was die

*Teacher: He was?* [Immediate elicitation]

Student: He died [Successful Uptake]

As illustrated in this example, the teacher simply stimulated the student to re-produce the

target form. This is relatively successful with students with sufficient linguistic competence

who can recognise the corrective attentions behind prompting feedback. Another example of

this was shown in item 34 [Appendix C1; table 01].

Moreover, in spite of the potential effectiveness of *clarification requests* as a prompting

strategy (Dilans, 2010), it was fairly applied with a percentage of 6.25% only. The plausible

interpretation behind this is that the students' cognitive, linguistic and interactive skills are not

highly developed yet to recognise the intention behind simple requests of repetition as

"what?", "pardon" and "can you repeat please?. This has redirected the teacher's

preferences towards more accurate strategies like recasts and elicitations. The power behind

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merging the two latter strategies was gauged by the teacher to be beneficial in the following example:

## Example 10:

Teacher: They said it's easier in Italy [...] what would you say?

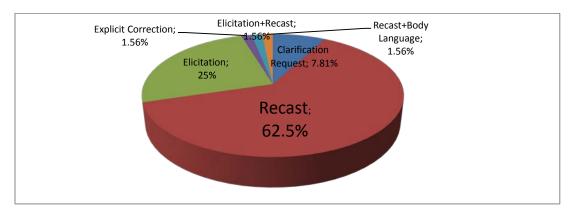
Students: No response

Teacher: She says it's easier to be an immigrant in France than in other European countries, what would you say? [Postponed Recast+ Elicitation]

Student 01: They have the opportunity to have the right papers [Successful Uptake/Repair]

In this example, a comprehension problem has occurred due to the controversial of opinions that students were providing; the teacher's intention to trigger another opinion was not understood at first. But after delivering a postponed eliciting recast, students could have brought more appropriate answers in the third turn.

The employment of a *non-verbal resource* with a recast (2.12%) was seemingly unintentional because the teacher is already aware that she supplied the right correction via recasting only [See item 38; table 04.Appendix C1] and even when she yielded an *explicit correction* that was after a failure of recast to attain the desirable comprehension of the concept "*illegal immigration*" [See item 02; table 04. Appendix C1].



Graph 6.5: Proportions of CF Strategies Application –Session 01-

# 6.1.5.3 The Students' Attitudes towards Corrective Feedback Strategies

Before investigating the uptake degrees generated from the teacher's divergence of CF strategies, their utility can be unveiled in a fairly earlier stage when examining the students' reaction to these strategies. This reaction is to be detected along a continuum from the most negative response (*no response or body language*) to the entirely positive *insertions or substitutions* namely *self repairs* [See figure 4.1: Chapter 04]

SR Strategies	No Response/ Body Language		Request For Aid		Approval [yes]		Approval+ Incorporatio n		Incorporatio n of CF		Approval+ Ins/Sub [Self Repair]		Insertion/ Substitution [Self Repair]	
CF Strategies	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Clarification Request	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	01	2.27
Recast	01	2.27	00	0	06	13.63	03	6.81	01	2.27	07	15.90	07	15.90
Elicitation	02	2.27	01	2.27	00	0	01	2.27	00	0	00	0	12	27.27
Explicit Correction	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Recast+ Elicitation	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	01	2.27
Recast+ Body Language	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	01	2.27
Totals	03	6.81	01	2.27	06	13.63	04	9.09	01	2.27	07	15.90	22	50
44 Responses to the Teacher's CF (99.97%)														

Table 6.9: The Student' Responses to the Teacher's Corrective Feedback - Session 01-

Findings revealed in this table confirm the adequacy of CF strategies yielded in this interactional session. 50% of students' response was completely positive by reacting with *self repairs* that were induced mainly from either insertions of the appropriate output or substitutions of the previously produced non-target forms without any trace of incorporating the teacher's reformulations. Added to 15.90% of *approval* (*yes*) + *Self repair* which is a further indication that CF have generated positive response and appreciation from students' rather than both *the incorporations* (With or without approval) of the ready- made reformulations (11.36%) or even the *approvals* on CF (13.63%) which implies a possibility that the teacher's corrective intention has gone unnoticed by the student. These findings can

be originated in the communicatively driven teacher- student conversation, as such, the teacher allowed strategies which can exhibit the student's autonomous internalization of error treatment and, therefore, enables her/him to devote further self repair. Such strategies are mainly represented by *elicitation*: Reviewing table 6.10 conceded the weighty contribution of elicitation in evoking self- repairs (27.27%). It is highly possible that the teacher estimated an elevated contribution of this strategy in accomplishing extra amounts of self- repair on the basis that it activates learners' cognitive processing of information, this was evident in a variety of previous research (e.g., Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ammar, 2008; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Dilans, 2010). The teacher's estimations were affirmed when 12 out of 14 elicitations generated students' self repair via insertion or substitution.

The noticeable percentages of self repair induced from *recasts* (15.90) for each of *self repairs with and without approval* are not associated with the potentiality of this strategy in generating positive responses as much as being a mere result of the extensive use of it during the whole session: Only 14 recasts (31%) out of 40 have accomplished the desirable positive response of students, whilst 13.63% of students' responses were negative *approvals*, possibly indicating that correction was even unnoticed. Besides 6.81% of *approvals with incorporation* which might have introduced students merely to the correct alternatives of their errors but not learning them. Another perception though is the conversational nature of these recasts, in which they were employed primarily to process intelligibility problems(25 out of the total number of 40) creating higher positive students' response and more self- repair opportunities as shown in the table 6.10.

# 6.1.6 Was Corrective Feedback Successful? Uptake Degrees

	N	%
CF with Uptake	38	64.44
CF without Uptake	21	35.59
Total (CF)	59	99.99

Table 6.10: Degrees of Uptake -Session 01-

Confirming the effectiveness of CF strategies administered in this session would be investigated through identifying the extents generated of uptake, successful uptake in particular. Results reported 64.44% of uptake, between partial and successful and including the five double-function uptakes. This valuable percentage is a further evidence of CF effectiveness in this session, which is linked to the richness of strategies authorized besides their negotiating nature itself (Elicitations and conversational recasts).

Uptake	Successful Uptake	Partial Uptake					
CF Strategies	N	%	N	%			
Clarification Request	01	2.63	01	2.63			
Recast	15	39.47	10(-02 with Double				
			Function) = 08	21.05			
Elicitation	11						
	(-01 with Double Function)	26.31	02	5.26			
	= 10						
Recast+ Body Language	00	0	01	2.63			
Totals	26	68.41	12	31.57			
	38 Uptakes <b>99.98%</b>						

Table 6.11: The Contribution of Corrective Feedback Strategies in Uptake-Session 01-

Calculating the numbers of *successful uptakes* led us to another satisfactory result. 68.41% of uptake generated from CF was successful which, again, implies the efficacy of strategies adapted by the teacher: The extensive utilization of conversational recasts and prompting elicitations (26.56%) have logically created interactional negotiation of meaning that was perfectly managed by *teacher-students' cooperation*. The highest percentages of uptake generated from *recasts* (39.47%) are only an echo of their repetitious application by the teacher as they were chiefly conversational, whilst successful uptake, exclusively, activated via the provision of *elicitations* (26.31%) reflects their utility in stimulating the students'

internalisation of the learning process during error treatment. Example (12) acknowledged the efficiency behind merging the two strategies to shift from a partial towards successful uptake.

Partial uptake, on the contrary, was marked with a nearly average percentage (31.57%) represented mainly in the students' approvals on the teacher's reformulations of errors. It was notable, though; that the teacher had a persistent awareness about managing the students' failures and partial uptakes in a way that stimulates their self-repair, an example for this is illustrated below:

Example 11:

Student: This comes from the economical crisis

Teacher: The Economical crisis in Algeria? [Immediate Conversational Recast]

Student: Yes [Approval]

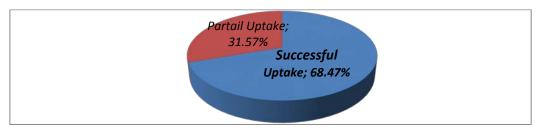
Peer: There's an economical crisis in other countries!

Teacher; If they have problems and we have problems, why not staying here! [Postponed Elicitation]

Peer: It's not the same!

Student: Because Algeria is full of problems, more than other countries [Sub/SR] Topic continuation

The teacher in this situation realized that the content of the student's output was incomplete which was possibly leading to incomprehensibility. She supplied an *immediate recast* but received a mere approval (partial uptake) which led her to re-establishing another corrective move after a peer's interference. The second CF move was a *postponed elicitation* resulting in a successful uptake. A similar example to this was spotted in other situations during interaction [See item 22; table 04. Appendix C1].



Graph 6.6: Proportions of Successful and Partial Uptake -Session 01-

Furthermore, partial uptakes are not firm evidence of unprofitable repair work: As identified in the ongoing research, a peer's positive reaction to the teacher's CF is regarded as a partial uptake on the basis that the trouble source maker has not exposed a similar response. It is vital, however, to attain an uptake even from a peer because assuming that the error maker would not do the same remains relative in the view of the fact that *long-term uptakes* are not measured in the current study. An example of partial uptake observed in peers' responses to the teacher's CF is shown below

Example12:

Student: When the wheels take [ehh] took place [Grammatical SR]

*Teacher: yes, took off, the plane* [Immediate recast]

Student: So it, it will be crashed [...] here in Constantine

Teacher: ah, really?!

Student: yes

Teacher: I heard another story about [Emm] he didn't die.

Student: No, he felt down when the wheels took their places

*Teacher: May be he was a youngster?* 

Student: When the plane [ehh]

Peer: Took off [Partial Uptake/ Repair after 08 turns]

The student here produced a common grammatical error akin to the usage of prepositions; instead of took off, she employed took place which affected the message being conveyed. Despite the provision of the correct form via recasting, the error maker could not realise the teacher's corrective intention whilst another peer has shown uptake after 8 turns which implies feasible uptake and, therefore, learning [For an extra example about peers' uptake see item 13; table 04. Appendix C1].

To this end, the current interactional course exhibited satisfactory extents of collaborative repair work whereby both the teacher and her students involved in a profitable error repair towards the enhancement of the students' oral production.

**Session Two** 

Nature of the Course: Communicatively driven Teacher- students' Interaction

**Topic: "Immigration"** 

« Are you with or against immigration? If with, which country do you want to go to? »

Date: 09/03/2015

**Duration: 45 Minutes** 

**Number of Students: 21 Students** 

The current session observation was conducted during 45 minutes of communicatively

driven interaction. The students were guided with initiating questions like: "What is the

difference between immigrating and migrating?" And "are you with or against

immigration"? These questions allowed discussion towards negotiating a divergence of

opinions which induced situations of repair work and error treatment regarding errors as

natural instances in learning.

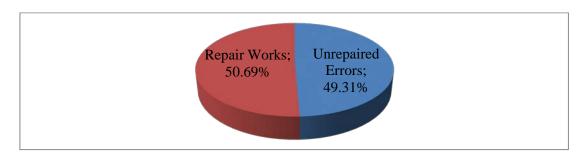
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#### 6.2.1 Were the Students' Errors/Breakdowns Repaired?

	N	%
Errors/Breakdowns	157(-13 Complex errors)=144	100
Repair Works	86(-13 Complex RW)=73	50.69
Appropriated Output	67	46.52

Table 6.12: Errors and Repair Work Done- Session 02-

Results shown in the above table expose an average extent of repair work processed during this session. The half proportion of errors received treatment scoring 46.52% correct target forms (91.78% if calculated according to the percentage of repair work committed). The interactional nature of this session allowed this fairly gratifying extent of repair work.



Graph 6.7: Proportions of Repair Work Done -Session 02-

#### 6.2.2 Who was Responsible for Repair Work?

Repair Work Types	N	%
S.I.S.R	28	30.10
S.I.O.R	02	2.15
O.I.S.R	45	48.38
O.I.O.R	18	19.35
Total	93	99.98

Table 6.13: The Distribution of Repair Work Types-Session 02-

The proportions of repair work according to Hall categorization (2007) have revealed a strong reliance on others' initiation of repair work (48.38% for O.I.S.R and 19.35% for O.I.O.R), which indicates a feasible weakness in the students' oral proficiency and linguistic competency to start an error treatment. The higher degree of O.I.S.R, however, can be associated to either the teacher's successful choice of CF which generated more self-completion or the students' adequate oral proficiency to internalise the CF afforded, or even

both. On the other opposite, the extents of self initiated repairs alert the teacher to investigate the causes of inhibition detected despite the interactional trail of the course which was supposed to activate more self-repair.

Participant	N	%
The Student	28(-02 Complex RW)=26	35.61
Teacher	52(-11 Complex RW)=41	56.16
Peers	06	8.21
Total	73	99.98

Table 6.14: The Participants' Contribution in Repair Work -Session 02-

The inevitability of collaboration during error treatment was not accurately revealed. Regardless the estimated very low engagement of *peers* (8.21%), the teacher's *corrective feedback* (56.16%) unbalanced the relationship with students' *self repair* (35.61%). Speculations about these findings are not associated with the interactional quality of the session as much as being feasible reflections of the students' poor strategic competence and oral proficiency in this class. The teacher, as the most proficient interlocutor (Lyster 2004; Sheen, 2007b), was plausibly obliged to take control over most of repair work committed. This revelation would be confirmed in the following inquiry of strategies adopted by both the teacher and her students during error treatment.

## **6.2.3** Which Error Types were Repaired?

Participant	Trouble	Teacher	Peers	Totals
Error Type	Source Maker			
Grammar Errors	08	14	03	25 out of 73 errors
Phonology Errors	02	03	00	05 out of 11 errors
Lexical Breakdowns	16	19	03	38 out of 43errors
Intelligibility Breakdowns	02	16	00	18 out of 18 errors
Totals	28	52	06	86 Repair works

Table 6.15: The Participants' Contribution in Repair Work in Accordance with Error Types
-Session 02-

Findings in table 6.15 reveal, again, high degrees of the teacher's interference in managing the students' spoken troubles. Both the teacher and her students focused on lexical then

intelligibility breakdowns as the session was an interactional course which targets meaning rather than form.

Error Types	N	%
Grammar Errors	25	29.06%
Phonology Errors	05	5.81%
Lexical Breakdowns	38	44.18
Intelligibility breakdowns	18	20.93%
Total	86	98.98

Table 6.16: Error Types Repaired- Session 02-

Note: The percentages reported in this graph are calculated in accordance with the total number of repair works (86 errors) regardless those considered as complex.

Percentages in this table exhibit a seemingly critical inclination to manage *lexical* and grammatical errors with 44.18% and 29.06% with lower degrees of dealing with both Phonology and incomprehensibility induced breakdowns (5.81% and 20.93% in the same sequence). These findings, though, are not the genuine reflection of repair works destined to a specific error type than another: Whilst inaccurate Grammar received 29.06% of repair works managing merely 25 errors out of 75 which cannot be regarded as a valuable attention towards this type, the apparently low percentage of processing intelligibility troubles is rather deceiving because all the 18 breakdowns were handled either by a self repair (02 out of 18) or the teacher's assistance (16 out of 18). This revelation implies the interactional quality of the session where the teacher emphasized content- induced rather than form- induced errors. The same annotation was reported for phonological and lexical lapses: Out of only 14 Pronunciation errors, one third has been dealt with. Besides 38 lexical errors that have gained awareness out of 43 breakdowns with a roughly more contribution of the teacher (19 CF) against 16 self repair of this type. The notable overwhelming degrees of the teacher's engagement in repairing all error types can be considered as evidence of students' poor linguistic competence and oral proficiency which interpreted the low extents of SR discussed earlier.

Nevertheless, the pedagogical intention of the teacher when dealing with some troubled grammatical structures or lexical search can be thought- out as a double-function repair which affords both form and content correctness. Examining the following examples may well demonstrate this phenomenon:

Example01:

Student: I want to go to England

*Teacher:* Why is that?

Student: Because is I am studying [Grammatical structure error >an intelligibility breakdown]

Teacher: Because you are studying English? [Immediate Recast]

Student: Yes [Approval]

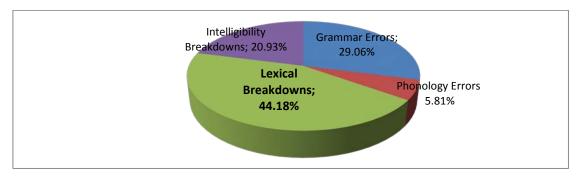
Example02:

Student: A government that has 20 years [...] in present [Wrong choice of lexeme >an Intelligibility breakdown]

Teacher: Ruling the country. [Immediate Recast]

Student: ruling the country, yes [Approval+ Incorporation]

In both examples, the teacher recognized that form correctibility leads to comprehensibility. The absence of the latter was generated from a mal formation of the grammatical structure in the first example, which was rather accurate, while it was induced from the wrong lexical choice (*Present*) in the second example. The teacher, thus, yielded immediate recast in both cases to adjust the students' output.



Graph 6.8: Proportions Error Types Handled -Session 02-

#### **6.2.4** When was Corrective Feedback Provided?

Timing	N	%		
Immediate CF	49 (- 09Complex RW)=40	80		
Postponed CF	12(- 2 Complex RX)= 10	20		
Delayed CF	00	0		
Total	50	100		

Table 6.17: Immediate, Postponed and Delayed Corrective Feedback -Session 02-

In this research, late CF occurring after the student finishes her/his utterance was characterised as a *postponed correction* rather than delayed, whilst corrective behaviour supposedly appearing at the end of the session was labelled as a *delayed CF*. The latter has not been provided in any way considering the interactional essence of the current session. *Immediate CF*, nevertheless, was spotted with a percentage of 80% against a basic provision of *postponed correction* (20%). The rationale behind these results is inherited in the adequacy of instantaneous CF in achieving more comprehension of the corrective intentions of the teacher (Laurice et.al, 2015). Postponed CF, though, was utilised in *compound repair works* whereby the teacher authorized second chances of self repair after accomplishing no desirable outcome from the first corrective interference. An illustration of this appears in the following:

Example03:

Student: They are not all want aggressive.

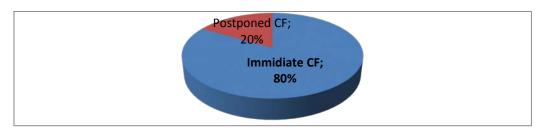
Teacher: They are aggressive [Immediate Recast]

Student: No

Teacher: You mean they are not aggressive? [Postponed Recast]

Student: Yes [Approval]

The teacher in the second turn tried to adjust the grammatically inappropriate utterance with an immediate recast based on a guess of the desired meaning. After recognizing the student's intention, she opted for another postponed recast which activated a mere approval [See also item: 43; table 01; Items: 20 and 40, table 03; and item 12, table 04.Appendix C2].



Graph 6.9: Proportions of Immediate, Postponed and Delayed CF -Session 02-

#### **6.2.5** How did Participants Repair?

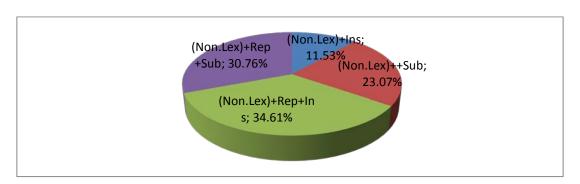
#### **6.2.5.1 Self-Repair Techniques**

SR Strategies	(Non. Lex)+		( Non. Lex)+		(Non. Lex)+		(Non.Lex)+	
Error Types	]	ns	Sub		Rep+ Ins		Rep+ Sub	
Grammar Errors	01	3.84	04	15.38	00	0	03	11.53
Phonology Errors	00	0	00	0	00	0	02	7.69
Lexical Breakdowns	02	7.69	01	3.84	09	34.61	04	15.38
Intelligibility Breakdowns	00	0	02	7.69	00	0	00	0
			07 (-01 for				09 (-01 for	
Total	03	11.53	Complex	23.07	09	34.61	Complex	30.76
			RW) = 06				RW) = 08	
		26 Self	Repair Cases	(100%)				

Table 6.18: The Application of Self Repair Techniques in Accordance with Error Types
-Session 02-

Findings conceded in this table confirm students' attitudes to take advantage of the *time-bonus* afforded by employing *non-lexical initiators+ repetitions*: Either with or without quasi lexical filler, 34.61% of SR was employed in the form of *repetition + insertion* besides 30.76% of self processing errors with *repetition+ substitution*. This is persuasively evident due to the efficacy of this strategy to gain extra time while remembering the target-like form (Schegloff et.al, 1977). Inserting the appropriate item or substituting the non-target form without any repetition (Full or partial) were indicating a less willingness to be yielded by students, in which 11.56% of self repair was detected as insertions and 23.07 as substitutions. It is noteworthy though that even these two direct strategies were delivered after a *time-gap* of non-lexical initiators most of the time. This almost fair distribution of self repair strategies can be interpreted by a probable willingness of students to apply for every technique available in mind in beneficial to overcoming the weaknesses in their oral proficiency.

Critical distinctions in using *insertions and substitutions/ reformulations* were further detected along with each error type. *Lexical breakdowns* were mainly self-repaired via *inserting* the missing lexeme, or lexemes (34.61%), whereas, *inaccurate outputs* were handled via *substituting* them with target-like forms either with or without repetition [See table 6.19]. This is logically accepted because lexical search calls for insertion after remembrance while ungrammatical output calls for substitution to appropriate it. It is worth noting that students did not depend on repetition when dealing with communicative failures; they opted instead for direct substitution after taking advantage of quassi lexical cut offs (7.69%). The rational behind this is that intelligibility troubles are not to be repeated in order to be adjusted; the student needs only to substitute the produced utterance with the intended message.



Graph 6.10: Proportions of Self-Repair Techniques -Session 02-

An annotation to be discussed here is about complex errors receiving self-repair [See items: 08 and 13; table 04.Appendix C2]. One of these is to be illustrated here:

Example 04:

Student: I want to see Algeria like USA, like Canada [...] not by immigrate to work in other countries to [Lexical search]

-I'll push this country to become more development than my country!

[Non-lexical initiator+ Substitution / Reformulation]

In this example, the student remediated her lexical breakdown through tracking backwards and reformulating her utterance after pausing in the same turn as there was a cut-off in the idea. The reproduced utterance included a Grammar error (More development) but conveyed the desirable meaning.

6.2.5.2 Corrective Feedback Strategies

CF Strategies	Clarificat	tion	Rep	etition	Reca	st	Elicita	tion	Exp	licit	Elicit	tation
	Reques	st	_						Corre	ection	+ <b>R</b> e	ecast
Errors Types	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar	00	0	01	2	11	22	02	4	00	0	00	0
Errors												
Phonology	00	0	00	0	04	8	00	0	00	0	00	0
Errors												
Lexical	01	2	01	2	15	30	03	6	00	0	00	0
Breakdowns												
Intelligibility	02	4	03	6	09	18	06	12	01	2	02	4
Breakdowns												
	03(-2				39 (-06		11 (-03					
Total	Complex	2	05	10	Complex	66	Comple	16	01	2	02	4
	RW) = 01				RW) = 33		x RW)					
							=08					
		50 Cases of Interference (100%)										

Table 6.19: The Application of Corrective Feedback in Accordance with Error Types-Session 02-

Findings exposed in this table confirm the teacher's extensive use of recasts to manage her students' spoken failures. 66--% of *recasts* were delivered especially to handle lexical breakdowns (30%), Grammar (22%) and Phonology errors (8%) namely *didactic recasting*, whereas *conversational recasts* were provided only 18% which were delivered in complex repair works. This is not evidence of an apparent emphasis on *form* rather than *content* as it was feasibly an intentional decision of the teacher to utilize other prompting strategies. *Elicitation's* application was detected with a percentage of 16% deployed mostly during intelligibility troubles, followed by *repetitions* with 10% and *clarification requests* with the minimum proportion of 2%. A *combination of recasts with eliciting* feedback was afforded 4% during incomprehensible situations which implies the efficiency of combinations in handling such error type. The teacher plausibly affirmed a preference to solve form troubles with *recasts* rather than other types due to its potentiality in treating this error type (Lyster,

2004) against a tendency of applying a variety of prompting strategies when targeting

communicative problems.

A notable remark here is that the teacher afforded *conversational recasts* (18%) while

managing the communicability of students' speech as possible corrections only. This has

raised the student's awareness of their errors to induce the intended adjustments.

Example 05:

Student: Our country has a lot of things but [ehh] but [Lexical failure]

*Teacher: The way it's governed?* [Immediate Recast]

Student: No, but several people don't know the mazing of our country

[Substitution/ Self Repair+ A new lexical error]

Teacher: The beauty [Immediate Recast]

Student: The beauty, yes [Approval+ Incorporation]

In the first turn, the student's message was not conveyed as there was a missing lexeme(s);

the teacher, then, attempted to provide it having the consciousness that it was possibly the

undesirable word. She used it, however, to elicit the correct target form which subsequently

induced self-repair "the beauty" instead of "the mazing".

The insufficiency of *clarification requests* as implicit prompts in activating the students'

awareness of the vitalness of repair was detected in few cases during this oral course. Item 13

[Table 04; Appendix C2] illustrates the students' incapability to complete repair work when

provided with a mere clarification request:

Example 06:

Student: It's not good for girls [Intelligibility Trouble]

Teacher: Yes? [Immediate Clarification Request]

Student: It's not good for girls Partial Uptake

Teacher: It's not good for girls? [Postponed Repetition]

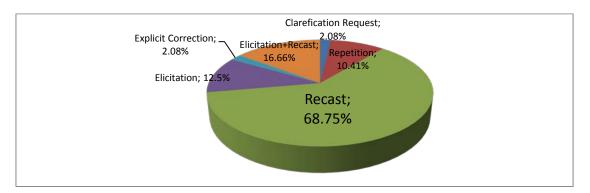
Student: Yes [Partial Uptake]

Teacher: I imagine you getting married (...) you migrate with your husband, will it be good for girls?

[Postponed Recast+ Elicitation]

Student: yes [App; Partial Uptake]

In this example the teacher attempted to solve the incomprehensible statement of the student with a simple immediate *clarification request* but the latter seemed to be unaware of the corrective intention of the teacher whereby she repeated the same utterance. The teacher, in the fourth turn, afforded a *repetition* with a high pitch on the word "girl" to draw the student's attention to the trouble source which, again, was missed by her. This confirms the poor oral proficiency and strategic competence that the students owe in this class whereby they cannot internalise the function of an extremely implicit CF strategy as clarification requests. The teacher finally yielded a *recast* to solve incomprehensibility.



Graph 6.11: Proportions of CF Strategies-Session 02-

# **6.2.5.3** The Students' Attitudes towards Corrective Feedback Strategies

Students' Response CF Strategies	No response Same error Language		Approval		Approval+ Incorporation			Ins/Sub				
Bullegies	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Clarification	03(-01	5.55	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Request	Complex RW) = 02											
Repetition	02	5.55	01	2.77	00	0	00	0	00	0	02(-01 Complex RW) =01	2.77
Recast	02 (-01 Complex RW)= 01	2.77	15(-03 Complex RW)= 12	33.33	06 (-01 Complex RW) = 05	13.88	01	2.77	02	5.55	00	0
Elicitation	00	0	02 (-01 complex RW) = 01	2.77	00	0	00	0	02 (-01 Complex RW) =01	2.77	08 (-03 Complex RW)= 05	13.88
Explicit Correction	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Recast+ Elicitation	00	0	01	2.77	00	0	01	2.77	00	0	00	0
Total	05	13.88	15	41.66	05	13.88	02	5.55	03	8.33	06	16.66
36 Responses (	99.97%)				<u> </u>	l	I	ı		<u>I</u>	<u>                                     </u>	1

Table 6.20: The Students' Responses to the Teacher's Corrective Feedback –Session 02-

Percentages shown in this table exposed relatively negative attitudes towards CF strategies

allowed during the session. 41.66% of responses were mere approvals on the teacher's

interference which indicates that the corrective intention has been left unnoticed and that

benefiting from the error treatment via self internalization was feasibly at its lowest levels.

Speculations about this revelation might be akin to the intensity of recasts provision (Notably

didactic recasts) during interaction, in which the essence of this CF type as an implicit

reformulation triggers no attention of students, most of the time, in spite of its unobtrusive

quality (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, 2007; Yoshida, 2008). This was evident even when adding

an eliciting character to recast while managing the intelligibility breakdown in the example

below:

Example 07:

Student: We hate the people of our country (To express meaning of "The government")

[Inappropriate Lexical choice]

Teacher: Who're in our country or who're governing our country? [Immediate Recast+ Elicitation]

Student: Yes [Approval]

The teacher's apparent corrective intention was to appropriate the student's lexical choice

but the latter responded with an approval only which implies lack of self internalization and

possible failure of adequate learning despite the fact that s/he has understood the teacher's CF.

Furthermore, a more positive response towards recasts was detected in approvals+

incorporation (13.88%) and incorporating the teacher's reformulation (2.77%) besides

approving+ self repair only twice. The latter may be explained as a thorough positive

response towards recast whereby the student could internalize the situation and reproduced

her/his own reformulated correct output. Whilst mere incorporation of the teacher's

reformulation can be regarded as a repetition without activating the cognitive skills that

enhance learning. [For extra examples, see items: 25, 30 and 36; table 03.Appendix C2]. A

remarkable illustration of the failure of incorporating the teacher's recast should be discussed

here:

Example 08:

Student: Young [ehh] young [Lexical failure]

Teacher: Generation? Youth [Immediate Recast]

Student: Yes, youth generation [Approval+ Incorporation > Failure]

The student apparently could not induce the correct output for he could not process the

linguistic reformulation or recognize that the teacher's intention was to utilize the two nouns

"Youth" and "generation" separately. He, subsequently, imitated the teacher's reformulation

without correcting the non-target output which implies neither uptake nor learning of the

target form.

*Elicitations*, nevertheless, generated fairly positive response with 2.77% of *approval+ Self* 

repair besides 13.88% of direct self repair. This might well be interpreted by the prompting

nature inherited in the mechanism of this type, as such, the student receiving elicitation can

depend on autonomous skills to process the ongoing repair work and test her/his hypotheses

about the language beneficial to learning.

Other corrective strategies yielded by the teacher have generated no positive reactions of

students apart from repetition that induced only 2.77% of direct self repair. Explicit

correction, on the other hand, have resulted no response not in any way which is persuasively

linked to the fact that the teacher has supplied this type only in cases where other strategies

failed then she decided to finalise repair work with explicit provision of the appropriate input.

#### 6.2.6 Was Corrective Feedback Successful? Uptake Degrees

Corrective Feedback	N	%
CF with Uptake	37(-07 With double Function)=30	73.17
CF without Uptake	11	26.82
Total (CF)	41	99.99

Table 6.21: Degrees of Uptake -Session 02-

Most of corrective feedback yielded in this session generated uptake (73.82%). This is plausibly associated with the interactional course of the class wherein repair work was negotiable. These seemingly high degrees of uptake are to be accounted with caution because most of the uptake cases were partial. The elevated extents of the students' reaction is conceivably an explicit reflection of the consequential amounts of CF itself in which the previously discussed intensity of the teacher's authority over repair works (56.16%) along with involving students during interaction has generated great proportions of uptake regardless being successful or partial. The feasibility of Corrective strategies' effectiveness is confirmed in the bellow table:

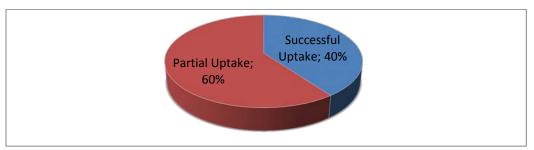
Uptake	Successful Uptake		Partial Uptake			
CF Strategies	N	%	N	%		
Repetition	02(-01 with Double Function)= 01	3.33	00	0		
Recast	07(-01 with Double Function) = 06	20	18(-3 With Double Function) = 13	43.33		
Elicitation	07(-3 with double Function) = 05	16.66	01	3.33		
<b>Explicit Correction</b>	00	0	01	3.33		
Recast+ Elicitation	00	0	01	3.33		
Total	12	40	18	60		
	30 Uptakes (100%)					

Table 6.22: The Contribution of Corrective Feedback Strategies in Uptake -Session 02-

The results reported in this table are a confirmation to those reported earlier in the students' attitudes towards CF. Successful uptake was triggered by *elicitations* (16.66%) rather than *recasts* (20%) whereby the latter percentage was induced from its extensive application only. Whilst merging the two strategies achieved a partial uptake with an approval only, leaving the effectiveness of this combination questionable [See Example 07].

Partial uptake generated after the use of recasts -43.33%- (Didactic in particular) has proved this type to be ineffective in activating students' autonomous internalization of CF provided. Added to the insufficient accomplishment shown in partial uptake induced from elicitation (10%). This can be speculated as a result of poor oral proficiency.

Partial uptake was activated also from some strategies that trigger lower awareness of the students because of their implicitness. In the former illustration of example 06, the clarification request was inadequate to stimulate a successful uptake, whereas affording direct reformulation solved the spoken breakdown bur with partial uptake only. An identical annotation, which is akin to the students' low levels of oral proficiency when receiving implicit prompts, was apparent in item 34 [Table 03; appendix C2].



Graph 6.12: Proportions of Successful and Partial Uptake -Session 02-

Results illustrated in this graph disclose the fair utility of CF yielded during the session: 40% of successful uptake against 60% partial implies unsatisfactory efficacy driven to the students' learning of the linguistic contents that have been negotiated. The most plausible explanation to these findings trace back to the thorough utilization of recasts as instances of correction that went unnoticed by students.

Furthermore, the potentiality of successful uptake itself remains relative. Students sometimes appointed peers' correction as an alternative to their goofing rather than the teacher's as in the following situation:

Example 09:

Student: Then the people of Ain- Saleh [emm] they [Lexical Failure]

Teacher: Protested [Immediate Recast]

Peer: Rebel

Student: Rebel, yes [Approval+ Incorporation]

In this example, the student preferred to adopt his peer's correction over the teacher's

despite of the inappropriate tense which indicates a weak internalization of the reformulated

forms received and implies inadequate levels of linguistic and strategic competencies. It can

indicate, however, the student's high tolerance towards his peers' interference which is

usually absent with learners of EFL.

This session, as a whole, echoed simple conversational repair works wherein the students

performed less than expected self-repairs based on their fair oral proficiency. This allowed

more space for the teacher's corrective feedback to be dominant despite the interactional ature

of the course.

**Session Three** 

**Nature of the Course: Presentations** 

Presentation 01: "Autism" (Only Discussion of Spoken Errors from a previous session)

Presentation 02: "Music"

Date: 15/02/2015

**Duration: 38 Minutes** 

**Number of Students: 30 Students** 

This observation was conducted regarding two possibly influential factors in our analysis:

One of which is the nature of the session as being a course of presentations; this type of oral

classes in our department usually adheres the concept of withholding corrective feedback

(CF) till the end of each presentation. The second factor, however, is earlier knowledge about

the teaching approach believed to be effective by the teacher in this session whereby he

previously reported his preference to *form-based instruction* which would have impact on his

management of students' errors.

The session was divided into two different parts: The first was a short discussion of spoken

failures committed in a previous presentation. Whilst the second included a 3 students'

performance to their presentation entitled "Music".

#### 1- Were the Students' Errors/Breakdowns Repaired?

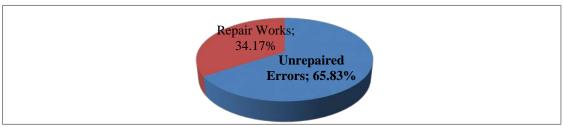
	N	%
Errors/Breakdowns	165(-07 Complex Errors) =158	100
Repair Works	55(-01 Complex RW) =54	34.17
Appropriated output	44	27.84

Table 6.23: Errors and Repair Work Done - Session 03-

This part investigates the degrees of repair work committed in order to answer the question whether students' errors were repaired or not and to expose the degrees of awareness towards speech appropriateness and the willingness to cooperate in this process.

As the table above demonstrates, the degrees of oral lapses operated were nearly unsatisfactory (34.17%). The number of repaired spoken lapses did not surpass the half amount of errors done during the whole session which implies that the participants in this oral course do not pay enough attention to the error treatment. Limitations on the teacher's intervention to convoy correction imposed by the nature of the session as a mere presentation are the most persuasive interpretations to such findings.

Interestingly valuable, Nonetheless, is the number of successful repair works. When the degrees were calculated in accordance with errors done, there was a basic amount of 27.84% which, again, confirmed the unawareness of error treatment. However, if these amounts are to be calculated with regard to repair work accomplished, 81.48% have induced the alternative appropriate forms of the non-target like output implying the efficacy of error treatment in spite of its low intensity.



Graph 6.13: Proportions of Repair Work Done -Session 03-

#### 6.3.2 Who was Responsible for Repair Work?

Repair Work Types	N	%
S.I.S.R	19	33.33
S.I.O.R	01	1.75
O.I.S.R	24	42.10
O.I.O.R	13	22.80
Total	57	99.97

Table 6.24: The Distribution of Repair Work Types -Session 03-

The amounts of self repair and corrective feedback are accurately distinct according to this table. Schegloff.et.al (1977) asserted that self initiated self repair is preferred to other repair types in conversation; in this oral course students produced only 1/3 of the whole repair work done while the teacher's assistance, either via initiation or initiation and completion, was detected with consequential degrees (42.10% of O.I.S.R and 22.80% of O.I.O.R). The rationale behind these results is relatively akin to the students' apparent low oral proficiency and linguistic competence to autonomously manage their spoken failures. The critical annotation to be highlighted is the highest degree spotted in O.I.S.R which indicates average amounts of collaborative repair whereby the teacher initiates and the student completes the process.

The teacher as the most proficient participant was attending to more than the half of repair works fulfilled during the 38 minute session: His dominance on error treatment, though, is approved by a variation of earlier research due to his ability to provide appropriate data about the flawed speech (Catheart and Oslen, 1976; Fanselow, 1977; Lucas, 1976; Lyster 2004; Sheen, 2011).

Participants	N	0/0
The Student	19(-01 Complex RW)=18	33.33
The Teacher	34	62.96
Peers	02	3.70
Total	54	99.99

Table 6.25: The Participants' Contribution in Repair Work-Session 03-

The percentages illustrated in table 6.25 identify a minimum engagement of peers (3.70%) and a fair commitment of students who produced the errors (33.33%) against a valuable percentage of the teacher's contribution in error treatment with 62.96%. It is plausible that students, performing their presentation, could have lost the adequate perseverance towards their errors gauging that information which they brought is flawless, as such, they seldom noticed or self repaired their own errors. Another explanation that might be seemingly unattached to the previous one is the observed bothersome and frustration resulted from the teacher's interference, which inhibited both students' and their peers' readiness to involve in error repair trying to secure their self-esteem. The third feasible reason, and the most apparent, is the students' basic linguistic and strategic competences to engage in a self repair.

What is notably significant that the teacher attempted to minimize the reoccurrence of his interference through clustering errors of the same categories in delayed CF work: He arranged 04 grammatical errors [See the last item in table 01.Appendix C3] in one repair work, besides arranging 03 phonology- induced errors in another single RW [See last item, table 02.Appendix C3]. These examples will be further discussed in "How were errors repaired?"

## 6.3.3 Which Errors/Breakdowns were Repaired?

Participant	Students	Teacher	Peers	
Error Type				
Grammar Errors	03	07	00	10 out of 56
Phonology Errors	04	26	02	32 out of 85
Lexical Errors	11	00	00	11 out of 15
Intelligibility Breakdowns	01	01	00	02 out of 09
Total	19	34	02	55 out of 158

Table 6.26: The Participants' Contribution in Repair Work in Accordance with Error Types
-Session 03-

Error Types	N	%
Grammar Errors	10	18.18
Phonology Errors	32	58.18
Lexical Breakdowns	11	20
Intelligibility Breakdowns	02	3.63
Total	55	99.99

Table 6.27: Error Types Repaired –Session 03-

Note: The percentages reported in this graph are calculated in accordance with the total number of repair works (55 repair works) regardless those considered as *complex*.

The identification of error types repaired the most during an oral session enables an observer to come upon the genuine approaches adopted by the teacher. Results shown in tables 6.26 and 6.27 expose an accurate tendency to operate *phonological errors* (58.18%) with a decisive control of the teacher; 26 out of 32 repair works targeting pronunciation and phonology-induced troubles were led by him. This can be explained by the teacher's inclination to trigger a native-like pronunciation in his students' speech. This eager management of this error type was notably unnecessary in few interferences; the teacher was affording immediate CF on slight shifts in the students' pronunciation and misplaced stress in some occasion which resulted an irritated and turbulent self-confidence amongst students:

Example 01

Student: This is currently /ku:rentli/(...)

Teacher: /ˈkʌrəntli/ [Immediate Recast]

Example 02:

Student: Cure /kju:r/

*Teacher:* /'kjʊə(r)/ [Immediate Recast]

In both examples, the teacher's CF was obtrusive whereby the topic continuation was affected by this unnecessary interference. Other non-target forms however were serious failures that called for error treatment (This will be further illustrated in the discussion of CF strategies utilised).

Accuracy errors, as well, were attended mostly by the teacher [See table 6.26] despite the

very low degrees of handling them (18.18%). Estimating the rationale behind this is related

again to the nature of the session whereby constant interruption of the trouble source maker

during a presentation would detain the flow of speech particularly when the non-target output

does not contravene with a basic rule in Grammar nor does it with the production

communicability. Nonetheless, such intentional neglect of focus on forms might elicit

*fossilized Grammar* if the student regards the error as a correct form.

The confirmation that the teachers' basic approach, at least during the current session,

which was a form- based instruction, was further unveiled through the intirely low amount of

handling comprehension breakdowns which appeared only once: The disruption was a

mishearing- induced error whereby the teacher misinterpreted the student's word

"conventional:

Example 03

Student: Conventional /kpnvpnfənl/ [mishearing-induced breakdown]

Teacher: what? [Immediate Clarification Request]

Student: conventional [Full Repetition]

Teacher: There's "conversion" and "convertible" but "Convertional"! (...) you mean?

[Postponed Meta-linguistic Clue+ Elicitation]

Student: ((متمسك بالإعراف)) There are conventions [Insertion]

adhereing to conventions-

Teacher: conventional? /kən'ven/ənl/ [Postponed Recast]

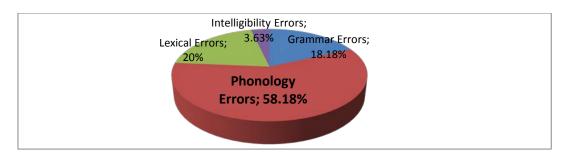
Student: yes [Approval]

The student, in this illustration, attempted to convey meaning using the mother tongue

Arabic after the failure in fixing what was mis-heard by the teacher. This utilisation solved the

unintelligible situation after 04 turns.

It is significantly worth noting that despite eliciting Pronunciation correctness, the students exposed a decisive attitude towards self monitoring their *lexical breakdowns*. The whole proportion of word choice repair was operated by the students themselves (20%). Students, thereby, made their preferences perfectly clear, that is their oral proficiency depends substantially on the lexical diction they earned to solve communicatively driven interaction. Whilst they unintentionally neglected *intelligibility breakdowns*' repair (Only 01 SR) reflecting, also, the teacher's unwillingness to handle this type whereby 06 communicative breakdowns went without negotiation or repair [See table 04.Appendix C3]. These findings are strong evidence that the ongoing oral session was based on form-instruction rather than meaning-based instruction despite the interactional nature of the course.



Graph 6.14: Proportions of Error Types Repaired-Session 03-

#### **6.3.4** When was Corrective Feedback Provided?

Time of CF	N	%
Immediate CF	20	42.55
Postpone CF	17	36.17
Delayed CF	10	21.27
Total	47	99.99

Table 6.28: Immediate, Postponed and Delayed CF -Session 03-

Despite the utility of postponed and delayed CF as conservers of the communication flow according to CLT, the current oral session witnessed the evidence of immediate CF efficacy as advocated by researchers (Barbetta, Heron, & Heward, 1993; Barbetta, Heward, Bradley, & Miller, 1994). 42.55% of instantaneous CF was authorized by the teacher, against 21.27% of delayed and 36.17% of postponed CF. The latter proportion implies the teacher's

consciousness that error treatment should not interrupt the student's utterance, as such, he

repetitiously halted his intervention till the end of the sentence aiming to allow a self revision

for the student. The following example demonstrates the efficacy of postponed CF:

Example 04:

Student: It is firm root in Africa traditional music

*Teacher: It is?* [Postponed Elicitation]

Student: It [...] it has firm root [Uptake/Self Repair]

The student in this example was authorized a double- opportunity to self repair her/his

inaccurate output. S/he received a postponed eliciting feedback assisting her/him in recalling

the correct grammatical rule; this should have set her/him in a relaxed mood to internalize the

flawed utterance which was adjusted in the next turn following the corrective turn.

Delayed CF was mainly administered at the end of the presentation via clustering alike

errors in a single repair work. This was notably observed in dealing with Grammar and

Phonology errors [See items 53,54, 55 and 56;table: 01 and items 82,83,84 and 85; table 02;

Appendix C<sub>3</sub>]. The most conceivable perception behind delaying CF is the nature of the

session that requires withholding consistent CF during the presentation.

Example 05:

Student: Consider /'kpnsidered/

Centered/'sentered/

*Teacher:* (Writes the two words on the board)

How do you pronounce these ones? [ Delayed Elicitation]

Students: /'kənsidəred//sentəred/(...)

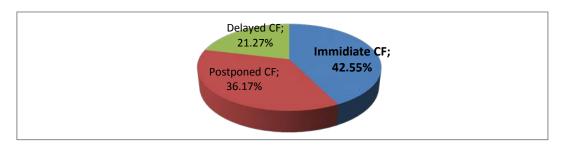
Teacher: Tr: /ˈkənsɪdəred\*/? /sentəred\*/?

Why /'kpnsidəred/? Do you have enough energy to waste?

[Delayed Repetition+ Elicitation Meta-linguistic Clue]

It's just /k an' sida(r)d/ and / senta(r)d/ [Recast]

The teacher here arranged two errors that were formerly induced from the same phonological rule and processed a single repair work for both with divergent CF strategies which could stimulate the students' rememberance of the rule in the future. The teacher's choice of a delayed CF in this illustration can be considered as an intelligent one; he inended to broadly discuss the rule



Graph 6.15: Proportions of Immediate, Postponed and Delayed CF -Session 03-

#### 6.3.5 How did Participants Repair?

Both the teacher and his students contributed in error repair in this session. Despite the comparably low degrees of self-repair (35.18%) against 61.11% of CF, each participant utilised certain strategies to manage repair.

#### **6.3.5.1 Self- Repair Techniques**

SR Strategies	(Non	.Lex)+	(Non. Lex)	+	(Non.	Lex)+	(Non.Lex)+			
	I	ns	Sub		Rep	+Ins	Rep+Sub			
Error Types	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Grammar Errors	00	0	01	5.55	01	5.55	01	5.55		
Phonology Errors	00	0	04	22.22	00	0	00	0		
Lexical Breakdowns	00	0	02	11.11	07	38.88	02	11.11		
Intelligibility Breakdowns	00	0	01	5.55	00	0	00	0		
	00	0	08 (-01 Complex	38.88	08	44.44	03	16.66		
Total			RW) = 07							
18 Self Repair Cases (99.98%)										

Table 6.29: The Application of Self Repair Techniques in accordance with Error Types
-Session 03-

Findings in this table revealed the students' preferences to operate their flawed speech via the *repetition Strategy* with thorough dependence on *quasi-lexical fillers* (61.10% divided into 44.44% of *repetition+Insertion* and 16.66% of *repetition+Substitution*). Speculating

the reason behind these statistics cannot be linked to other interpretations than the students'

tendency to gain a time-bonus when using cut-offs and partial or full repetitions of the

troubled utterance in order to internalize their speech and retrieve the appropriate form.

Furthermore, *repetitions with insertion* of the appropriate language item were at their best

(44.44%). This is conceivably due to the optimal number of self repairs scored in the

treatment of lexical breakdowns whereby all the 11 lexical repair works were operated by

students themselves. In most lexical breakdowns, the trouble source student pauses to search

for the appropriate missing item which sets her/him in an intentional phase of using non-

lexical initiators with rather an intentional repetition of the lexemes preceding the missing

form until the latter is recalled and, then, inserted.

Example 06:

Student1: It is a social [ehh] a total social fact. [Non-lexical initiator+ full repetition+ Insertion]

Example 07:

Student2: researchers found that they are less cr/ia/tive less cr/ia/tive and uuh and uuh more /l/neasy

[Non-Lexical initiator+ partial Repetition+ Insertion]

*Teacher: and mo::re?* [Repetition]

Student: /i/neasy

In both illustrations, the students initiated their self-repair with quassi-lexical fillers in

order to maintain enough time for retreiving the convenient completion. In example 07,

however, the student's self -repair of the lexical search generated a Pronunciation error

(uneasy) which called for the teacher's intervention with a repetition strategy in the second

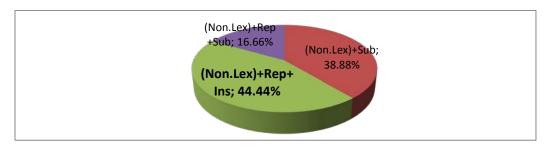
turn; the adjustement of the error was detected in the third turn following the repairing move.

Nonetheless, direct substitution of the non-target form was applied at no time. The very

basic level of language proficiency students owe might well explain the absence of this

strategy in the view of the fact that students do not have the adequate competency to directly

reformulate or substitute the non-target utterance.



Graph 6.16: Proportions of Self- Repair Techniques -Session 03-

#### **6.3.5.2** Corrective Feedback Strategies

The teacher in this session took part in error treatment yielding an amalgam of CF. As table 6.30 demonstrates, a highly accurate flexibility has characterized the teacher's corrective behaviour in which 11 different, yet interacted, techniques were identified: Besides applying for all CF types labelled by researchers (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, 2007; Sheen, 2011), he attempted to endeavour correction with merging some strategies with others. What was rather accurate, though, is that this extensive application of CF was thoroughly focused on *form/accuracy* rather than *content/intelligibility*.

															Co	ombinatio	ons of	Strateg	ies			
CF Strategies Error Type	Clarificati	on Request		Repetition		Recast	•	Elicitation	Meta-	linguistic Clue	Explicit Correctio	n+ Explanati on	Meta- linguistic	Clue+ Elicitation	Clarificati	Request +Elicitatio n	Elicitation +	Recast	Elicitatio+ Repetition +Meta-	linguistic. Clue+ Explicit Correctio		Body Language
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar	00	0	00	0	01	2.12	06	12.76	00	0	00	0	03	6.38	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Phonology	00	0	01	2.12	12	25.53	13	27.65	01	2.12	03	6.38	00	0	01	2.12	01	2.12	01	2.12	01	2.12
Lexical	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Intelligibility	01	2.12	00	0	01	2.12	00	0	01	2.12	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Totals	01	2.12	01	2.12	14	29.78	19	40.42	02	4.25	03	6.38	03	6.38	01	2.12	01	2.12	01	2.12	01	2.12
	<u>II</u>	<u> </u>	1	1	1	1		47	Case	s of In	terfe	rence (9	99.93%	<u>,                                     </u>	<u> </u>	1	<u> </u>	I .				
																06 (	12.74	<del>%</del> )				

Table 6.30: The Application of CF Strategies in Accordance with Error Types

A divergent application of CF is demonstrated in this table. *Elicitation* was authorized the most with a percentage of 40.42% whereby the teacher has been constantly trying to stimulate students' internalization of their own errors in order to activate their rehearsal of the language rules and, therefore, to allow further self repair opportunities (This will be confirmed in the uptake results' section). And as illustrated previously Grammar and Phonology received this corrective strategy more than other error types (06 and 13 elicitations out of 19 as a whole). Persuasively evident is that the teacher's approach of emphasizing *form-based instruction* triggered him to encourage the same interest in his students.

Example 08:

Student: Several genes appears [Grammatical error]

*Teacher: Several genes...?* [Immediate Elicitation]

*Student: (No response)* 

*Teacher: Several ge::nes?* [Postponed Elicitation]

*Student: (No response)* [The student is bothered]

Teacher: Several genes appea::r [Postponed Recast]

In this example, the teacher tried twice to elicit the trouble- source student to reproduce the

target form but the latter failed. He, subsequently, provided the correct form using a recast in

the fourth turn. The student possibly lacked the adequate linguistic competence to benefit

from the teacher's elicitation or, equally persuasive, received this feedback as a bothering

authority which was communicated by facial expressions of frustration and inhibited self-

confidence that observed in the student's behaviour.

An example of successful elicitation, however, is illustrated below; the student was able to

recognise the teacher's corrective intention and immediately appropriated her pronunciation

to the word began.

Example 09:

Student: The first began /begeIn/ in the USA

Teacher: the first...? [Postponed Elicitation]

Student: /bi'gæn/ [Successful Uptake/Repair]

**Recasts**, on the other hand, were notably delivered to handle students' errors (29.78%).

Applying for this strategy was exposed in Pronunciation-induced errors with a proportion of

12 corrections out of 14: The teacher was providing ready- reformulated forms in an *implicit* 

way aiming to conserve both time and the communicative flow.

A mishearing breakdown was induced from a heavy pronunciation of the trouble-source

student to the word "conventional" which generated an incomprehensible output for the

teacher who supplied an immediate *clarification request* to solve the problem, and then he re-

established another corrective turn within the same repair work using meta-linguistic cluing

with an elicitation as previously discussed in example 03.

Furthermore, combinations of CF have been detected to characterize delayed correction

mainly with a proportion of 12.74%, as such; the teacher could arrange errors affecting the

identical or interacted linguistic rules. The accumulation of more than one strategy was not

utilized merely along with the different turns within one repair work, but even within each

single turn itself which was observed in compound repair works. (A compound RW as

identified earlier in Chapter 04 is not a complex RW; it takes more than one turn from the

teacher to solve the error). Two accurate illustrations to exemplify the use of these

combinations are demonstrated in repair work of some Grammar and Phonology errors:

*Example 10:* [See items 53, 54, 55 and 56 Table 01. Appendix C3].

Teacher: you said the first begin playing

Student: No response

Teacher: what do you think is wrong with this sentence? [Delayed Elicitation]

there's this one and another kind you've become kind. music become

These'r the two points I wanted to underline

((Stands up and writes both sentences on the board))

- the first (( writing on the board))

- what do you think is wrong with these two sentences? and what do you think is the common

denominator errors of these two sentences ?[Elicitation+ Meta-lingustic clue]

Students: no response

Teacher: there is a grammatical element which is completly missing in both sentences

- when you say the fi:rst begin playing [Meta-linguwtic clue]

Students: began\_[Repair]

Teacher: the first began

Student 1: becomes

Student 2: became [Repair]

*Teacher: and this one is became* [Confirmation]

- this's not the error that pushed me to write these down it's easier to find it in the firts more than in

the second because of the construction of the second is rather difficult to find the error [Meta-

linguistic clues+Elicitation]

Students: no response

Teacher: the student wrote this essay is intelligent ((writes down another example))

the same error here is there a missing element

Student1: who

Student 2: who began [Successful uptake/ Repair]

*Teacher: the first* 

Students2: who began

Teacher: how do you call that in grammatical terms?

Students: relative pronouns, which became [Successful uptake /Repair]

Teacher: and kind of music which became

The teacher in example 10 operated 04 errors generated from similar grammatical rules

concerning the use of the simple past tense and relative pronouns. The teacher selected 02

sentences to be discussed in a delayed CF, each of which contained a misuse of the tense and

the absence of the appropriate relative pronoun bounding the two clauses of the sentence. In

the first stage of repair work, the utilization of elicitation+ meta-linguistic cueing achieved

no response from students who could not specify the aim from the teacher's elicitation.

Supplying an extra combination of *meta-linguistic clue+ Elicitation*, though, generated a

successful uptake regarding the misuse of tense, whilst a final stage of extensive provision of

the same combination (Meta-linguistic clues, elicitation) has activated the students'

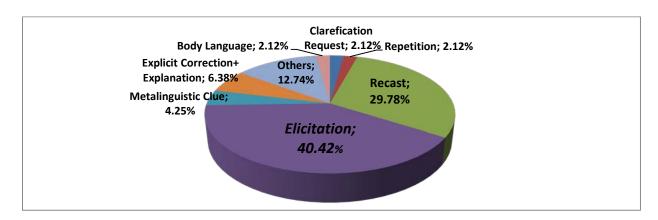
internalization of the error and, therefore, they identified the desired target forms (Relative

Pronouns missed in both sentences). Notably important is the teacher's observed tendency to

provide explanations for the grammatical and phonolology rules associated with the errors

produced.

Appointing a delayed correction, again, the teacher has clustered two errors concerning *the pronunciation of the /r/ in a postvocalic environment* [See example 05]. He emphasized the non-rhotic pronunciation of both words "considered" and "centred" in one repair work on two stages. The first stage consisted of a mere *elicitation* by writing the two words on the board and requesting their pronunciations from students who repeated the same errors producing the /r/ followed by an /e/ instead of a /ə/ ( /ˈkənsɪdəred/ and /sentəred/). The second, however, incorporated an intense provision of 04 CF strategies altogether namely *Repetition, Elicitation, meta-linguistic cueing and recast*. This lengthy corrective feedback could have been afforded as a sense of purposefulness towards thorough comprehension of the rule but it might have decreased students' willingness to self repair in the future as well; they might have lost the opportunity to self internalize and test their own hypotheses about the linguistic content of the process.



Graph 6.17: Proportions of Corrective Feedback Strategies-Session 03

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# 6.3.5.3 The Students' Attitudes towards Corrective Feedback Strategies

Students'	Same eri					Ins/Sub						
	response	•	Appı	oval	Incorp	oration	[Self Repair]					
Responses to	Langu	ıage										
CF Strategies	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%				
Body Language	00	0%	00	0	01	3.44	00	0				
Clarification Request	02	6.89	00	0	00	0	00	0				
Repetition	01	3.44	00	0	0	0	00	0				
Recast	02	6.89	01	3.44	02	6.89	00	0				
Elicitation	09	31.06	00	0	00	0	07	24.13				
Meta-linguistic Clue	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0				
Explicit Correction+	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0				
Explanation												
Elicitation+ Meta-	00	0	00	0	00	0	03	10.34				
linguistic Clue												
Clarification Request+	01	3.44	00	0	00	0	00	0				
Elicitation												
Elicitation+ Recast	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0				
Repetition+ Elicitation+				0	00	0	00	0				
Meta-linguistic Clue+	00	0	00		0							
<b>Explicit Correction</b>												
Total	15	51.27	01	3.44	03	10.34	10	34.48				
	29 Responses (99.98%)											

Table 6.31: The Students' Responses to the Tecaher's Corrective Feedback-Session 03-

Percentages shown in this table unveiled high degrees of deficiency that CF generated during the session. Students' attitudes towards 51.72% of CF yielded were with either *no response*, *non-verbal response* or even with *repeating the same error* which represent an entirely negative response activating self- repair not in any way: *Elicitations*, as they have been allowed the most (19 out of 35 CF), were being responded to with negative attitudes (31.03%) which can be interpreted by the teacher's wrong decision about appointing this prompting strategy to elicit target forms from low- proficient and linguistically less-competent students. Examples of this are extensively illustrated in tables of Grammar and Phonology errors' correction [See item: 01.02, 53, 54, 55 and 56; table 01 and items 06 and 23; table 02. Appendix C3]. For further pursuit of interpretation, example 08 and 11are extracted to be discussed:

Example11:

Student: known /nʌʊn/ [Pronunciation Error]

Teacher: No....[Immediate Elicitation]

Student: /nʌʊn/ [The same error]

The teacher's elicitation was ineffective, and even unwelcomed in example 08 whereby the

student was irritated due to the teacher's persistence against his lack of the appropriate

linguistic form required for self repair. In example 11, the student repeated the same error

/nʌon/ just in the turn following the corrective turn which implied a poor strategic competence

to recognize the teacher's corrective intention.

Nonetheless, the same *prompting strategy* have generated *self.repair* (24.13%) expressing

students' positive attitude towards elicitations. This is evidence of the feasibility of

effectiveness of CF strategies as a whole in the view of the fact that each learner receives CF

in accordance with her/his cognitive skills and oral proficiency. Example 12 below illustrates

the vital role of proficiency in recognizing the teacher's corrective intentions; for similar

examples, items: 17 and 19; table 01 in appendix [C<sub>3</sub>] can be reviewed.

Example 12:

Student: They were simply words [Adverb instead of adjective]

*Teacher: They were what?* [Immediate Elicitation]

Student: They were simple words [Self-repair]

Notably important was the students' no response to the provision of certain strategies (

Meta-linguistic clueing) or even combinations of strategies [See table 6.31] which again

implies the weak linguistic competency that students earn besides probable wrong choice of

the teacher when applying for an intense merging of strategies.

#### 6.3.6 Was Corrective Feedback Successful? Uptake Degrees

Corrective Feedback	N	%
CF with Uptake	19	54.28
CF without Uptake	16	45.72
Total (CF)	35	100

Table 6.32: Degrees of Uptake -Session 03-

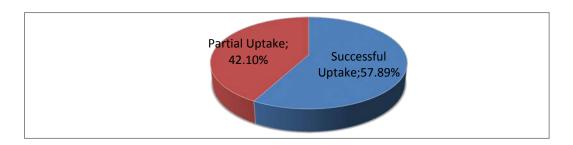
The utility of CF strategies applied can be affirmed through the degrees of resulted uptake in which Yielding a variation of CF has activated 54.28% *uptakes*. Nonetheless, these findings should be interpreted with caution accounting them as tentative due to the relativity of uptake enduringness along the inter-language continuum. This will be discussed in some details when probing the uptake extents accomplished by certain CF strategies.

	Successf	ul Uptake	Partial Uptake				
CF Strategies Uptake	N	%	N	%			
Recast	03	15.78	02	10.52			
Elicitation	05	26.31	05	26.31			
Meta-linguistic Clue	00	0	01	5.26			
Meta-linguistic Clue+ Elicitation	03	15.78	00	0			
Totals	11	57.89	08	42.10			
19 Uptal	99.	97%					

Table 6.33: The Contribution of Corrective Feedback Strategies in Uptake - Session 03-

The distribution of uptake degrees accomplished by certain CF strategies conceded a dominance of *elicitation* (26.31% for each uptake category, partial and successful) in activating students' awareness to benefit from the whole error treatment. A *two-fold interpretation* can be suggested to explain these findings: The first is associated with the approved efficacy of *elicitations* in enabling students to test their hypotheses about the language and self monitor their failures which might trigger an automacity in dealing with future similar errors (Lyster, 1998b). The second fold is linked to the intensity of providing elicitations (40.42%) compared to other types during the whole session, which logically has resulted more elicitation- induced uptake as previously discussed in students' attitudes with 24.13% of positive response/ Self-repair.

**Recasts**, as well, have activated fairly noticeable uptake (15.78% of successful uptake added to 10.52% partial). This is plausibly explained by its efficiency as reformulations that allow the student to make comparisons between her/his ill-formed utterance and the correct linguistic form (This was mainly suggested by Leeman 2003 and the "*Priming*" hypothesis by McDonough and Trofimovish, 2009). Combining both *elicitation* and *recast* has also accomplished 15.78% of successful uptake, which is estimated to be a result of merging their advantages to stimulate students' awareness towards their failures.



Graph 6.18: Proportions of Successful and Partial Uptake -Session 03-

It is significantly decisive to recognize the extents of accomplishment brought by the teacher's CF regardless the variation of strategies. 57.89% of *successful uptake* (The incorporation of the target form by the trouble source student her/himself). The comparably elevated extent of the latter implies the efficacy of CF provided on the basis of its divergence and flexibility. The relativity of uptake benefits, however, was revealed by the notable proportion of partial uptake (42.10%) besides the reluctance of some students in appropriately utilizing target forms that seemed to be excellently internalized in earlier successful uptakes. An example of this was confronted when a student kept repeating an identical phonological error despite her previous production of the correct form during a repair work led by the teacher.

Example 13:

Student: (...) level of extroversion /'ıkstrıveıʃn/

*Teacher: Of?* [Immediate Elicitation]

Student: /'ıkstrı'v3:rʃn/

Teacher: Of?? [Immediate Elicitation]

Student: /'ıkstra'veſn/

Teacher: of / ekstrə'v3:fn/ [postponed Recast]

Student: ok /ikstra/? [Request for aid]

*Teacher: /'əkstrə/* [Postponed Recast]

Student: /'akstra/ [Request for aid]

Teacher (Nodding with his head) [Body Language]

Student: of / ekstrə'v3: sn/ [Successful Uptake/Repair]

Student: (After one turn) of /'ıkstra'veʃn/ and creativity and open-mildness. [Relativity of uptake]

The student could not process the correct form despite a former provision by the teacher. What seemed to be a successful uptake was reproduced as an inappropriate output by the same student after only one turn which highlights the feasibility of efficacy yielded by CF afforded by the teacher and, thus, the whole repair work done.

The significantly detected combinations of CF strategies besides the emphasis on form have characterised this session. Although the students coul not engage in satisfactory SR based on low levels of oral proficiency, there were positive attitudes towars tye teachers' CF which implies a future possibility of enhancing the students' oral production through more planned CF.

## **Session Four**

Nature of the Course: Presentations

Date: 20/02/2015

Duration: [48, 43 Minutes]

Part 01: Presentation "The Truth"

Part 02: The play "The value of Family"

Number of Students: 21 Students

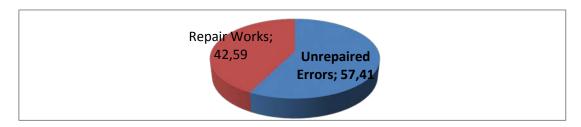
In this course, 15 students were observed on the 20th of February, 2015 at 11am. The 48 minutes oral session was divided into two presentations; one of which was a solo presentation during 26 minutes (Including discussion) and entitled by "The truth". After a provision of abstract information and definitions related to the topic, the student was using quizzes to involve her peers. The second part of the session, enduring 22,43 minutes, was devoted to a five characters' play whose title was left to be discussed at the end.

### 6.4.1 Were the Students' Errors/Breakdowns Repaired?

	N	%
Errors/Breakdowns	114(-06 Complex Errors)=108	100
Repair Work	51(-05 Complex RW)=46	42.59
Appropriated output	42	38.88

Table 6.34: Errors and Repair Work Done - Session 04-

Amounts of repair work in this session did not surpass the half amount of errors committed. A sum of 108 errors was detected in this session including 06 complex errors, whereas error treatments processed was detected with an average degree of 42.59% generating a proportion of 38.88% of appropriated output out of the whole number of oral failures done. Regarding the amounts of unrepaired spoken troubles (57.41%) as exhibited in graph 6.19, the average level of operating errors indicates the relative awareness both the teacher and her students owe towards the critical role of error treatment. It is significant, though, to consider the nature of this oral course in which presentations impose considerable limitations on the readiness to involve in a repair work, especially by the teacher, for maintaining uninterrupted communication purposes.



Graph 6.19: Proportions of Repair Work Done -Session 04-

#### 6.4.2 Who was Responsible for Repair Work?

Repair Work Types	N	%
S.I.S.R	12	22.64
S.I.O.R	02 lexical with peers	3.77
O.I.S.R	21	39.62
O.I.O.R	18	33.96
Total	53	99.99

Table 6.35: The Distribution of Repair Work Types -Session 04-

Percentages demonstrated in table 6.35 reveal that the students' contribution in repair work was at its basic levels whilst the teacher's interference was the basis to consequential amounts of repair work. Either via complete self-repair (22.64%) or S.I.O.R (3.77%), the students' initiation degrees are to be regarded unsatisfactory for that they imply weak awareness of the substantiality of error treatment. Moreover, the degrees of O.I.S.R indicate their attitudes of reliance on other interactants, the teacher in particular, to initiate repair work. These findings can be explained by the nature of this oral course as a presentational session besides feasible poor oral proficiency that students have.

<b>Participants</b>	N	0/0
The Student	25	54.34
The Teacher	12	26.08
Peers	09	19.56
Total	46	99.98

Table 6.36: The Participants' Contribution in Repair Work-Session 04-

The identification of the participant controlling error treatment in this session affirmed the role of the teacher with a dominance of CF over SR and peers' correction. As the most proficient participant, the teacher managed 54.34% regarding the process of handling 5 complex errors as double repair works. It is noteworthy to state that the nature of this kind of oral sessions allows CF rather than SR despite the belief amongst teachers that minimizing their interference during oral presentations would maintain the flow of communication and would authorize more SR opportunities: Whilst teachers believe they would hear more from the learner, the latter provides merely what s/he has memorized by heart of his/her presentation without an active consciousness about the possible non-target forms s/he produces which subsequently calls for the teacher's CF as an alternative. Students' self repair on the other hand scored only 26.08%; this relatively low amount is mainly akin to students' previous preparation of what they say while presenting abstract information or even dialogues in the play case whereby they rarely engage in repair in the view of the conviction that they

are providing flawless output. Peers' assistance was roughly equitable with a minimum percentage of 19.56% logically explained by the prudent participation that peers can afford to avoid bothering their classmates.

## 6.4.3 Which Errors Types were Repaired?

It is certainly critical to spot the type of spoken errors that has been handled the most in such oral course to confirm the teachers' inclination towards correcting different error types.

Participant	Trouble Source	Teacher	Peers	
Error Type	student			
Grammar Errors	04(1 Attempt)	12	00	16 out of 55
Phonology Errors	00	03	01	04 out of 27
Lexical Errors	07(1 Attempt)	10	05	22 out of 22
Intelligibility Breakdowns	01	05	03	09out of 10
Totals	12	30 (5 Complex RW)	09	51 out of 114

Table 6.37: Participants' Contribution in Repair Work in Accordance with Error Types
- Session 04-

Error Types	N	%
Grammar Errors	16	31.37
Phonology Errors	04	7.84
Lexical Breakdowns	22	43.13
Intelligibility Breakdowns	09	17.64
Total	51	99.98

Table 6.38: Percentages of Errors' Types Repaired -Session 04-

As demonstrated in table 6.38, *lexical failures* have received approximately the half proportion of repair works 43.13%, followed by *accuracy troubles* (31.37%) then *comprehensibility breakdowns* (17.64%) and finally *Phonology and Pronunciation errors* with merely 7.84%. The rationale behind these results is plausibly associated with the decisive contribution word choices can achieve in a communicatively driven interaction. For most teachers, and even learners, appropriating the selection of lexemes yields the speech communicability rather than correct Grammar or pronunciation do. Accordingly, students were pausing and searching for the right diction to convey meaning most of the time with self repairing 7 lexical errors out of 22 [See table 6.37] which can be interpreted by their

capability of self controlling their lexical background along the inter-language continuum.

The teacher and the peers as well were cooperating to fulfil this goal of appropriating words'

choice to accomplish more communicability.

The inconsiderable amounts of repairing Phonology errors are conceivably interpreted by

the teacher's intention to withhold breaking the communicative flow based on the

insignificant impact that simple pronunciation deviations have on the communicability of

students' speech. Taking for instance the mispronounced words "need", "feelings" or

"agreement" whereby the trouble source student substituted the /i:/ with the /I/ which does

not violate the message being delivered. Whilst the teacher's intervention appeared in

relatively heavier cases like in "sympathetic", mispronounced by the student as /sim'pati:k/,

which could have detained the exact meaning of the word.

Inaccuracy errors, nonetheless, have been considerably targeted by the teacher: 12 cases of

others' interference were entirely attended by the teacher confirming that keeping the

communicative flow does not imply a thorough inhibition of correct Grammar. Despite the

elevated number of inaccurate forms produced by students during the presentation and the

play (55 errors), the teacher privileged errors that called for a vitalness of correction regarding

the possibility of being fossilized in the future while errors having less impact on speech

communicability were intentionally ignored to avoid irritating students. Examples of

favouring treatment were spotted in table 01 [Appendix C4] whereby the teacher provided

immediate recasting for the students' use of a word function instead of another as in "lazy"

instead of "Laziness" and "the choose" instead of "the choice" besides utilising delayed

explicit corrections for the misuse of superlative:

Example 01:

Student: The most enemy [Grammar error]

Teacher: The biggest or the most dangerous enemy [Immediate recast]/Topic continuation

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Example 02:

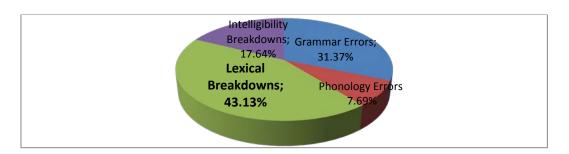
Student: More than [Grammar error]

Teacher: You were saying more than, we express something after "than"! "More than what?"

[Delayed Explicit Correction+ explanation]

Although the CF was immediate in the first illustration while delayed in the second; in both cases, the teacher handled grammatical troubles linked to the usage of comparatives as to consider the seriousness of this kind of errors. The teacher, further, provided an exlicit axplanation to the rule in example 02.

Worthy to note is the thorough control over intelligibility breakdowns. Despite the few cases of incomprehensibility [See table 6.37], they were solved either by a SR or CF which implies a focus on *content-based instruction*.



Graph 6.20: Proportions of Error Types Handled -Session 04-

Note: The percentages reported in this graph are calculated in accordance with the total number of errors (51 errors) regardless those considered as complex errors.

#### 6.4.4 When was Corrective Feedback Provided?

Immediate or delayed, error repair has to take part in EFL teaching and learning. In the analysis of this session, as previously dealt with in session 03, CF delivered instantly after the production of the error is to be considered as an immediate CF, whilst the one afforded after the student's finishes his/her troubled utterance is regarded as postponed correction and treatment left to be allowed at the end of the session, or each presentation, is to be labelled as

delayed. The numbers of immediate, postponed or delayed CF cases will be calculated regarded the CF moves (33 cases of interference) not repair works led by the teacher.

Timing of CF	N	%
Immediate	23(-04 Complex RW)=19	67.85
Postponed	05	17.85
Delayed	05 (-01 Complex RW)=04	14.28
Total	28 Cases of Interference	99.98

Table 6.39: Immediate, Postponed and Delayed CF- Session 04-

Findings revealed an increased impulse of the teacher to administer *immediate correction* with a significant percentage of 67.85% over both postponed (17.85%) and delayed CF (14.28%). This preference is associated with the efficacy inherited in the nature of immediate interference to handle the learners' troubled speech: Despite the inherited belief amongst some researchers and educators that delayed CF conserves the communicative flow and protects the student's self confidence to engage in future SR (Dabbaghi ,2006), other teachers, including the subject of the current observation, favour instant management of students' spoken errors on the basis that interfering immediately after the production of an error implies that the teacher is monitoring students' understanding during instruction and is responsive to their failures utilizing the error .(Barbetta, Heron, & Heward, 1993; Barbetta, Heward, Bradley, & Miller, 1994).

The number of immediate interventions associated with Grammar errors and lexical failures [See tables 01 and 02; appendix C4] confirms the previous interpretation whereby the teacher showed a focus on non-target like forms that might have generated more serious breakdowns. Nearly all intelligibility problems also received immediate CF in order to preserve the communicability of the message and exhibit the essence of the interactional session. Referring to the lonely case of delayed correction detected in the same error category, the teacher has put off CF till a later time regarding its nature as a complex error generated

from a grammatical misjudgement; example 03 illustrates how the teacher detained CF till the end of the session which activated a partial uptake from peers:

Example 03:

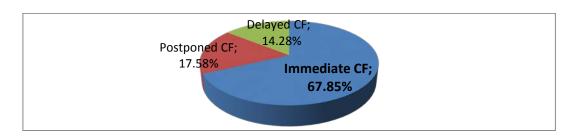
Student: Between two couples

Teacher: Not two couples, you know what does it make? ((ربعه))

[Del. Explicit Correction +Explanation] -Four

Peer: One couple [Sub]

The teacher inserted a word from the Algerian dialect to convey meaning. The corrective intention, here, was to add a pleasant move only because she could have provided the word in the target language 'four'.



Graph 6.21: Proportions of Immediate, Postponed and Delayed CF -Session 04-

## 6.4.5 How did Participants Repair?

This part will reveal the strategies and techniques utilised to overcome the spoken breakdowns made by the students.

## **6.4.5.1 Self Repair Techniques**

SR Strategies	(Non.Lex)+ Ins		,	.Lex)+	,	Lex)+ +Ins	(Non.Lex)+ Rep+Sub		
Error Types	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Grammar Errors	01	8.33	01	8.33	00	0	03	25	
Phonology Errors	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	
Lexical Breakdowns	01	8.33	01	8.33	03	25	01	8.33	
Intelligibility Breakdowns	00	0	01	8.33	00	0	00	0	
Totals	02	16.66	03	25	03	25	04	33.33	
12	2 Self R	epair Case	s (9 <del>9.99</del>	<b>%</b> )					

Table 6.40: The Application of Self Repair Techniques in Accordance with Error Types

Table 6.40 reported how the students in session 04 of the current observation operated

their own errors. Findings reveal no accurate distinction in utilizing a specific self repair

strategy with one type of errors than another. Nonetheless, the strategy of repetition with

insertion (With or without non lexical initiators) characterized students' SF of their lexical

lapses (25%), in which they constantly depend on gaining extra time while recalling the

appropriate word choice via non lexical fillers and repetitions. Two examples for this are

illustrated:

Example 04:

Student 1: We have seen that [...] that small mistakes destroy families

[Non-lexical initiator+ Partial repetition+ Insertion]

Example 05:

Student 2: Look to [...] to Eliza Husband

[Non-lexical initiator+ Partial repetition+ Insertion]

The trouble source students in both cases paused with non lexical fillers (Marked by [...])

and repeated a part of the utterance, then inserted the desired item. The sudent's attempt in the

second example, however, seemed to be a remedy to a memory deficiency rather than repair

because the final output fulfilled the lexical search but preserved the grammatical error 'to'

instead of 'at'.

Grammatical errors, as well, were handled by the trouble source student him/herself in

almost the same way: The substitution of the non-target form which was frequently

accompanied with either a full or a partial repetition of the whole utterance (25%) or without

any repetition (8.33%). This is plausibly explained by the nature of Grammar errors in which,

unlike lexical search, an incorrect item has to be substituted. Examples for this are illustrated

below:

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Example 06:

Student 1: I can't [...] I had [...] I have been

[Non-lexical initiator+ Partial Repetition+ Substitution]

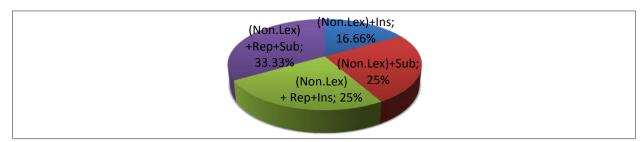
Example 07:

Student 2: We can't turn [...] we can turn hard world upside down.

## [Non-lexical initiator+ full repetition+ Substitution]

In both examples, the students utilized quasi lexical fillers and repeated part of the utterance (Example 06) or the whole of it (Example 07) and, thus, they subsequently replaced the non-target item within the same conversational turn.

The students in this session, therefore, repaired their spoken breakdowns mainly through deploying the *repetition strategy*: Either with an insertion of the missing lexeme or a substitution of the inaccurate output (7 cases out of 12), the students confirmed the legendary efficacy of repetition in self monitoring speech errors (Schegloff et.al., 1976) taking advantage of non-lexical initiators to gain time. Thorough reformulation (Substitution) scored only the quarter of self-repair works which is interpreted by the relatively poor oral proficiency that students earn at this stage of learning.



Graph 6.22: Proportions of Self Repair Strategies -Session 04-

#### **6.4.5.2** Corrective Feedback Strategies

Findings exposed in table 6.33 confirm that the teacher has a preference towards *recasts* (50% of the whole corrective feedback authorized). This preference was accurate in handling Grammar and lexical lapses in particular.

CF Strategies Error Types	Clarifi Req	cation uest	Repe	tition	Rec	east	Elic	citation	_	olicit ection	Exp Correc Explai	ction+	Elicita + Re			Body nguage
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar	00	0	01	3.57	06	21.42	01	3.57	02	7.14	03	10.71	00	0	01	3.57
Errors																
Phonology	01	3.57	00	0	02	7.14	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Errors																
Lexical	01	3.57	00	0	06	21.42	01	3.57	01	3.57	00	0	01	3.75	00	0
Breakdowns																
Intelligibility	01	3.57	00	0	01	3.57	02	7.14	00	0	01	3.57	01	3.75	00	0
Breakdowns																
Total	03 (-01 Complex RW) =02	7.14	01	3.57	15 (-01 complex RW) = 14	50	04	14.28 or's Interfe	03 (-1 Complex RW) =02	7.14	04 ( -01 complex RW) = 03	10.71	02 (-01 complex RW) = 01	3.75	01	3.75

Table 6.41: The Application of CF Strategies in Accordance with Error Types-Session 04-

Recasting is acknowledged to be more efficient in solving inaccurate speech rather than

comprehensibility that needs more negotiating strategies as elicitation (Lyster and Ranta,

2007). The teacher conceivably relied on recasts as an *implicit CF* to detain any kind of

bothersome or irritation of students, but as a reformulating strategy that yields the sufficient

target forms especially for students with low oral proficiency and linguistic competence.

Elicitation as a powerful implicit prompting was utilised with a less focus (14.28%), yet

rather elevated compared to other strategies application. The teacher was aware that

stimulating the desired correct form activates the trouble source student self monitoring

system. Elicitations were equally provided dealing with almost all error types for their

negotiating trait. The vital influence of *elicitation* was revealed in the treatment of a complex

repair work in example 08:

Example 08:

Student: I want to be a presenter [Wrong Lexical choice]

Teacher: In another country? [Immediate Elicitation],

like a minister? [Recast]

Student: On TV, a journalist [Successful Uptake/Repair]

The teacher merged a recast with an elicitation strategy as an extensive corrective work in

order to reach a desirable output from the trouble source studebt, as such, affirming that the

successful uptake was activated with the prompting or the reformulating nature of this CF

remains relative.

A notable example of successful utilization of body language to manage the students' oral

errors was observed in example 09. The favourable outcome resulted from the teacher's

reliance on body language is not a firm evidence of its invariable efficiency as a corrective

strategy, but rather an indication of the student's elevated oral proficiency.

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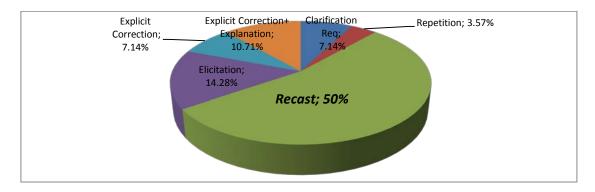
Example 09:

Student: It wills [Grammatical Error]

Teacher: (Raising her eyebrows) [Non-Verbal resource]

Student: No, it was [Successful Uptake/ Repair]

Although most of the teachers claim their readiness to avoid affording explicit correction, with or without meta-linguistic explanation, research has brought evidence that this type of CF is efficient in some context (Li, 2010; Sheen, 2007). This was mirrored in the teacher's corrective behaviour in the ongoing oral course: She utilised explicit correction, with and without an explanation, 17.85% implying her stable relationship with her students whereby she could not have been able to easily manage their spoken errors unless she earned mutual conventions with her them about error treatment.



Graph 6.23: Proportions of CF Strategies Application –Session 04-

#### 6.4.5.3 The Students' Responses towards Corrective Feedback Strategies

The students' responses to the variation of CF provided in this session reflect their efficiency in allowing further self-repair chances. The first annotation to be identified is the whole proportion of responses towards almost the half of repair works led by the teacher (12 out of 26) which confirms the interactional quality of the oral course despite being a presentational session.

Students' Response	Same Error/No Response/ body Language		Appro	oval		oroval+ poration	Incor	poration	Ins/S [Self Re	
CF Strategies	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Body Language	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	01	8.33
2009 Zungunge	02(-01		00		- 00		- 00	·	01	3,00
Clarification	Complex	8.33	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Request	RW) = 01									
Repetition	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	01	8.33
Recast	00	0	03(-01 complex RW) = 02	16.66	01	8.33	02	16.66	00	0
Elicitation	01	8.33	00	0	00	0	00	0	03(-01 Comple x RW) = 02	16.66
Explicit	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Correction										
Explicit Correction+ Explanation	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0
Elicitation+ Recast	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	02 (-01 Comple x RW) = 01	8.33
Totals	02	16.66	02	16.66	01	8.33	02	16.66	05	41.66
			12	(99.97%	<u> </u>					

Table 6.42: The Students' Responses to the Teacher's Corrective Feedback-Session 04-

A further vital point was the students' positive attitude as a reaction to specific CF strategies provided with 41.66% of self repairs as reactions to: Elicitation with 16.66%, then body language, clarification requests and elicitation+ Recast with 8.33% for each. These findings are correlated with both the students' probable elevated strategic competence which enabled them to recognize the corrective intentions behind each CF, elicitations in particular, added to the teacher's awareness of her students' oral proficiency and weaknesses which facilitated the process of appointing a strategy than another. An evidence of a positive response to the teacher's cautious selection of strategies was formerly demonstrated in example 08 whereby the student positively appropriated his outcome in the view of the intelligent choice of CF yielded by the teacher who applied for an eliciting feedback with a suggestion of the possible alternative assuming either a confirmation or a substitution from her student.

Students were responding with further self- repair towards quite implicit strategies

indicating their elevated oral proficiency again: In spite of seldom utilization of *repetition* and

body language (Merely once for each), the attitudes of students towards them was perfectly

positive whereby their application afforded additional self repair because of the students'

feasible high proficiency in both examples 09 (Previously discussed) and 10:

Example 10:

Student: The choose [Grammatical error]

*Teacher: the choice* [Recast]

Student: ((Confused))

*Teacher: The choose* [Postponed repetition]

Student: aah, yes the choice [Approval+ Substitution/ Self-repair]

The student's response to recast was unattainable despite the explicit nature of the latter,

whereas, the repetition of the ungrammatical item generated successful uptake which

indicates that recasts can go without, sometimes, being noticed by the learners.

Recasts, on the other hand, have induced responses between negative (Approval with

16.66%) and fairly positive reactions (Approval+ Incorporation with 8.33% and

*incorporation* with 16.66%). In both situations the feasibility of learning the new target like

form or even being aware of the corrective intention itself should be regarded with caution.

The quality of recasts as ambiguous instances of correction inhibits the learning of the

reformulated item in most of the cases as it has been argued by many researchers (eg: Lyster

and Ranta, 1997; Yoshida, 2008).

Was Corrective Feedback Successful? Uptake Degrees

Calculating the degrees of uptake compared to the number of corrective feedback (25 CF

works) was processed regarding each uptake resulted from a complex repair work as a

double-function uptake on the basis that identifying the student's intention when s/he reacts

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with an uptake is difficult; whether s/he is repairing the comprehensibility of her/his speech or the grammatical/lexical error generating it.

Corrective Feedback	N	%
CF with Uptake	11	44
CF without Uptake	14	56
Total (CF)	25	100

Table 6.43: Degrees of Uptake -Session 04-

Corrective feedback in this session resulted 44% of uptake. This Fairly significant percentage implies the relative efficacy of different CF afforded during this session confirming findings revealed in table 6.34.

Based on the categorization of what is considered as successful or a partial uptake in the present study, the application of different CF strategies in the current session authorized 61.53% of successful uptake and 38.46% of partial uptake. In spite of the very small proportion of successful uptakes regarded the whole number of corrective feedback works (07 out of 25 CF), it is considered to be rather valuable as regard to the total proportion of uptakes (07 out of 11). Speculations about these findings might be associated with the teacher's competence of providing strategies that authorize students' self repair despite the feasible basic oral proficiency.

Uptake	Successful Up	otake	Partial Upta	ke
CF Strategies	N	%	N	%
Clarification Request	00	0	01	9.09
Repetition	01	9.09	00	0
Recast	03	27.27	02(-01 with Double	9.09
			Function) = 01	
Elicitation	02(-01 with Double	9.09	00	0
	Function) = $01$			
Explicit Correction+	00	0	02 (-01 with	9.09
Explanation			Double Function)=	
			01	
Elicitation+ Recast	02(-01 with Double	9.09	01	9.09
	Function) = $01$			
Body Language	01	9.09	00	0
Total	07	63.63	04	36.36
		11 Uptake	s (100%)	

Table 6.44: The Contribution of Corrective Feedback Strategies in Uptake -Session 04-

In accordance with findings reported in this table, *recasts* could induce the highest percentages of uptake in this session. Regardless the proportion of partial uptake detected (9.09%), 27.27% of successful uptake was accomplished by just reformulating the students' non-target utterances. This comparably elevated percentage does not imply recasts' effectiveness as much as it was an echo of the extensive its application during repair work convoyed by the teacher. This was conveyed earlier by laboratory studies in the field arguing that *recasts* activate more successful repair despite their ambiguity as a consequence of their wide and repetitious utilization by teachers (Lyster& Ranta, 1997).

*Elicitation*, furthermore, has achieved comparably vital uptake. Considering that this CF strategy has been administered only 03 times during the whole session, the proportion of successful uptake resulted from one of these elicitations is a confirmation of its effectiveness in prompting successful uptake and, therefore, future self repair (Lyster, 2004).

Combining the two previous CF types, *recast and elicitation* have activated a single successful uptake which, again, reveals the exclusive utility of merging these strategies as to consider the student's capacity of internalization afforded by elicitation and the unobtrusive attribute of recast. An illustration of this was previously discussed in example 08 whereby the teacher yielded an elicitation followed by recast as an implicit reformulation.

The distribution of uptake proportions between the other CF strategies utilised [See table 6.36] is evidence that applying for a variation of corrective behaviour allows further opportunities of uptake and self repair.



Graph 6.24: Degrees of Successful and Partial Uptake –Session 04-

A brief summary to the analysis of this session can be highlighted in the relative success of conversational repair work echoed in the variety of CF afforded and the students' responses to this feedback.

### 6.5 An Over-All Summary and Discussion of Classroom Observation Findings

The current classroom observation dealt with the main research questions; participants' repair behaviour was explored and uptake amounts generated were calculated to reveal the degrees of collaboration in error treatment. Table [6.37] highlights the major findings in the four oral classes observed and analysed.

As a primary phase, the extents of repair work accomplished were investigated. In the first two sessions, relatively high extents of repair work were detected with the highest percentage in session one (63.03%) then 50.69% in the second. Nonetheless, less than the average-percentages were observed in the fourth session with 42.59% and the third with a least amount of 34.17%. The plausible reason behind this is akin to the nature of these oral courses: The communicatively driven teacher-student interaction characterising the first two sessions exhibited a negotiable trait of repair; such influence, however, could not be found in the two other sessions as they were constituted of presentations which entail interaction mostly at the end of each presentation and, therefore, minimise repair opportunities. A worth explaining annotation here is the elevated degree of RW spotted in the first session against the one resulted in the third. It was evident that the teacher's flexible corrective behaviour in the former authorised further SR and even relatively higher extents of uptake compared to the other sessions, in the latter however, collaborative RW was detained due to the teacher's unawareness of his students' low proficiency level and poor strategic competence.

Sessions Observed Main Questions	Session One	Session	n Two	Session	Three	Session	ı Four	
Were Students' Errors Repaired?	Out of 211 errors, 133 w repaired = 63.03%		of 144 errors,37 were epaired =50.69% Out of 158 errors, 54 were repaired=34.17%		Out of 108 err repaired=	· ·		
Who was Responsible for Repair Work?	<b>SR=48.12%</b> CF=39.09% Peer= 12.78%	SR=35 <b>CF=56</b> Peer=8	.16%	SR=33.33% <b>CF=62.96%</b> Peer=3.7%		SR=26.08% <b>CF=54.34%</b> Peer= 19.56%		
Which Error Types Were Repaired?	Grammar=28.47% Phonology= 3.47% Lexical=36.80% Intelligibility= 31.25%	Phonology <b>Lexical</b> =	honology=5.81% Phonologyexical= 44.18% Lexi		=18.18% y= <b>58.18%</b> l=20% ty= 3.63%	Grammar= Phonology <b>Lexical=</b> Intelligibilit	v= 7.84% <b>43.13%</b>	
When was Corrective Feedback Provided?	Immediate= 65.62% Postponed= 34.37% Delayed= 0%	Immediat Postpone Delaye	d= 20%	<b>Immediate</b> Postponed Delayed=	= 36.17%	Immediate= 67.85%  Postponed= 17.85%  Delayed= 14.28%		
How Did Participants	Dominant SR technique  1-Non-Lex+Rep+Ins= 43.  2-Non-Lex+Rep+Sub = 31	75% 1-Non-Lex+Rep	Dominant SR techniques:  1-Non-Lex+Rep+Ins=34.61%  2-Non-Lex+Rep+sub=30.76%		Dominant SR techniques: 1-Non-Lex+Sub=38.88% 2-Non-Lex+Rep+Ins=44.44%		techniques : +Sub=25% ep+Ins=25% e+Sub=33.33%	
Repair?	Dominant CF Strategie  1- Recast= 64.06%  (Mainly Conversational Rec 2-Elicitation= 26.56%	asts) 1-Recast= (Didactic + Conver	:68.75% rsational Recasts)	3-Combinations of (Mainly Elicitat	78% (Didactic) tation=40.42% strategies=12.74% ions+ Recast or	Dominant Cl 1-Recast=50 2-Elicitatio	% (Didactic)	
What Were students' Attitudes towards CF?	5- App=13.63% 6-Request for Aid=2.27%		b]=16.66% /Sub]=8.33% ration=13.88% ion=8.33% 41.66% ame error/Body =13.88%	1-SR [Ins/Su  2-Incorporat  3-App=  4- No response/S  language:	ib]=34.48% ion=10.34% :3.44% ame error/Body	1-SR [Ins/Su / 2-App+Incorporati 4-App= / 5-No response Body langua	ration= 8.33% on= 16.66% 166%	
Was CF successful? [Uptake Degrees]		73.17% of CF activities  rtial Successful = 40%	Partial = 60%	54.28% of CF activated uptake  Successful Partial  =57.89% =42.10%		44% of CF activated uptake  Successful Partia =63.63% =36.36%		

Table 6.45: An Over-All Summary of the Classroom Observation Findings

The leader of error treatment in most of the oral classes observed was the teacher. Apart from the first session whereby CF was afforded with only 39.09% against 48.12% of SR, the three other sessions scored comparably noticeable interference of the teacher in error treatment: 64.81% in the third, 56.16% in the second and 54.34% in the fourth. The CF percentages in the two last sessions are persuasively linked to the nature of both courses in which most of CF is introduced at the end of each presentation in a corrective more than a **repairing** manner; i.e, teachers in the department of English, Constantine University, tend to cluster students' errors during presentations and supply direct corrections to the non-target forms without negotiation in most cases which, barely, authorises SR. Nonetheless, CF exceeded the half in the second session despite its interactional influence that could generate more SR opportunities; this could be translated with either the teacher's misuse of corrective behaviour in some situations or the students' low oral proficiency needed to self monitor erroneous speech. The latter reason could be the rationale behind the elevated amounts of CF in the third session whereby the teacher continuously provided prompting feedback that seemed to surpass his students' strategic competency [See Session 03, CF strategies]. An extra affirmation for lower degrees of proficiency was implied in the minimum interference of peers: 8.21% in the second session and merely 3.7% in the third; such unsatisfactory contribution could reveal the incapability of adding to the repair work.

Inquiring which types were dealt with during the classroom observation exposed the participants, teachers and students, attitudes to adjust their lexical choices [See table 6.37]. While teachers in sessions 01, 02 and 04 revealed strong tendencies to target their students' misuse of vocabulary, the teacher in the third session confirmed his form-based teaching via an intense focus on Phonology errors (26 CF out of 32 RWs) then on Grammar errors with 7 CFs out of 10 RWs against his students willingness to handle all their lexical breakdowns [See table 6.21]. Students' preference to self monitor this error type was evident along the

whole observation as well [See tables: 6.3; 6.12 & 6.30]. Nonetheless, their eagerness to handle grammatical errors over intelligibility breakdowns was disclosed in the interactional classes despite the communicative nature of the course and the teachers' impulsive emphasis on intelligibility [See tables: 6.3 and 6.12]. This could respectively identify the students' preferences of which errors to self repair (Lexical then grammatical errors) against the teachers' conventions of CF (Lexical and Intelligibility failures).

Furthermore, timing of providing CF during the whole classroom observation was almost immediate regardless the type of each course [See table 6.37]. The dissimilarities, however, were observed in delayed feedback provided exclusively at the end of the activity or the session in the current study: It was thoroughly absent in the interactional courses as they allow instantaneous feedback only, or some postponed interference of the teacher, whilst presentations include delayed CF as to avoid obstructing the students' talk. Unexpectedly, the two latter sessions revealed less delayed CF than supposed to do: In the fourth session, 14.25% of delayed CF against a weighty contribution of almost nearly 70%% of instant feedback implied the teacher's intention to activate more interaction after the end of the presentations as detected during the observation [See session 04, When did the teacher provided corrective feedback?]. In the third session, though, delayed CF (21.27%) was observed to be selective: The teacher clustered some inaccuracy errors belonging to the same grammatical, or phonological, rules then afforded a detailed corrective moves at the end of the presentations. Despite the utility of Immediate CF (Barbetta, Heron, & Heward, 1993; Barbetta, Heward, Bradley, & Miller, 1994), its extensive application in session 02 (83.33%) seemed to disrupt the communicative flow and inhibit the cognitive processing of the aim behind feedback which resulted low amounts of successful uptake (This will be discussed afterwards); this could be associated with the students' unsatisfactory strategic competence to quickly cooperate in RW. It is critical at this phase to assert that intentions of providing students' with a *time-gap* to internalise their errors and engage in a self repair were merely implied in the notable percentages of *postponed CF* in the first and the third oral classes (34.37% and 36.17%).

The students' willingness to utilise a self repair technique over another was complementary to their oral proficiency and linguistic competency. Non lexical fillers were incorporated with a repetition of the non-target item in order to gain extra time for the retrieval of the desired output, then an appropriated form was inserted as a first choice or a substitution was provided as a second alternative- which is the case in the three first sessionsThe process, though, was reversed in the fourth session whereby students preferred to appropriate their speech via direct substitutions without any repetition of the erroneous item (25%) or with a repetition (33.33%).

How teachers handled the students' spoken errors had a direct impact on their uptake and their cooperation in the error treatment. CF was attached to a divergence of factors: Their preferences towards specific types, the class settings and the proficiency level of these students. Recasts, especially didactic recasts, were identified to characterise a substantial contribution of teachers' CF in all the sessions followed by elicitations and some combinations of strategies apparently applied in the third session [See table 6.37]. It is noteworthy, though, to highlight some distinctions in the four classes: The cautiously chosen unobtrusive "conversational recasts", which were utilized 25 out of 41 times in the first session [See table 6.6], added to "elicitations" (26.56%) triggered students' self internalization of errors, activated their interactive skills and, subsequently, induced satisfactory attitudes and successful uptake towards CF provided [See table 6.37]. Nonetheless, similar results were not achieved in the second session despite its interactional nature; successful uptake was detected to be less than average (40%) while partial uptake scored higher extents (60%) referring to mere approvals and peers' correction. The teachers'

intrusive recasts, mainly didactic, inhibited the students' reflective self repair whereby the fast pace of delivering CF narrowed down their responses into approvals most of the time (40.66%). In the third session, the seemingly contradicted numerical results of uptake degrees and students' responses to CF [See table 6.37] could be linked to the form-based focus of this feedback against the poor linguistic and strategic competencies required to internalise this eliciting repair. This has generated notable proportions of negative attitudes towards the teachers' CF; although the successful uptake scored (57.89%), more than half of the responses were presented in the category of *no response/same error/ body language*. Furthermore, the comparably lower degrees of uptake accomplished in the fourth session (44%) reflected the nature of the course as *presentations+ discussion*; less degrees of interaction generate less degrees of negotiation and CF, and therefore of uptake. SR induced from the teacher's CF, however, was observed to be the dominant response of students (41.66%) which achieved higher successful uptake.

#### **Conclusion**

In this chapter, the major research questions have been dealt with in an authentic context. The collaborative repair work of classroom conversation has been proven to be positive, though not efficient enough, and dependent on the subjects' preferences: *The teachers*, as the most proficient participants, have been leading most of repair work either because of their preference to do so or as regard to the students' average oral proficiency. *Lexical breakdowns* were continuously targeted from both the teachers' and their students with slight distinctions between interactional classes and those constituted of presentations. Furthermore, corrective feedback, provided *immediately* in most cases, was afforded in forms of *recasts*, *elicitations* and rare utilization of *combinations of strategies* which activated relatively average extents of uptake. Nevertheless, the students employed *non-lexical fillers+ repetitions of the erroneous items* to attain extra time for the retrieval of the appropriate language forms.

## **Chapter Seven**

## Overview of Findings and Pedagogical Recommendations

#### Introduction

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7.1.2	Who Should Provide Repair Work?

7.1.3 Which Errors Should be Repaired?

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- 7.1.4 When Should Corrective Feedback be Delivered?
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# **Chapter Seven**

# Overview of Findings and Pedagogical Recommendations

#### Introduction

This review chapter draws an alignment between the revealed findings and the theoretical background towards a set of recommendations and implications of future research. As the current study aimed to explore and describe repair patterns of spoken breakdowns during classroom conversation, including those generating higher uptake, the first part of this chapter was outlined to answer the research questions utilizing the main results obtained from the field work. A second suggestive section incorporated pedagogical recommendations for the betterment of error repair highlighting the crucial contribution that can be afforded by further pursuit of research to confirm the revealed findings. A further section was devoted to exhibit the drawbacks which confronted the research course introducing the need for extra field work on the same population.

#### 7.1 Answering the Research Questions

Some discrepancies were detected throughout the analysis of findings. Results reported by our informants in response to both teachers' and students' questionnaires were relatively distinguished from the authentic repair behaviour of participants during classroom conversation. These few differences are to be revealed in this section with regard to the research questions.

### 7.1.1 Should Students' Errors be Repaired? Repair Work Extents

This question was answered by both the teachers and the students in the attitudinal questionnaires besides their corrective behaviour during classroom observation. Before approving on the utility of error treatment in section 5 of the questionnaire, the teachers reported their tremendous agreement about the inevitability of errors in the learning process

[See table 5.3]; the extreme majority, 87.5%, asserted that CF is vital in enhancing the students' oral proficiency. The teachers, afterwards, confirmed this attitude during the classroom observation whereby all of them authorised consequential amounts of CF [See table 6.37; amounts of CF]. They further allowed students to self repair their spoken errors via responding to CF in the form of *the fourth trajectory of repair* (Jeffersson et.al, 1977) or as labelled by Hall (2007) *the fifth* trajectory: Production of error in the first turn, other's initiation in the second and self repair or completion in the third turn). Students, moreover, revealed their awareness of the importance of repairing their spoken failures despite their modest contribution in repair work.

These results reflect the focus on the effectiveness of CF and error treatment in earlier research (Krashen, 1995; Lyster and Ranta 1997 then 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006; Ellis, 2011).

### 7.1.2 Who Should Provide Repair Work?

Seemingly incompatible attitudes were detected when identifying *who* engages more in speech repair work. Students admitted their *believed- to be valuable* contribution via self repair SR (With a percentage of 52.66%), nonetheless, almost half of the sample unveiled a strong desire to receive more corrective feedback CF besides 28% reporting a *situation-specific preference* for that. The teachers, on the other hand, confirmed their contribution as an *inevitable primary resource* of error repair with 68.75% as regard to students' poor oral proficiency and SR extents that were approved to be unsatisfactory by 87.5% of them. The teachers' claims had an authentic echo during the classroom observation: Extensive CF characterised nearly all the oral classes observed in which 03 out of the 04 oral courses analysed (Sessions 02, 03 and 04) witnessed an overwhelming interference of the teachers to either *initiate* repair work or afford direct *reformulations*; 56.16%, 46.81% and 54.35% in sequence against barely *average* amounts of self repair (35.61%, 33.33% and 26.08% in the

same sequence). Therefore, the claims of 65.35 % of students, who reported their eagerness to self-monitor their speech even when they are not sure of the appropriate correction, were not evident in their repair behaviour during the observation. This is because of their inadequate oral proficiency, described by teachers as between average (31.25%) and basic (50%). These findings bring to one's mind that students' self evaluation was just over estimated and confirm previous findings of research in the field; that is the teacher, as the most proficient participant, is the one *who* leads repair work of spoken breakdowns. "With self-correction preferred to other-correction" (Jefferson et al., 1977, p. 362), these results imply the teachers' negligence to the role of preserving more space for self-repair especially when they insist on the students' poor oral proficiency and psychological factors while excluding themselves as they sometimes tend to be disruptive and demotivating.

Peers correction, though it is not the focal interest of the current study, was acknowledged by teachers to be at the minimum level and was disregarded by students despite its feasibly valuable contribution in repair work (Wlaz, 1982).

## 7.1.3 Which Errors Should be Repaired?

Distinctions between preferences towards *which* error type to be repaired were accurately exposed in the current study. Students in their responses to the questionnaire demanded more corrective attention to be devoted for *form and accuracy* (84.66%); this can be interpreted by their willingness to welcome more negative evidence to reformulate their language hypotheses at this phase on the inter-language continuum. The majority (62.5%) of teachers acknowledged their students' tendency to operate inaccurate speech only, while they implied their CLT approach via adopting a firm tendency to manage *intelligibility breakdowns* with a weighty proportion of 93.5%

A noteworthy comment is the paradoxical revelation about repairing Phonology errors.

The teachers in their responses to the questionnaire disclosed a strong attitude to target this

error type; 68.75% of them replied with always or often to the question. Support to this came when half of the students appeared to be expecting their teachers' intervention to overcome phonological failures; they even requested extra CF to this type as an implication of high confidence and self-esteem. Findings in the classroom observation, however, exposed thoroughly distinct attitudes: Apart from results detected in the third session whereby the teacher provided notable amounts of Phonology management (58.18%), all participants in classroom conversation neglected the repair of this type [See table 6.37]. The rationale behind this is related to the comparably low amounts of Phonology errors (11, 14 and 27 in sessions 01, 02 and 04 against 56 in the thirds session), the other explanation though, vibrant and equally persuasive, is that teachers realise their students' low self-esteem where over correcting pronunciation could inhibit learning the target form and disrupt the flow of communication as observed in the third session.

Nonetheless, appropriating the lexical choices appeared to be essential for all interactants; this is plausibly to enhance the students' oral proficiency as Llach (2006) stated:

The role of vocabulary as an indicator of proficiency level is a generally acknowledged fact in the sense that lexical errors are a manifestation of lack of lexical knowledge, it seems reasonable to think that they will relate negatively to levels of proficiency. (p1)

Furthermore, most of the teachers seemed to be reluctant about their previously stated inclinations whereby they tried to balance between these preferences and their students' needs for extra focus on accuracy management: Although lexical breakdowns, as language forms that accomplish comprehensibility, received the highest degrees of repair from both the teachers and their students, Grammar errors were handled in accordance with the students' demands on the one hand and the nature of the oral course on the other hand. That is to say, the interactional classes generated close percentages of intelligibility and accuracy repair

because of their negotiating nature, whereas presentations achieved more emphasis on grammatical correctness as they lack identical settings of negotiation [See table 6.37]. The teachers' emphasis on simultaneously negotiating form and content is claimed to be effective in the FL development (The interactional hypothesis: Long, 2007); an equal attendance to form and intelligibility when providing corrective feedback, labelled as interactional feedback by Long, would elicit the students' self internalization of their language hypotheses.

These findings, also, have a direct alignment with previous research (eg; Bygate, Skehan, & Swain, 2001; Van den Branden, 2006) which confirms that the task in which repair work is embedded has an impact on the handled error types whereby interactional tasks elicit simultaneous control over both content and form.

#### 7.1.4 When Should Corrective Feedback be Delivered?

The timing of delivering the teachers' corrective feedback was observed to be utterly different from the one asserted by both the teachers themselves and the students in the questionnaires. While the teachers claimed they *postpone* their CF till the student finishes her/his troubled utterance (75%) and denied their preference of delayed CF(31.25% only), the students asserted delayed CF as an overwhelming technique adopted by their teachers (76%) acknowledging their satisfaction of immediate correction if provided(42%). Nevertheless, the classroom observation findings revealed a fast pace of authorising CF; the teachers applied for *immediate CF* (65.62%, 83.33%, 42.55% and 67.85% in sequence) even in the presentations which were supposed to generate more delayed CF to maintain the flow of communication. The teachers thus, and despite their formerly asserted preferences of postponed CF, confirm the utility of instant management of students' oral failures as to accomplish the process within the error setting in a responsive way (Barbetta, Heron, & Heward, 1993; Barbetta, Heward, Bradley, & Miller, 1994).

### 7.1.5 How Should Errors be Repaired?

Dissimilarities were also spotted between the *claimed* and the *applied* strategies of which teachers and their students handle erroneous speech.

The asserted SR attitudes were expressed in thoroughly different orientations in both questionnaires. They were affirmed by 81.25% of the teachers to include *repetitions* against merely 22.66% of students claiming this repairing behaviour. The students had obviously no adequate experience and insight to accurately identify their SR strategies; more than half of the sample claimed a direct *paraphrasing* of the erroneous utterance. The classroom observation revelations yielded clear evidence that students' self-initiated self-repair was dominated *by repetitions of the non-target forms with the assistance of quasi-lexical fillers* and, then, an appropriated output was inserted [See table 6.37]. This was stated by Schegloff (1977) to be the commonly utilised strategy among interactants even in casual conversations. Moreover, students claimed a low percentage, 17.33%, whereby they wait for the teachers' interference which was denied during classroom observation: The amounts of other-initiated self-repair exceeded any other type of repair work [See appendices: C1, C2, C3 and C4].

Corrective feedback strategies were inconsistently identified in the questionnaires and during the classroom observation. While 72% of the students reported their appreciation of reformulating CF (72% preferred recasts and 61.32% revealed a positive attitude towards explicit correction+ explanation), the teachers' claimed preferences were strongly associated with implicit prompts, repetition with 93.75% and elicitation with nearly 90% of the sample. These preferences were confirmed to be utilised throughout the questionnaire but were uncommitted during the oral classes: Recasts, which were ranked to be less applicable by the teachers in the questionnaire (12.5% only against equal amounts of claimed utilization of repetition and elicitation with 31.5%), scored the highest degrees of provision during 75% of the oral session observed. The teachers seemed to adopt an adjustable corrective behaviour

regarding their students' oral proficiency and strategic competence which often fail, at this phase of learning, to internalise the prompting aims of *repetitions* and *elicitations*. The latter strategy, however, was detected to be authorised as a second alternative to recasts and even applied as a first choice in some cases [See session 03; table 6.37]. The teachers, thus, were balancing between their students' competencies and, not only their preferences but, their teaching objectives that require activating the students' awareness and internalisation of negative evidence provided. A valuable annotation should be acknowledged about the application of CF combinations in which responses in the teachers' questionnaire, that claimed a very basic utilization of such strategy (12.5%), were mirrored during the classroom observation via a rare use in some classes. The sessions whereby these combinations were incorporated, sessions 03 and 04[See table 6.37], consisted of presentations mainly and basic engagement of students in repair work because of their low oral proficiency (Session 03); the teachers in such classes attempted to stimulate SR with elicitations to push students towards noticing the gap between their errors and the CF allowed (The noticing Hypothesis, Schmedit, 1990,1995) prompting strategy fails, ; the teacher apply for a reformulating recast or explicit correction to overcome the students' negative response.

#### 7.1.6 What are Uptake Degrees Generated from Corrective Feedback?

The focal objective of CF is not to appropriate the students' speech as it is to draw their attention to the negative evidence afforded. Interactional feedback enables learners to notice the gaps between their production and the alternatives provided and, therefore, to transform their input into intake (The Noticing Hypothesis: Shmidit, 1990, 1995; Mackey, 2006). In the current study, this intake, or uptake as labelled by Lyster and Ranta (1990), was argued by 63% of teachers to be activated via the use of implicit prompts (*Repetitions* and *elicitations*); they stated that these two types activate the students' cognitive processing of the whole repair work in order to test their language hypotheses which reinforces autonomous learning of the

target form. The teachers' estimations were partially evident in the classroom observation: While repetitions were accurately absent in the teachers' corrective behaviour, *elicitations* generated most of the successful uptake and positive students' attitudes towards CF [See tables: 6.7; 6.16; 6.25 and 6.34]. Recasts, however, scored lower achievement of successful uptake despite their extensive utilization which implies their inefficiency in stimulating the students' self internalization for their nature as mere "echo" (Lyster and Ranta, 2007). It is plausible that elicitations generated more positive attitudes than recasts did; the nature of the former as a mean of *pushing* students to test their language hypotheses then producing a repaired *output* (The output hypothesis; Swain, 1958, 1995, 2000, and 2005) is rather effective than only supplying an implicit reformulation that could be left by students without even noticing its corrective intentions.

Interestingly, uptake degrees implied an *average* effectiveness of CF provided [See table 6.37]. The extents of uptake generated were seemingly high in some oral sessions but the revealed percentages of successful intake (*Incorporation, approval+ incorporation or self repair and self- repair*) suggest cautious interpretations of findings; an illustration for this appeared in sessions 02 and 03 where uptake degrees were balancing from relatively high and average (73.17% and 54.28%) while successful uptake, which indicates internalising repair work processed, was noticed to be unsatisfactory(40%) or even unreal in the case of the third session (57.89%). The statistically high percentages of uptake were mainly results of intense provision of CF opposed to SR opportunities as it was discussed in the section of *who should provide repair work?* It is critical, yet, to assert that even partial uptake with approvals only or uptake with isolated incorporations of the teachers' CF are not evidence of success nor of failure of this feedback because the process is cognitive and its long-term effects are never certain; Gass (2003) argued that we cannot take the absence of responses as evidence that

learners have failed to notice feedback, nor can we ignore the possibility that they might copy feedback without true understanding.

#### 7.1.7 Do the Teachers and the Students Collaborate in Repair Work?

All the previously demonstrated answers to the research questions guide discussion towards identifying the extents to which teachers and their students in the English department, University of Constantine, engage in a collaborative error treatment of classroom conversation. These extents are to be described through the revelations of three aspects: The *amounts of self-initiated other-repair* (S.I.O.R) *and other-initiated self-repair* (O.I.S.R), the extents of *positive students' attitudes* towards CF and finally the *degrees of uptake* and, especially, successful uptake which is complementary to the efficiency of other-initiation self-repair.

In the current study, the average of attending to S.I.O.R was statistically overwhelmed by the one of O.I.S.R (Only 11 against 147 in the whole classroom observation analysis). This implies the students' inadequate competence to initiate a collaborative repair work opposed to the other participants' involvement, notably the teacher, which is induced from more oral proficiency.

Degrees of uptake, generated from the process of cooperation between the teacher and his/her students during repair work, were formerly identified to be relatively high, unreal in some sessions though, and to be linked to the extensive application of CF against SR. The average amounts of successful intake, as accurate evidence of students' internalization of the repair work and of feasible learning, indicate relative ineffectiveness of CF in prompting a successful collaboration in error treatment. This was the impact of a divergence of reasons; some of which are the students' low oral proficiency and the teachers' insufficient training about the methods to which CF should be provided.

The students' attitudes, or responses, towards CF imply positive, unsatisfactory though, collaborative repair work. The completion of O.I.S.R was characterised by average positive attitude, labelled in the current study by *self repair with or without approval* and *incorporation with approval*, but conspicuous negative attitudes as well [See table 6.37]: While CF in some sessions, as in sessions 01 and 04, activated average to consequential amounts of positive attitudes, it induced lower than average percentages of confident responses in other oral classes whereby students contributed with mere approvals or, in the best cases, incorporated the teachers' CF without revealing any evidence of noticing it, or even reproduced the same error (Sessions 02 and 03 are accurate illustrations).

It is vital, moreover, to highlight the CF strategies activating successful collaborative RW. Literature about error correction emphasizes the role of prompts to stimulate learners' cognitive processing and enhance their ability for autonomous testing of the language hypotheses (eg., Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Saito 2010; Sheen & Ellis 2011; El-Faquih 2012). In the present research, prompting CF consisted mainly of *elicitations* and rare employment of other prompts. The intensity of recasts' application, however, has not accomplished efficient repair work as the lower amounts of elicitation had [See tables: 6.7, 6.16, 6.25 and 6.34]. This is because recasts are only reformulations that occasionally induce successful intake from proficient students who are familiar with this corrective strategy; such process is labelled by McDonough and Mackey as *priming* previously heard forms (2006; see Corrective Feedback Effectiveness: Theoretical Perspectives, P. 73). Nonetheless, elicitations yield equal participation of both the teacher and the student when the latter responds positively to this CF.

#### 7.2 Pedagogical Recommendations and Implications

Error treatment is a very complicated and thorny problem. As language teachers, we need to be armed with some theoretical foundations and be aware of what we are dealing with in the classroom. Principles of optimal affective feedback, of reinforcement theory, and of communicative language teaching all combined to form these theoretical foundations. With these theories in mind, it is easier to judge whether a treatment is inevitable or not, to decide when and how to provide a corrective feedback, and, above all, to reinforce students' opportunities of self repair and their uptake to the authorised CF.

#### 7.2.1 Recommendations on The Aims of Corrective Feedback

The aim of corrective feedback is not to prevent the error from happening again (James, 1998); Krashen (1995) states: "When error correction works, it does so by helping the learner change his or her conscious mental representation of a rule" (p. 117). Henceforth, teachers should not worry about the impact of their CF unless the error becomes highly frequent although it has been already corrected. They should emphasize long -term effects generated from prompting feedback which encourages autonomous internalization of the negative evidence and, therefore, stimulates the students' memory to keep the repair work for future retrieval. Mere reformulations and explicit corrections, nevertheless, enable the student to have control over the explicit rules while the actual acquisition of these rules is, thus, being delayed if not inhibited (Krashen, 1982) which would be in Krashen's view more valuable than knowing the rules.

## 7.2.2 Recommendations on the Applicability of Corrective Feedback: No Size Fits All

Most of teachers, as observed in the current study, apply for a standardized CF to address all the students' errors despite the diversity of the students' attitudes, personalities and competencies. Teachers should be aware that a specific CF strategy would not activate the same response from all students because "one size does not fit all" (Ammar and Spada, 2006); a more proficient learner can internalize a meta-linguistic clueing or an elicitation when a less proficient one would not be able to do so, a less confident student would perceive explicit over corrections as embarrassing threats which would inhibit future self repair and

even the engagement in error treatment. The teachers, thus, should refer to many factors when selecting a strategy over another and not to rely on the general oral proficiency of the class only or depend on a previous theoretical background about a apecific CF strategy because they "need both general theories and context-specific insights" (Woolfolk, A; Hughes, M &Walkup, V, 2.13; p.11). One way of doing this occurred in some oral courses observed in the current study whereby the teachers were selecting implicit strategies to raise the student's awareness then allowing an explicit correction when the latter fails to recognise the CF aims.

## 7.2.3 Recommendations on Knowing the Students' Competence and Preferences

It is common that teachers neither exploit nor boost adequately their students' learning strategies, thus missing the opportunity to make use of this previously acquired strategic competence. Teachers should have prior knowledge about their students' competencies and strategies, those of handling spoken errors in particular, in order to adapt their feedback along with them.

Lasagabaster & Sierra (2002, 2003) stated that if we are to accomplish pedagogical credibility and enhance students' participation, teachers must explore what students believe to be the best alternative to learn a language. This would create some common ground with space for both teachers' and students' expectations about error treatment. Accordingly, teachers should continuously attempt to explore whether students are effectively utilising their strategies and, also, whether they perceive the teachers' CF as efficient in helping them advance in learning.

It is vital, though, to highlight that *CF* is an accumulation rather than assimilation; i.e, collecting information about the students' tendencies and proficiency would not help unless the teacher accumulates the available information and adapts to these preferences.

## 7.2.4 Recommendations on Adapting to Students' Preferences: The familiar stranger

It was established earlier that teachers should consider the students' learning styles when affording a CF; they cannot, yet, owe the ability to identify these traits with only what they have been trained to do and to analyse, but, also, with what they observe for the first time in the students' behaviour. This is achievable when they *fight familiarity and act like a familiar stranger* (Delemont and Atkinson, 1995). Teachers, henceforth, should question their own assumptions and act like naïve observers regarding students' individuality that determines their involvement in repair work of oral errors, and all the learning phenomena as well; in other words they, as educators, should be aware of what they are not thinking about (Nelson& Evertz, 2001). It is noteworthy here to assert that even students with poor linguistic and strategic competencies are capable of developing their linguistic awareness by analysing the error repair moves carried out by the teacher if the latter reconsiders their low level while providing this CF (James and Acton, 2002).

The forthcoming recommendations are obvious implications of the former ones; after accumulating information about students' proficiency and preferences knowing that no strategy fits all, the teachers should take in consideration the following points when adapting to those facts:

## 7.2.5 Recommendations on Considering Motivation and Students' Confidence

Some students lack motivation to take part in error repair despite their awareness that an error has occurred in their speech. This lack of motivation is not associated with mere internal psychological factors but, also, with the teachers' unintentional demotivation. Most of teachers in the current study neglected the role of the students' self confidence while delivering corrective feedback; they emphasized the students' lack of awareness, oral proficiency and willingness to participate in error treatment but explicitly excluded themselves. As discussed earlier in the chapter 02, some researchers (Krashen, the input

hypothesis, 1985; Lightbown and Spada, 1993) argued that negative evidence is to be avoided as it damages the learner's motivation; teachers should pay attention to their corrective behaviour with less confident students and, even, confident ones because the way they behave can be de-motivating especially through over correcting or showing facial and/or verbal dissatisfaction. According to Dörnyei (2001a) demotivation is "specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action" (p. 143). He argues, moreover, that a demotivated student is someone who was previously motivated to carry out a task, but has lost this motivation after being pressed by external factors as the teacher's behaviour during a specific learning situation. Demotivation, then, does not appear only by targeting a less-confident student but, also, can be induced from the way any other student is addressed; a misperception of the teacher's CF and not repairing the non-target item may negatively affect both participants and lead to anxiety and demotivation (Park, 2010). Teachers, thus, should be selective to what fits his/her students regarding their confidence, attitudes and motivation because demotivating factors inhibit successful mastery of English language proficiency (Hu, 2011).

#### 7.2.6 Recommendations on the Time of Delivering Corrective Feedback: Time Bonus

As observed in the present research, teachers favour immediate CF which is recommended by most of the researchers in the field. Some students, however, can be overwhelmed by such corrective behaviour; experimental evidence has reported the effectiveness of postponed and even delayed interference of the teacher in enhancing self repair opportunities (Dubbaghi, 2006). Teachers should authorise a *time bonus* to allow students to recall the target form especially when the trouble source student is a less confident or an introvert learner.

## 7.2.7 Recommendations on Training Students to Provide and Receive Repair

While being aware that "no size fits all" is the sufficient training the teachers should have, they are to be aware that self repair cannot be activated from autonomous efforts of the

students only; it is the teacher's job to encourage and train them to control their speech and accept corrective feedback. S/he ought to show them in the very first courses how errors should be dealt with via continuous focus on form during interaction. This training on self-repair is critical for raising students' awareness for ways of spotting their errors and, even, cooperating with peers during classroom conversation because Learners' ability to detect errors without the teachers' back up would be a qualitative leap to conscious cognition.

Having all these recommendations in mind, the teachers should be highly flexible when providing CF or motivating self repair. Magilow (1999) insisted that "To facilitate successful language learning, teachers must perform a complicated balancing act of two necessary but seemingly contradictory roles. They must establish positive affect among students yet also engage in the interactive confrontational activity of error correction" (P, 125)

In his presentation about *Corrective Feedback in Theory, Research and Practice,* Ellis suggested a set of guidelines to enhance teachers' CF:

- 1. Error treatment is an inevitable process for learning. Teachers, accordingly, should not withdraw CF in either accuracy or fluency tasks.
- 2. Teachers should verify their students' attitudes towards CF and negotiate agreed goals for CF with them.
- 3. "Focused CF is likely to be more effective than unfocussed CF so teachers should identify specific linguistic targets for correction in different lessons" (P.35). Teachers, then, should not attempt to conceal the corrective force of their feedback moves from the students.
- 4. Teachers should be adaptable when it comes to pointing a CF strategy for an individual learner bearing in mind that a divergent corrective behaviour is constantly available. Ellis asserts "Teachers should be prepared to vary whom, when and how they correct in accordance with the cognitive and affective needs of the individual learner" (P.36). As

discussed earlier in this section, being adjustable is feasible when the teacher, for example, initiates with an implicit towards a more explicit CF if the student could not afford the desired output.

- 5. Teachers should experiment with the timing of the CF; either immediate or delayed, because there is no rigid rules to control the timing of delivering CF.
- 6. Teachers ought to allow a time gap after their corrective move for learners to internalise this interference and, feasibly uptake the new input. Doing this, though, does not mean that a correct target form is required from the student.
- 8. Showing the readiness to correct a specific error many times is a vital issue as to activate consistent self-regulation in the student.
- 9. Teachers should consider anxiety as a negative factor affecting the students' uptake from CF. Thus; they can minimize this danger by *scaffolding* students' responses to their CF by supporting them when having troubles to internalise this feedback.

#### 7.3 Limitations of the Study

The present research work encountered some constraints that evoked cautious interpretations to the subsequent findings regarding them as tentative. Despite the use of previous research illustrations in the field, the specifications imposed by the socio-cultural and pedagogical settings distinguished our sample from other research samples.

As to consider data collection, limitations of time and the settings of recording were consistent. The classroom observation was conducted in a short time, one semester only, which limited the richness of data required to investigate such vital theme. The quality of video-recordings, furthermore, was affected by the continuous noise out of the class-rooms which obstructed the process of listening and coding the scripts in a later phase of research.

Another limitation was the refusal of some students, and even some teachers, to be filmed which detained some details about the participants' body language. Data analysis, subsequently, was negatively affected by the former limitations.

In data analysis; moreover, it is known that the divergent and understated details of classroom conversation cannot be interpreted by even the most extensively annotated scripts or the clearest recordings. To be able to authentically reconstruct the original performance was an unattainable process because automatic video tapes are, oftentimes, incomplete and they can include, but exclude as well, any detail; in other words: *They are partial representations of interaction* Besides, memory, feelings, time, and place, are always associated with the subjects' awareness about the interacted topic which makes the interpretations merely tentative. This was evident in the present inquiry whereby the analysis was cautiously carried out, participants' attitudes were explored in the short terms and uptake degrees were tentatively calculated which requires further pursuit of research.

### 7.4 Implications for Further Research

Based on the previously discussed implications and limitations, findings of the current study need other back up from extra research:

- 1- The inquiry of repair attitudes and preferences needs to be replicated on similar samples to attain more accurate and precise findings as to consider the limits of the current study.
- 2- An experimental investigation about the degrees of uptake should be carried out through which the contribution of each corrective feedback strategy is calculated with regard to the intensity of its application. This would confirm, or reject, the findings of the present study as to consider the uptake amounts accomplished.

## Conclusion

Interrogating the teachers' and the students' attitudes and preferences towards error repair in the English department, University of Mentor- Constantine, revealed a twofold- spectrum of findings as regard to the research questions. Both participants exposed harmonious inclinations towards some aspects of error repair, imbalanced preferences, though, were implied in other aspects. The tentative results of the whole field work, of the classroom observation in particular, call for further experimental research to confirm the vitalness of more collaborative repair of classroom conversation and the need to extensively focus on enhancing students' self repair via adjustable corrective feedback.

# **General Conclusion**

The focal interest of this research is to draw attention to the vital contribution of collaborative repair of spoken errors in enhancing the language learning. The obvious quest, thus, was to identify the attitudinal patterns of error repair during classroom conversation in the English department, University of Constantine, and whether participants in this conversation are cooperating towards better uptake and learning. To fulfill these aims, a naturalistic procedure was set besides two attitudinal questionnaires to investigate the preferences of repair work among teachers, of Oral Expression in particular, and their students.

The theoretical background supporting the area of the current study spins around error and conversation analyses (Starting with: Corder, 1967; Harvey Sacks with his co-associates Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson, 1974). Major work on error treatment has been investigated in interactional settings whereby the learning process is not associated with receiving input only, but rather to producing adjusted output via error repair (Long, 1983; Gas and Varonis, 1985, 1994; Doughty, 1988, 1992; Deen, 1995; Loschky, 1994). Following this stream, the present inquiry emphasises research done about repair work of oral production with its twofold contribution of self-repair (Shegloff, et.al., 1977) and corrective feedback (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, 2007): Definitions, types, strategies and extents of effectiveness of both have been accurately discussed in considerations of the forthcoming analysis of data attained from the field work.

To test the first hypothesis, probing the teachers' and the students' attitudes and preferences of repair work as a primary phase was inevitable. Henceforth, data collected from the two questionnaires was verified by the authentic revelations from classroom observation. Discrepancies between the claimed and the factual attitudes were consistent throughout the

analysis with regard to the fact that the participants' asserted inclinations, in the first place, were divergent.

The second hypothesis, that *Students' low oral proficiency and self-repair willingness* would confine repair patterns, was confirmed when the analysis exposed average self-repair degrees and positive, not satisfactory though, cooperation while responding to the teacher's corrective moves. This engagement was feasibly relative to an amalgam of factors: One of which is the students' basic strategic competence to internalise CF, which is the process they are not trained to do. Another factor, which was accurate in some observed courses, is the teachers' unconsciousness about this low proficiency besides their reluctance about what strategy to adopt in order to meet the students' factual needs. This has generated failure of CF in many repair works whereby the students could neither afford positive attitudes nor show successful uptake; which confirms the third hypothesis of this research.

It is substantial, however, to highlight the teachers' flexible behaviour in other situations in which their claimed attitudes were hereby adjusted regarding their students proficiency level: Although they dominated repair work with their intense CF, which allowed less space for self repair opportunities, they managed to shift their conventions of what, when and how to correct into a balance between these preferences and their students' demands and commitment in error treatment. Instead of favouring intelligibility failures to be repaired, the teachers, also, authorized adequate amounts of lexical and Grammar breakdowns in accordance with the interactional task being tackled. Moreover, the *immediate*, instead of postponed CF, was extensively constructed of *recasts* then *elicitations* instead of repetitions. Clear evidence that collaborative repair work emerges from both the students' high oral proficiency and the teacher's awareness of effective CF strategies was brought by the adequate amounts of uptake activated by the teachers' choice of elicitations to initiate repair for seemingly proficient students in some classes. Hypothesising *that collaboration between the teacher and the* 

students during interactional repair would elicit the learning process and enhance uptake was, thus, confirmed.

Recommendations to enhance the language learning via collaborative repair are respectively suggested. It is the teacher's interest to raise his/her students' awareness about error treatment and train them to provide and positively perceive repair to their spoken breakdowns; this becomes achievable when s/he trains her/himself on adopting and adapting corrective feedback along with the students' needs. Whilst in abnormal conversations such as classroom interaction, a consequential evidence goes along confirming others' repair (either initiations or completions) to be rather authoritarian. This may generate continual failure of students' self repair, and thus reluctance to engage in future error treatment. It has also been observed that in NS/NS discourse (Schegloff et al., 1977) and NS/ advanced NNS discourse (Kasper 1985), the decisive proportions of repair targeted comprehensibility repair rather than linguistic (Grammatical, phonological, or lexical) repair.

These observations are implications of correlating the learning accomplishments to the extents of self-initiated self-repairs compared to those initiated or, even disappointing, completed by others. Another correlation as well would be akin to the amounts to which intelligibility and content are processed more than linguistic forms: Extended proportions of self-initiated self-completed repairs of content are decisive signals of successful interaction. Nevertheless, the more other-initiated, other-completed linguistic repair, the less native-like the interaction will be.

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# **APPENDICES**

- 1- Appendix A: The Teachers' Questionnaire
- 2- Appendix B: The Students' Questionnaire
- **3- Appendix C: The Classroom Observation Scripts**
- 4- Appendix D: Jffersson's Notation Transcription
- 5- Appendix E: Conversation Analysis' Transcription of Examples Discussed in the Analysis

# Appendix A: The Teachers' Questionnaire

## Dear Teachers,

Data collected from this anonymous survey will be used for a completion of a doctorate degree in Language Sciences in the English Department at Constantine University. Reflecting your valuable experience, your answers to the questions in the next pages would be of tremendous guidance for the achievement of the current research aims.

The purpose behind the study is to investigate teachers' and Learners' attitudes and preferences towards the spoken error treatment, besides the contribution of each in the betterment of self-repair and therefore oral production in EFL classroom.

We would be sincerely grateful if you dedicate your attention to answer all the questions.

Thank you, in advance, for your time and collaboration

# Demographics and Experience

Degi	ree held
$\bigcirc$	BA (Licence)
$\bigcirc$	MA (Master/Magester)
$\bigcirc$	PhD (Doctorate)
Mod	ules Taught
Teac	ching Experience
$\bigcirc$	Less than 2 Years
$\bigcirc$	From 2 to 5 Years
$\bigcirc$	From 6 to 10 Years
$\bigcirc$	From 11to 25 Years
$\bigcirc$	More than 25 Years
Teac	ching Oral Skills (Oral Expression)
$\bigcirc$	Only One (1) Year
$\circ$	From 2 to 5 years
$\bigcirc$	More than 5 years
App	roach Adapted in teaching Oral Skills
$\bigcirc$	Meaning- Focused Teaching: It is important for you to stimulate learners' interaction
regard	lless correctness.
$\bigcirc$	Form- Focused Teaching: It is rather useful to emphasize correctness in learners' talk.
$\bigcirc$	A Mix of both Approaches:

# Error Types and Influential Factors

A/ Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement about each statement regarding your teaching experience. You Tick only one box for each statement.

STATEMENTS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree					
	Q1. Are student	ts' spoken e	errors imp	ortant?						
Oral Errors are										
important in the										
learning process										
Q2.	Q2. What are error types common in your students' speech?									
Grammar Errors are										
the most commonly										
done by Students.										
Phonology and										
Phonetic Errors are										
the most common										
errors.										
Lexical breakdowns										
are the most spread										
among learners.										
Communicative										
Failures characterise										
students' speech										
more than any other										
error type.										

B/ What is the most influential factor, according to your experience, leading to oral errors?

Lack of learners' awareness of their own errors.

Poor adequate linguistic competence.

Lack of Confidence and self- esteem.

Teachers' tendency to neglect error treatment

Effects of the Inter-language phase.

A mixture of all or some of the above factors (If only some, please indicate them)

Other factors (please indicate them bellow)

# Self Repair in Classroom

A/ Please ring the response that you think is most appropriate to each statement.

STATEMENTS	Excellent	Very good	Satisfactory	Fair	Poor
Students' level in oral activities					
(Oral skills)					
Students' efforts put in oral					
classrooms					
Students' role in oral error					
treatment					
The extent to which students self					
repair their own oral errors					

B/ According to your continuous observation to your students' repair behaviour, please tick in the appropriate box to indicate the frequency of each situation.

STUDENTS' REPAIR BEHAVIOUR	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Q1. Are your students a	ware of their s	noken error	s and error tre	atment?	
They are not aware of their oral		poken error		atment.	
errors					
They neglect correcting their errors					
though they are aware of them					
Q2. Do you	r students eng	gage in Repa	ir Work?		
They take the leading role in error					
treatment					
They initiate repair works but do					
not complete them					
They complete repair works if only					
initiated by another participant					
They wait for the teacher					
interference					
They cooperate with their peers in					
repair work					
Q3. What do y	our students r	epair? Forn	or Content?		
They tend to self repair FORM					
errors only					
They tend to self monitor their					
communicative breakdowns only.					
Q4. How do your stude	ents repair? (V	Vith Paraph	rasing or Repe	etition)	
They repeat the error more than					
once before correcting it.					
They paraphrase the erroneous					
sentence without any repetition.					

# Attitudes and Preferences of Corrective Feedback

# A/ Do you Provide Corrective Feedback?

•The bellow table probes your preferences of providing a corrective feedback in classroom. Please make known your agreement or disagreement level about the following statements by ticking only one box for each.

STATEMENTS	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Learners' oral errors should					
be corrected.					
The teacher is the first					
responsible of error					
correction					
Learners should repair their					
oral errors without teachers'					
interference.					
Learners' self repair					
behaviour should be					
rewarded all the time					
The teacher should cooperate					
with his students in repair					
work					

# B/ When do you Provide Corrective Feedback?

Learners oral errors should			
be immediately corrected –			
Even if it interrupts the flow			
of talk-			
Teachers should provide a			
corrective feedback after the			
learner finishes the sentence			
containing the error			
Providing corrective			
feedback should be done			
after the end of the current			
activity			
Providing corrective			
feedback should be done at			
the end of the course- As a			
sum to all the lecture-			

## C/ Which Error Type do you Repair?

• How often do you provide corrective feedback (CF) in situations bellow?

Please point out the frequency that better applies to your choices.

SITUATIONS	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
<i>Q1</i> . Do you repair	Grammar, l	Phonology	or lexical err	ors?	
When a Grammar error occurs					
When Phonology and Pronunciation					
errors are produced.					
When there is a Lexical failure					
Q2. Do you rep	air intelligib	ility or cor	nmon errors	?	
When an error hinders the mutual					
understanding and comprehension					
When Less serious errors frequently					
occur.					
Q3. Do you trigger previou	ıs or new lin	guistic kno	wledge when	you repair?	
When the error contradicts the					
already learnt knowledge.					
If the error treatment introduces a					
new linguistic knowledge to the					
learner.					
Q4. Do you construct your cor	rective feedb	ack regard	ling the stude	nts' confidenc	e?
When a confident learner errs.					
If the error is made by a less					
confident learner.					
Only after adapting the feedback to					
individual differences					

# 3/ How do you repair?

• The following example includes a spoken error. How would you rate each technique's effectiveness to correct it?

Teacher: At what time did you sleep yesterday?

Student: I don't remember... but I sleep early

FEEDBACK TECHNIQUE	Very	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very
	Effective				Ineffective
"Pardon!" or "Can you say that again?"					
(Clarification Requests)					
"I sleep"?					
120					
(Repetition: With a raised tone/Pitch)					
You slept early?! Were you tired?					
(Recast: Implicit correction without					
pointing the error)					
"Yesterday, I"					
(Stimulating/Eliciting Self Repair)					
"What tense do we use when saying					
<u>yesterday</u> ?"					
( Meta-linguistic Clue)					
"Slept not sleep" (Explicit Correction)					
"Sleep is the present simple, use the past tense: Slept"					
(Explicit Correction with metalinguistic					
explanation)					
•	L	_1		1	ı

# Among the corrective feedback techniques listed in the table above, in your opinion, which one will give higher extents of uptake (Future Self-Repair)? Justify your response, please. Do you apply this technique to your students' spoken failures? If "No", please say why? Yes ○ No ○ How would you rate the importance of Oral Corrective Feedback in improving your students' oral skills? Please, cross the answer that best applies to you. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

Extremely important

Not important

ıd
t

Thank You for Your Collaboration

**Appendix B: Students' Questionnaire** 

Dear Student,

This questionnaire is designed as a data collection tool for the completion of a Doctoral

research in the field of "spoken error treatment" in EFL classes. It seeks to investigate the

attitudes and preferences of both teachers and students during the process of repair work in

classroom.

This questionnaire is anonymous. The information provided will be treated

confidentially. Your responses will help solving some of the problems English students face

in learning English.

Please, put  $(\times)$  in the appropriate box, and give your own answer where necessary.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Personal	1	n	form	ation
1 CI SUIIUI		II	<i>, טו וט</i> ן	ıuııvıı

6	How long have you bee	n studying English?		
		years		
7	Do you use English lang	guage outside the classro	om?	
	Yes	$\circ$	No 🔾	
8	Do you like oral expres	sion classes?		
	Yes	0	No 🔾	
9	How would you rate yo	ur oral skill level from 1	to 10?	
	None (	Satisfying (		Excellent

Self Efficacy

**A**/ Please, tick one box only.

Situations	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
I feel that other students speak					
English better than I do.					
I feel good when I have to speak in					
front of my classmates.					
I am nervous when I participate in					
oral sessions.					
I am enjoying my English oral					
classes because I am satisfied with					
this level of oral skill.					

### **B**/ Circle the answer that best represents your opinion

- I often lose confidence when:
- a The teacher immediately corrects my errors.
- b The teacher does not provide correction to my errors.
- c The teacher re-corrects me when I provide a wrong correction to my error.
- d I cannot find the appropriate /Right correction to my errors.
- e My classmates interfere to correct my errors.
- f All/ some of the previous reasons

## Self Awareness

• Please tick only one choice for each situation.

Situations	All the time	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
I worry about my oral errors.					
I feel confident to talk even with					
errors.					
I fail to recognise my spoken					
errors unless my teacher					
interferes.					
I can spot the errors in my					
speech and correct them.					
I can spot the errors in my					
speech but I don't correct them.					
I try to correct my errors even if					
I am not sure of the appropriate					
answer/ correction					
I can recognise my classmates'					
spoken errors and interfere to					
correct them.					

# Repair Attitudes and Preferences

# 1/ Who does Repair?

### A- Please, check one box for each situation

Situations	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
I prefer correcting my spoken					
errors all by myself.					
I feel annoyed when my teacher					
over-corrects me.					
I try to retrieve my acquired					
knowledge to correct my errors, but					
I fail to do so unless my teacher					
helps me.					

## B- Tick one box only for each situation

Situations	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
I feel helpless when my teacher					
ignores my errors.					
I wait for the teacher to correct me.					
I feel confident after the teacher					
provides correction to my errors.					
I am afraid to talk right after the					
teacher corrects me.					
I want the teacher to provide more					
correction to all my errors.					
I want my classmates to help me					
correcting my errors.					

# 2/ When does your Teacher Interfere to Correct you Errors?

A/ Please, Indicate the frequency of each situation.

Situations	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
I feel pressed by my teacher to					
immediately correct my errors.					
My teachers immediately					
correct my spoken errors.					
My teachers leave me some					
time-gap to correct my errors.					
My teachers provide error					
correction after I finish my					
sentence.					
My teachers provide error					
correction at the end of each					
activity.					
My teachers provide error					
correction at the end of each					
session.					

**B**/ How do you feel when your teacher immediately corrects your spoken errors? (Circle your answer):

- a- Frustrated.
- b- Bothered
- c- Indifferent
- d- Embarrassed and sorry for I made an error
- e- Satisfied

# 3/ Which Error Type to Repair?

# A/ Self-repair Attitudes

Situations	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
I tend to recognise and correct					
my Grammar errors.					
I pay attention to my					
pronunciation errors.					
I tend to select my words					
carefully while speaking.					
I tend to pause while speaking					
to make sure both my					
classmates and my teacher are					
getting the meaning(s) of my					
speech.					
If others do not grasp the					
meaning I want to convey, I					
paraphrase my sentence(s).					
I fail to convey meaning while					
speaking to my classmates or					
my teacher.					

## B/ Teachers' Attitudes

Situation	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
When speaking in this class, I					
am not worried about my					
Grammar errors.					
My teachers emphasise the					
correction of Grammar errors					
only.					
My teachers focus on the					
correction of my pronunciation.					

My teachers correct merely my			
wrong lexical choices.			
( words' choice)			
My teachers interfere only when			
there is a communicative failure.			

### C/ Repair Preferences:

Please, indicate the level of your agreement about the following situations

Situations	Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly
	agree				disagree
I want my teacher to correct					
more my Grammar and					
pronunciation errors.					
I want my teacher to help me					
when only having a problem in					
conveying meaning.					

# 4/ How to Repair?

### A/ Self-Repair

Circle the best choice:

- When you recognise you made an error and you intend to correct it, do you
  - a- Pause and wait for/ Ask the teacher to correct.
  - b- Try to recall the appropriate correction via pausing and repeating the error more than once.
  - c- Try to paraphrase your sentence omitting the error.
  - d- Ask for my classmates help.

### **B**/Teacher's Correction

Imagine you have done the oral error in the example below,

Teacher: What did you do in the last vacation?

Student: I visit my sister in Canada.

Please, indicate which teacher's response from the responses listed in the table would be appreciated/ Accepted for you

Teacher's Response	Very	Appreciated	Neutral	Unappreciated	Very
	appreciated				Unappreciated
"I am sorry! What did					
you say?"/Pardon!!					
( Giving you time to					
revise your answer)					
"I visit?"					
(Teacher repeats your					
error with a raised					
intonation)					
"Oh, You visited your					
sister?"					
(Teacher corrects your					
error without making					
your mates aware that					
you made an error)					
"Last vacation					
you"					
(Teacher stresses the					
word - last- to					
indirectly remind you					
of the appropriate					
tense)					
"What tense do we use					
with the word –last-?"					
"No, it is: Visited,					
not :Visit-!!".					
"We say visited					
because it is in the past					
tense".					

Thank You again for your precious collaboration

Appendix C: The Cla	ssroom Observation	n Scripts	

# **Appendix C1: Spoken Errors and Repair Work**

# **Session 01: Illegal Immigration**

Table 01: List of Grammr Errors and Repair Works accomplished

Repair works Errors	S.I.S.R	S.I.O.R	O.I.S.R	O.I.O.R	Uptake	Target form
1. Illegal of immigration	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Illegal immigration
2.To travel but staying	Х	Х	/	/	Х	Stay (Iinfinitive)
3. Can gets	Can get [after 03 moves] [Delayedt.ful.Rep+ sub]	X	Х	Х	×	✓
<b>4.</b> We haven't rights	X	Х	Х	Peer: We don't [Imd. Recast]	Х	✓
5. I go abroad	X	X	Х	X	Х	When I go abroad
<b>6.</b> A lot of <u>opportunity</u>	Х	X	Х	X	X	opportunities
7. My wish [to express the plural]	Wishes [Par. Rep+ Sub]	×	×	х	×	✓
8. I'd illegal immigration	X	×	×	Х	×	Choose / I would illegally immigrate
9. In other <u>country</u>	X	Х	Х	X	Х	Countries
10. In himself	Х	X	Х	Peer: himself [Imd. Recast]	Х	✓
11. since	Х	х	Tr: until [Imd. Recast] Lr: yes, until he [] [App+ Sub]	х	Successful Uptake	✓
12. He have (Simple past)	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	had
13. He don't (Simple past)	X	Х	Х	X	Х	Didn't
14. You are sent (Simple past)	You were [par. Rep+ Sub]	×	×	Х	×	✓
15. If you were( To express have in the simple past)	You [] you will have. (Attempt) [Par.Rep+Non-Lex+Sub]	х	Х	х	Х	If you had
<b>16.</b> didn't [leave in the past]	Was [] left [ Par.Rep+Non.Lex+Sub]	×	×	х	×	✓
17. To better life	X	X	Х	X	Х	Towards better life
<b>18.</b> To better[] jobs	To find better jobs [ful.Rep+Ins]	Х	х	х	Х	<b>✓</b>

<b>19.</b> He <u>was</u>	He used to [Par. Rep+Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
<b>20.</b> <u>He</u> caught	They caught him [par.rep+Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
<b>21.</b> Interfere (Simple Past)	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	interfered
22. Give (Simple past)	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	gave
23.This come	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	comes
<b>24.</b> By[] <u>to work</u>	By working [Par.Rep+Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
25.Wait and talking	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	talk
<b>26.</b> Whithout <u>do</u> []	Х	Х	Х	Peer: Doing what? [imd.Recast]	Х	✓
<b>27.</b> There is job	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	There are jobs
28. I'm just keep it	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Keeping it
<b>29.</b> People who clean the floor, they are () [Double- subject]	Х	×	Х	х	×	People who clean the floor are()
<b>30.</b> You <u>are guarantee to</u> get a job	Х	×	Х	Х	×	You guarantee getting
<b>31.</b> They [ to mean there]	There is [Par.Rep +Sub]	X	×	×	X	✓
<b>32.</b> Who give you ?[ future]	Who will give you?  [ful.Rep +Ins]  [after 2 moves]	×	Х	х	×	1
33. Who are illegal immigration	х	Х	Х	х	×	Who are illegal immigrants
34. Of job [To express the plural]	Х	х	Tr: what kind of? [Imd. Elicitation] Lr: Of jobs.[sub/ SR]		Successful Uptake	1
35. () and you work and the bills [Grammatical Structure]	х	×	Х	х	×	And you pay your bills
<b>36.</b> People with <u>his</u>	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	their
<b>37.</b> They found [ to express possibility]	х	Х	Х	х	Х	May find
<b>38.</b> What will you do? [to express possibility in the future]	Х	х	Х	Tr: what would you do, having no diploma? [Imd. Recast]	Х	1
<b>39.</b> Other job( To express the plural	х	х	Х	х	Х	Other jobs /Another job

<b>40.</b> Give you	х	Х	х	<i>Tr</i> : to give them [Imd.Recast]	Х	✓
<b>41.</b> He was an only child	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	The only child
<b>42.</b> His father <u>die [Simple Past]</u>	Х	×	<i>Tr</i> : his father died?! [imd.Recast] <i>Lr</i> : yeah, died [App+Sub]	Х	Successful Uptake	<b>✓</b>
43. He start [Simple past]	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	started
44. To go illegal	Х	Х	Х	Tr: illegally [Imd. Recast]	Х	✓
<b>45.</b> <u>To</u> abroad	×	Х	×	×	X	abroad
<b>46.</b> You <u>said</u> [Present Simple/ Present continuous]	Х	×	Х	Х	×	Say / are saying
<b>47.</b> The government is preventing youth <u>to</u> improve to []	Х	×	Х	Х	×	Preventing youth from
<b>48.</b> <u>We</u> die	They die [Par.Rep+Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
<b>49.</b> They <u>loss</u>	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Lose
50. They can catch	Х	Х	Tr: yes, they can be caught  [Imd.Recast] Lr: Were caught (after 3 moves)  [Sub]	Х	Successful Uptake	<b>√</b>
<b>51.</b> What you use?	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	What would you
<b>52.</b> In seaing	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Traveling by sea
<b>53.</b> Go there [verb instead of a gerund]	×	Х	Х	<i>Tr</i> : you're with going () [Imd.Recast]	×	✓
<b>54.</b> Without <u>comebac</u> k	×	Х	Х	<i>Tr</i> : Without Coming back ()? [ <i>Imd. Recast</i> ]	×	✓
<b>55.</b> Hide [Simple past]	Х	Х	Х	×	X	Hid
<b>56.</b> Fall [Simple past]	Х	Х	Х	×	X	fell
<b>57.</b> When the wheels take	Took place [Sub]	×	X	×	×	✓
58. Will be crashed	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	He was crashed
<b>59.</b> He felt [ To fall in the past]	х	Х	Х	Х	×	fell
<b>60.</b> Take[Simple past]	[] took [Non.Lex+sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
<b>61.</b> He was die	х	Х	Tr: he was?[Imd.Elicitation] Lr: he died [Par.Rep+Sub/SR]		Successful Uptake	✓

<b>62.</b> What you gain?	х	×	Tr: sorry? [imd.clarification Request] Lr: what you will gain? [full Rep+Sub]	х	Partial uptake	х
The same error	Х	Х	Х	<i>Tr:</i> what would you gain? [Post.Recast]	х	1
<b>63.</b> Other <u>person</u>	Х	Х	Х	×	Х	Other persons
<b>64.</b> <u>All the</u> 10 years	х	X	х	<i>Tr:</i> For 10 years?! [ <i>Imd.Recast</i> ]	Х	1
65. What you'll do?	х	Х	х	х	х	What would you do?
<b>66.</b> Because of not papers	х	Х	Peer: heh? [Imd.Clarification Req] Lr: because we not have papers [Full.Rep +Ins]	Х	Partial Uptake	Because not having papers
<b>67.</b> You'll remain without paper	Without papers[Par.Rep+Ins]	×	х	Х	×	✓
<b>68.</b> He stayed [Anonymous Subject]	х	Х	Tr: your brother? [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes [App]		Partial Uptake	1
<b>69.</b> He rent [Simple Past]	Х	Х	X	×	Х	He rented
<b>70.</b> They give them [future]	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	They will give
71. He didn't married	Х	Х	Х	<i>Tr:</i> But without marriage? [ <i>Imd. Recast</i> ]	х	1
<b>72.</b> He is there for 20 years	Х	X	Х	×	X	from 20 years ago
<b>73.</b> He is married to an Algerian	х	Х	х	<i>Tr:</i> he got married to an Algerian? [ <i>Imd. Recast</i> ]	×	✓
<b>74.</b> She has nationality [Absence of the Subject]	×	Х	х	Х	х	The French nationality
<b>75.</b> They 're regretting <u>for</u> being there	Х	Х	Х	х	х	Regretting being there
<b>76.</b> When you found [Present Simple]	Х	Х	Х	х	х	When you find
<b>77.</b> He have()	×	Х	Х	×	Х	He has
78. He told me [ about a dead person]	He used to tell me [Par.Rep+Sub]	Х	х	Х	Х	1
79. We have a lot bad things	х	Х	х	Х	Х	A lot of

80. What I won?	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	What do I win?
81. how I can?	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	How can I?
<b>82.</b> A student [To express the plural]	Х	Х	х	Х	Х	students
83. Opportunity [To express the plural]	х	х	Tr: opportunities?  [Imd. Recast]  Lr: Opportunities of having a better life [Par.Rep+Incorp]	Х	Successful Uptake	✓
<b>84.</b> Having car	×	Х	Х	×	X	Having a car
85. Do you know what do they do?	х	X	х	X	Х	Do you know what they do?
<b>86.</b> Why you don't?	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Why don't you?
<b>87.</b> Because the money	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Because of money
88. To work in land	Х	Х	Х	×	Х	To work in the land
<b>89.</b> It's because risky [word order]	Х	Х	х	Х	Х	Because it's risky
<b>90.</b> I know much [ for people]	[] a lot of people [Par.Rep+Sub]	X	х	×	Х	<b>✓</b>
<b>91.</b> I go there [] [to express possible future]		X	х	×	Х	I would go there
92. Yesterday, I watch	×	Х	Х	×	X	watched
93. Who wants [Simple past]	×	×	х	Х	х	wanted
94. They are saying [past continuous]	х	х	Tr: they were saying [Post. Recast]  Lr: yes, they were saying () [App+Par.Rep+ Incorp]	Х	Successful Uptake	✓
<b>95.</b> Unemployment is	Exists there also [Sub]	×	×	×	×	✓
<b>96.</b> They <u>are</u>	[] they have [Imd.Non.Lex+Par. Rep+sub]	Х	х	Х	Х	1
97. Why they act ()? [Simple Past]	х	Х	х	Х	х	Why did they act ()?
98. Treat him bad	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	badly
<b>99.</b> Why they not immigrate [Simple Past]	Why they have not immigration? (Attempt) [Par.Rep+ins] [failed]	×	х	Х	Х	Why didn't they immigrate?

Table 02: List of Phonology Errors and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	Uptake	Target Form
ERROR	5.1.5. <b>K</b>	SI.OK	O.I.S.K	OI.OK	Оргаке	Target Form
1. Achieve /əˈtʃeiv/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/əˈtʃeiːv/
<b>2.</b> Law /ˈləʊ/	Х	×	Х	X	Х	/'lɔ:/
3. crisis /ˈkrisis/	Х	х	Tr: the economical / 'kraIsis/ in our country? [Imd. Recast] Lr: yes [App]	х	partial Uptake	1
4. Commerce /ˈkɔ:mi:rs/	Х	Х	х	Х	Х	/'kpm3:(r)s/
5. Zero percent /'p3:(r)sent/	Х	Х	х	Peers:/pəˈ ɜːsnt / [imd. Recast]	х	✓
<b>6.</b> Driving licence /ˈlaisiːns/	Х	х	х	X	х	/ˈlaɪsəns/
7.Millionaire/ mɪljə ni:(r)/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˌmɪljəˈneə(r)/
8. Choices /'tʃeʊsiz/	×	х	Tr: /ˈtʃɔisiz/[Imd. Recast] Lr: minimal /ˈtʃɔisiz/[ Sub/SR]	×	Successful Uptake	✓
9. Percent /'p3:(r)sent/	Х	Х	×	Х	Х	/pəˈsent/
10. These /ðiːs/	/ði:z/ [ful.Rep+sub]	х	х	Х	х	✓
11. Raciste country /ˈrʌsɪst/	France is racist /'reisist/ [full Rep+Sub]	х	х	х	х	1

Table 03: List of Lexical Breakdowns and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work ERROR	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	Uptake	Target Form
1.With ? with ?	Х	Lr: How to say it! [Req.Aid] Peer: boat [Imd. Recast]	х	х	Х	1
2. To ?	To[] to travel [Par Rep +non Lex + Ins]	×	×	х	X	1
3. If you get enough from this	From your situation there [Par.Rep+ Sub]	×	Х	×	X	1
4. They respect people who	who[] who have [] who have capacities [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	×	×	х	×	✓
5. They respect you as	х	Lr: As [] as a[] [Non Lex+ Par Rep] Peer: as a person [Recast]	×	×	Х	1
6. Don't see [ to mean look]	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Look
7. To have the right papers	The residence [Sub]	х	Х	х	Х	Residence papers
8. You will have the same <u>rights</u> (To express problems)	×	х	X	Tr: Whether you're an illegal or legal immigrant, you'll face the same problems!  [Imd.Recast]	Х	1
9. Suffered to	To [] to[] to bring him back [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	×	Х	х	X	1
10. This comes (adapted) from the	[] the economical crisis [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	х	×	х	×	<b>✓</b>
11. We have to work to	In order to solve [Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
12. To have better opportunities to	[] to live better life [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	х	Х	х	Х	1

13. The government is preventing youth to improve to	×	×	Tr: you think that the government is () not helping to get jobs?  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: Yes, yes [App]	×	Partial Uptake	1
14. I would illegally immigrate because in Algeria we can't	х	х	х	Tr: You mean someone in Algeria can't develop himself ()in another country [Imd. Recast]	х	1
15. There are	[] There are opportunities [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	х	Х	Х	Х	✓
16. There is no "Riba" in this(Arabic)	Х	×	×	×	X	Usury
17. Road license	х	Lr: this is the word?  [Req.Aid]  Tr: what?  [Clarification.Req]	Х	х	х	х
18. Permits (French)	Х	Х	Peer: driving License [Post.Recast] Lr: yes ,driving licence [App+Sub]	Х	Successful Uptake	1
19. I have my	My aunt who lives there [Par.Rep+ Ins]	×	х	Х	Х	
20. May be with law, with	[] may be having a job or something [Non.lex+Ins]	х	х	х	х	1
21. May be people with their Diploma, they	[]they find jobs in some company [Adapted] [ Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	х	
22. His uncle and the	Х	Lr;[] the other members of his family [Non.lex + Par.Rep +Ins] Peer: his relatives[Recast]	Х	Х	Х	/
23. How can he	Х	х	Х	Peer: manage [Imd.Recast]	Х	1

24. When he decided to go to this	Abroad (adapted) [ Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
25. We should forget about all	[] all what we have said  [non-Lex + Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	Х	Х	х	/
26. They ?	[]they lose their lives(adapted) [Non-Lex+Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	х	х	×	✓
27. 300 persons were got in the middle of the sea last	[] last week [non-Lex + Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	х	Х	×	1
28. What kind of a	[] of a sheap [non-Lex+Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	х	×	×	✓
29. Personally I	[] I agree with them [non-Lex +Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	×	×	×	✓
30. Personally I agree with them in	X	×	Tr: But? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: In the risky situation in the sea [Par.rep+Ins/SR]	х	Successful Uptake	✓
31. I'm with illegal immigration in	х	х	Peer: papers [Recast] Lr: with papers [Par.Rep+Sub]	х	Successful Uptake	1
32. To travel by [] or ?	X	×	×	×	X	By risky means
33. A funny ?	[] a funny person [non-Lex +Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	х	х	Х	<b>✓</b>
34. Who 🔞	[] who hid himself (adapted) [non-Lex +Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	×	Х	×	✓
35. The wheels took place (adapted)	х	Х	х	Tr: Took off [Imd.Recast]	х	✓
36. When the plane ?	Х	х	х	Peer: Took off [Imd.Recast]	Partial Uptake after 8 moves	1
37. He fall from ?	Х	Lr: []from[] [Non.Lex+Par. Rep] Peer: The sky[Ins]	х	х	Х	
38. This is a start, throwin	Lr uses a non-verbal resource/ hand gesture of throwing a gum	Х	Х	х	Х	Throwing your gum

	[Body Language]					
39. He rented an apartment and	×	×	Tr: He works, he didn't do any troubles  [Post.Recast] Lr: Yes, they'll give them the papers like this  [App+Ins]	Х	Partial Uptake	UNKNOWN
40. Because we	[] we saw them on tv [non-Lex +Par.Rep +Ins]	×	×	×	×	✓
41. You'll remain without papers	[] without papers the whole [] the rest of your life [non-Lex +Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	Х	Х	х	✓
42. No matter what they	х	×	×	×	×	What they do
43. More educated	Х	Х	х	Tr: more civilized maybe[Imd.Recast] Peer: yes yes	Partial Uptake	✓
44. I ?	[] I[] I don't have anything in my hand! [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	х	Х	х	
45.Students in Europe are they	Are they like us?[Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	
46. For Example they	We are just studying [Sub/ Idea reformulation]	х	х	Х	х	UNKNOWN
47. But we are not ?	Most of us are not [Par.Rep+Sub]	Х	х	Х	х	✓
48. People who have money Who have	Lr: uses a non-verbal resource/shoulders [Body Language]	х	х	х	х	Who have power
49. I will not get what I						What I dream of
50.We don't know If we can get	х	Х	х	Х	Х	A job
51. Don't compare us with them [] in many	х	×	х	Х	х	Things

52. Because you have ?	Lr:Uses a non-verbal resource	Х	X	X	X	Have / Owe
53. When you have children,	[ Body Language]		х	Peer: Difficulties [Recast]		money
you'll find ?  54. They are	[] they have some dreamers []  [non-Lex +Par.Rep +sub]	×	х	X	Х	✓
55. They wanted	They worked hard [Par.Rep+Sub]	×	×	×	Х	✓
56. In the whole	In the whole year [Par.Rep+Ins]	х	х	х	×	1
57. That's the question I wanted to say	х	Х	х	х	Х	Ask
58. In here you	You find one good person [Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	х	х	×	1
59. They accept working in ?	[] in agriculture [Non-Lex+Ins]	×	X	х	×	✓
60. Buying	X	Х	Х	Х	X	Selling
61. Buying	×	Х	Х	Х	X	Selling
62. Buying	×	Х	X	×	×	Selling
63. They <u>buy</u> their lands to	[] they sell their lands to buy a car [Non-Lex+Ful.Rep+Ins]	×	х	×	×	*
64. They lose their lands only to	х	х	х	Tr: They give millions+ a car+ apartment.()  [Imd Recast]	Х	1
65. It's dry	[] it's a dry weather [Non-Lex+Ful.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	х	Х	1
66. They act him	×	Х	Х	Х	X	Treat

Table 04: List of Intelligibility breakdowns and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	S.I.O.R	O.I.S.R	O.I.O.R	Uptake	Target Message
1.I am with [ The concept "Illegal immigration" was not comprehended]	Х	Х	Tr: with illegal immigration?  [Imd. Elicitation]  Lr: oh! Illegal? No I am with immigration  [Par.Rep+Sub/SR]	х	Partial Uptake	Repair In Progress
Same Failure [ Lr still couldn't identify her side]	Х	х	Tr: So, you are not with illegal immigration you just want to go abroad  [Post. recast]  Lr: yes, I am against illegal immigration  [App+Par.Rep+Sub/SR]	х	Successful Uptake	<b>√</b>
2. What do you mean by illegal? with [] with [] how do we say it?	X	х	Tr: () if you do something illegal, this means you're against the law () in illegal way, without papers [Imd. Recast] Lr: means to travel legally but staying Until the VISA's ready? [Sub]	x	Partial Uptake	X
Same failure	Х	х		Tr: No the debate is about going abroad with illegal means [Post. Ex. Correction]		<b>\</b>
3. Tr: is it worthy to immigrate [] in an illegal way?  Lr: No Respense	Х	х	Tr: for people who're with?!  [Imt Elicitation]  Lr: repeat the question please?  [Req.Rep]		х	Repair in Progress
Same failure	х	х	Tr: I said, Is it worthy to immigrate and risk your life?  [Post. Recast]  Lr: yes, if you get enough [] from your situation there. [App+ Ins/SR]	х	Successful Uptake	<b>√</b>
4. If you get enough from your situation there [Lexical Choice-Induced]	х	х	Tr: what situation? Explain!  [Imd.Elicitation]  Lr: [] if you can get your rights [] in your country, you don't search [] in another country [Sub/SR]	Х	Successful Uptake	<b>√</b>

5. I would illegally [adapted] immigrate because in Algeria we can't [P] [Lexical Choice-Induced]	х	х	×	Tr: you mean someone in Algeria can't develop himself[] in another country [Imd. Recast]	х	✓
6. He had problems of job	Х	Х	<i>Tr</i> : [] he couldn't find a job [ <i>Imt.Recast</i> ] <i>Lr</i> : yes, he couldn't find a job [ <i>App+Incorp</i> ]	х	Successful Uptake	1
7. Tr: they say it's easier in Italy? [] what'd you say? Lr(s): [No Response]	×	×	Tr: she says it's easier to be an immigrant in  Italy () what do you say?  [Post.Recast+ Elicitation]  Lr: they have the opportunity to have the"  Residence" [Ins]	Х	Partial uptake	Repair in Progress
Same failure	×	×	X	Tr: No, without the right papers [] your brother was legally sent there [] still he faced some problems [Post.Recast] Peer: but it's the same you'll have the same rights [Non.Lex+Ins]	Partial Uptake	✓
8. I know someone	A woman, a Tunisian woman [Par.Rep+Ins] (to specify meaning)	×	Х	Х	×	1
9. This comes (adapted) from the economical Crisis	×	×	Tr: The economical crisis in Algeria?[Imd.Recast] L:yes [App]	Х	Partial Uptake	✓
Same failure	×	×	Peer <sub>1</sub> : there is an economical crisis in other countries! [Elicitation]  Tr: if they're problems and we had problems, why not staying here?  [post. Elicitation]  Peer <sub>2</sub> : it's not the same!  [Recast]  Lr: because Algeria is full of problems more than other countries [Sub/SR]	×	Successful uptake After 5 turns	✓
10. L: talking without doing anything (adapted)	Х	Х	Peer: doing what? [Elicitation] Lr: start with yourself [Sub] (Attempt)	Х	Partial Uptake	to change yourself first

11. The government is preventing youth to improve, to [Lexical Failure-Induced]	х	х	Tr: you think the government is not [] helping youngsters to get jobs opportunities [imd.Recast] Lr: yes, yes [App]	х	Partial uptake	1
12. That's it, this is a start [] [Lexical failure-Induced]	х	х	Tr: what's your point? [Imd.Elicitation]  Lr: we throw [] throw our[]  (Hand gesture of throwing)  [Par.Rep+ Body Language]	х	Partial uptake	Correction in Progrees
Same failure	Х	х	Tr: yes, [] we "spit everywhere"  [Post Recast]  Lr: [] we say people who clean the floor don't do their work! This is wrong [Ins/SR]	х	Successful Uptake	✓
13. May be it's forbidden in Islam [Lr refers to "Ansej"]	×	Х	×	<i>Tr:</i> Sorry? [Imd.Clarefication.Req] Peer: No, there is no "Riba" in this [Ins]	Successful Uptake	1
14. I can build a factory	[] a milk factory [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins] (To spicify meaning)	X	Х	Х	×	✓
15. They put themselves there (referring to people who didn't study)	х	х	Tr: are you blaming people who're less intelligent? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: [] because there are a lot of people who are intelligent but they refuse to study! [Ins]	х	Successful Uptake	<b>/</b>
16. You'll have the same rights	Х	х	х	Tr: whether you're an illegal or legal immigration, you'll face the same problems [Imd.Recast]	х	/
17. People who have money, who have	Lr uses a non-verbal resource/ Shoulders [Body Language]	×	×	×	×	Who have power

18. Small track to make for example a small restaurant [] in the track car (incomplete idea)	х	Х	X	Tr: eheh? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: for those who didn't study [] you can just have the driving license to make this (adapted) [Ins]	Successful Uptake	✓
19. But if you don't have a diploma () for example if the company () what can you do? (incomprehensible)	×	×	Tr: what'd you do? Having no diploma ()? [Imt. Recast] Lr: just working in some restaurant? [Ins/SR]	Х	Partial uptake	Repair in Progress
Same failure	Х	×	Tr: she asked a question to the other side!  [post.Elicitation]  (Peer: I didn't hear the question, would you repeat?)  Lr: if they don't accept you in a company?  [Sub/SR]	Х	Successful Uptake	/
20. Because you have	Lr uses a non verbal resource to express money [Body Language]	×	×	Х	×	You have money
21. You told me you are not intelligent [incomprehensible]	Х	Х	х	х	Х	Talking about less intelligent people
22. () they took everything	Х	Х	<i>Tr:</i> Now, the point behind this?  [Post.Elicitation]  Lr: I am going to tell you. Then he started thinking to go abroad (adapted) [Ins/SR]	х	Successful Uptake	<b>✓</b>
23. No he was running	Х	Х	Peer: Running from what? From miserable life?  [Imd. Elicitation + Recast]  Lr: yes () What put him in this miserable life? He didn't want to study! [App+Ins/SR]	х	Successful Uptake After 9 turns	/
24. All people who work in, the majority I said, there not "Halal" <i>Peer:</i> how is that?	×	×	Tr: yes, how can we make sure there is not? [Post .Elicitation] Lr: I don't know, if you just have a job in a restaurant () you say it's "Halal", and you serve? [Non,Lex+Ins/SR]	Х	Partial Uptake	Repair in Progress

Same failure Peer: () not everyone!	X	Lr: I'am not talking of  [] how []  [Non.Lex+Ins]  Tr: you're saying  ()people who went  there and had jobs in  restaurants and bars  []they serve  alcoholic liquids  [Post. recast]	X	X	х	<b>✓</b>
25. If you want to go there, what you[] What kind of sheap, or by what you go?	Х	Х	Peer: I didn't understand [Clarification.Req] Lr: I mean what would you use to go there? (adapted) [Sub]	Х	Successful Uptake	<b>✓</b>
26. Personally I agree with them in in [Lexical failure-Induced]	×	Х	<i>Tr:</i> but? [ <i>Imt.Elicitation</i> ] <i>Lr:</i> In the risky situation in the sea  (Adapted)[ <i>Ins/SR</i> ]	×	Successful Uptake	✓
27. I am with illegal immigration with papers (Adapted)	Х	Lr: As your brother (pointing out a peer) [Body Language+Ins] Tr: aah, legally? [Post. recast]	×	Х	х	<b>/</b>
28. I mean going there with papers, going without coming back (adapted)	Х	Х	<i>Tr</i> : you're with () immigration () if you have the official papers () that's what you mean. [Imd.Recast]  Lr: Nodding with her head[Body Language]	×	×	1
29. lot of people who risk their lives to travel by [Lexical Failure-Induced]	Or [] there's a funny person who hid himself in the wheels of the plane (Adapted)[Non. Lex +sub]	Х	×	Х	×	1
30. People can do this	×	Х	×	Peer: can do what? [Elicitation] Tr: can stay far from their parents [post.Recast]	×	1
31. Because of not having papers [Adapted]	×	Х	Peer: heh? [Clarification .Req]  Lr: because I don't have papers which make me go back, because I live there illegally  [Par.Rep+Ins]	×	Partial Uptake	Repair in Progress

Same failure	Х	Х	×	Tr: So, if you go legally you turn Illegally ()So, it's a problem [Post Recast]	х	✓ <b></b>
32. He stayed 10 years [Grammatical structure- Induced]	х	Х	Tr: your brother [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes yes ,he had his papers like this [App+ins/SR]	х	Partial Uptake	/
33. When you stay 10 years in France, and you [] () you work and the bill [] [Grammatical+ Lexical failure- iNduced]	×	×	Tr: you mean even illegally 10 years?  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: yes, yes he had his papers like this  [App+Ins/SR]	×	Successful Uptake	✓
34. He rented an apartment and [Lexical failure-Induced]	х	х	Tr: he works, he didn't do any troubles.  [imd.recast]  Lr: yes, they will give them papers.  [App+Ins]	х	Successful Uptake	/
35. If you're smart you can get the papers	×	х	<i>Tr:</i> he said if you're smart you can get the papers [ <i>Imd.Elicitation</i> ] <i>Lr:</i> yes, to get papers [ <i>App+Incop</i> ]	x	Partial Uptake	Tr wanted to calarify the meaning of "smart"
36. () they are regretting being there	Х	Х	Peer: what do you regret? [elicitation] Tr: it's different there [Post .Recast] Lr: especially when you have children; you'll find difficulties. He told me, in France, there's segregation between Arabs and [? [Ins]]	x	Partial Uptake	Repair in Progress
Same Failure	Х	Х	Tr: yes () there's kind of Racism [Post.Recast]  Lr: when you see your children acting like the others who don't accept them. It's really difficult [Ins]	х	Successful Uptake after 9 turns	<b>/</b>
37. Well for me it's not	[] personally I want to go there () to change people [Non.Lex+Sub]	х	×	х	х	<b>/</b>

38. I want to change people	х	х	Tr: what's wrong with our people?!  [Imd .Elicitation]  Lr: (No repense)	х	Х	Repair in Progress
Same failure	Х	х	Peer: Do you want to make them Muslims?  [Elicitation]  Lr: No, not change people [Ref+Par.Rep]	х	Partial Uptake	Repair in Progress
Same failure	Х	Х	Tr: faces, he wants to change (pointing out the face) [post.Recast+Body Language] Lr: not change the people, I want to change  [Par.rep+Sub/SR attempt]	Х	Partial Uptake	Undone Repair/Tr Interferen- ce
39. For example they	We are just studying ()  [Sub]	Х	Х	Х	X	✓
40. So, you are not changing	You're not a good person [Par.Rep+Sub]	Х	Х	×	X	✓
41. I'll not get what	Х	Х	Х	х	Х	What I dream of
42. You're not a good person, it's	[] you're a good person in France, not a good person in Algeria [Non.Lex +Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	х	х	х	1
43. Because of money	×	х	×	Peer: Non Verbal response Tr: They would have higher wages than in here [Post. Recast]	х	1
44. Because it's risky	Х	Х	Tr: why it is risky? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: what? Many things [Ins]	х	Partial Uptake	Repair in Progress
Same failure	Х	Х	Tr: scorpions may be?  [Post.Recast]  Lr: yes, yes [App]	х	Partial Uptake	1
45. They lose their lands only to	х	Х	х	Tr: They give millions + a car + apartment. But people avoid it because it's hot [Imd.Recast]	Х	1
46. You go and suffer from racism [] racist country	[] France is racist [Non.lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	х	X	1

47. See? These are Algerians, not like there	x	Х	×	Tr: what? [Imd.Clarefication .Req] Lr: Racism here not there! [Par.Rep+Ins]	×	<b>\</b>
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# **Appendix C2: Spoken Errors and Repair Work**

# **Session 02: Immigration**

Table 01: List of Grammar Errors and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	uptake	Target Form
1.To find better condition	х	Х	<i>Tr</i> : to find? [ <i>Imd.Elicitation</i> ] <i>Lr</i> : to find to to find better conditions [ <i>Par.Rep</i> + <i>Ins</i> ]	х	Successful uptake	1
2. For study	×	X	Х	<i>Tr</i> : for studying, yes good [ <i>Imd.Recast</i> ]	×	<b>\</b>
3. Society reasons	×	Х	×	Peer: social [Imd.Recast]	X	✓
4. War [ Incomplete Structure]	Х	х	х	Tr: So when there's a war, we're looking for peace in another country  [Imd.Recast]	х	<b>√</b>
5. And they [Anonymous subject]	[] The government of France [Non.Lex+sub]	Х	Х	х	×	1
6. Had make	Х	Х	×	X	×	Had made
7 He go [to express the past tense]	Х	X	Х	х	×	He went
8. The country he go there	[] in the country he go to it (Attempt) [Non.Lex+par.Rep+ Sub]	Х	х	х	х	In the country he went to
9. And Hadjer she said [double-subject]	×	X	Х	х	×	And Hadjer said
10. Some peoples	Х	Х	Х	Х	X	Some people
11. When a child move	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	moves
12. Because children they feel [double subject]	х	Х	х	х	Х	Because children feel
13. That used beyond ()	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	That is used
14. Not always find a job	Х	Х	Х	<i>Tr</i> : so, they don't always find a job [ <i>Imd.Recast</i> ]	Х	<b>√</b>

15. You're out there than to be here [Adapted]	х	×	х	х	×	To be there is better than to be her/ better to be there than here
16. Because trusting our government	[] we don't trust them [Non.Lex+Sub]	Х	х	х	Х	1
17. A government/ their people	Х	×	х	×	×	Its people
18. A government that have	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	That has
19. Twenty year	[] twenty years [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Sub]	Х	х	х	Х	1
20. There is a good conditions	Х	Х	х	х	Х	There are good conditions
21. To better life	х	Х	Peer: have [Imd.Recast] Lr: to have a better life [Ful.Rep+ Ins]	х	Successful uptake	1
22. Because is I am studying	х	Х	Tr: Because you're studying English? [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes [App]	х	Partial uptake	1
23. They are not all want aggressive	х	Х	Tr: They are aggressive? [Imd. Elicitattion] Lr:No [Ref]	х	Partial Uptake	In Progress
Same Error	х	Х	Tr: You mean they are not aggressive? [Post.Recast] Lr: yes [App]	х	Partial uptake	1
24. A developing country	х	Х	Х	Tr: A developed country [imd.recast]	Х	1
25. Well polite	Х	X	Tr: They are very polite?  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: yes [App]	х	Partial uptake	<b>✓</b>
26. Gossip at each other	х	Х	Х	х	Х	Gossip about each other
27. Because it is having a better condition of life	х	Х	х	х	Х	To have better conditions
28. a better condition of life	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	better conditions
29. I sure	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	I am sure
30. I am sure miss my parents (adapted)	Х	×	х	×	Х	I will miss my parents

31. I know more people go there	Х	Х	х	Tr: many? You know so many [Imd. Recast]	×	✓
32. Many people go there (Adapted)						Many people who went there
33. A lot of the things	Х	Х	Х	×	Х	A lot of things
34. Several of people	Х	Х	Х	×	Х	Several people
35. Several people they don't (adapted) [Double- subject]	Х	Х	х	Х	х	Several people don't
36. There is lot of countries	×	Х	X	×	X	There are
37. I am against immigrants	×	X	<i>Tr:</i> Immigration [ <i>Imd.Recast</i> ] <i>Lr:</i> immigration, yes [ <i>App+Sub</i> ]	×	Successful uptake	✓
38. What I notice [to express past tense]	Х	X	×	×	×	noticed
39. They influenced	Х	Х	х	Tr: they are [Imd.recast] Lr: they are influenced by () [Ins]	Successful uptake	<b>\</b>
40. By the tradition [to express plural]	Х	Х	х	Х	х	The traditions
41. Their tradition [to express plural]	×	X	×	×	×	Their traditions
42. They are similar with us	Х	Х	Х	×	Х	Similar to us
43. Youth generation	Х	Х	х	Tr: ()Especially for youth [Post.Recast]	х	1
44. They've problem [to express the plural]	×	×	х	х	х	problems
45. Not by immigrate	Х	Х	×	×	X	By immigrating
46. More development than ()	×	X	×	×	Х	More developed
47. Its beauty of	[] beautiful places [Non.Lex+Sub+Ins]	Х	х	Х	х	1
48. I am Arabic	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	I am an Arab
49. The governing many years	Х	Х	х	х	х	They have governed or they have been governing
50. They made any changes	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	No changes
51. There is lot of changes	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	There are lot of

52. A rich country that have	X	Х	Х	Х	Х	That has
53. They fed up	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	They are fed up
54. The government are	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	The government is
55. How you want me	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	How do you want me
56. him [to express a plural]	х	Х	×	X	Х	them
57. The freedom of speak	X	X	Х	Х	X	The freedom of speech
58. The artists of Algeria they go [double-subject]	х	Х	х	Х	Х	The artists of Algeria go
59. There is many	X	Х	Х	Х	Х	There are many
60. From worst	X	Х	Х	Х	Х	from the worst
70. For	To be honest [Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	/
71. They become [to express past tense]	х	X	х	×	Х	They became
72. Because of government	х	X	х	×	Х	Because of the government
73. We see in the TV	X	Х	Х	Х	X	We see on TV
74. The government give	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	gives
75. This is of	this is because of us [Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	/
76. Homeless	х	Х	Tr: Homeless? [Imd. Repetition] Lr: (No response)	Х	Х	
77. We're not going for	Towards our dreams [Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	<b>✓</b>
78. We face struggle [To express the plural]	х	X	х	×	Х	struggles
79. We gave up [to express the present tense]	х	Х	х	Х	Х	We give up
80. Even by our parents	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Even with our parents
81. We gave up [to express the present simple tense]	х	Х	х	×	Х	We give up

Table 02: List of Phonology errors and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	uptake	Target Form
1.Find /'feind/	To /feind/ []/faind/ [Par.Rep+Non.Lex +Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
2. Economic /I'conomik/	Х	Х	X	<i>Tr:</i> /ˌiːkəˈnɒmɪk/ <i>[Imd.Recast]</i>	х	✓
3. Work /'work/	Х	Х	X	Tr: /'w3:(r)k/ yes [Imd.Recast]	Х	<b>~</b>
4. France /'fræns/	Х	Х	Tr: /fra:ns/ [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes [App]	х	Partial uptake	<b>~</b>
5. Cause /'kəʊz/	×	Х	X	Х	Х	/kɔ:z/
6. Used /'ju:zed/	×	Х	×	Х	X	/'ju:st/
7. Gossip /ˈgɒsi:p/	×	Х	X	Х	X	/'gpsip/
8. Legal /'leɪgl/	×	Х	×	Х	X	'/li:gl/
9. Sahara /'sʌha:ra/	×	Х	X	Х	Х	/sə'ha:rə/
10. Bad /'bed/	×	Х	X	Х	Х	/'bæd/
11. Bad /'bed/	×	Х	X	Х	Х	/'bæd/
12. To /tʃ/ [try]	To /traɪ/ [Sub+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	<u> </u>
13. Support /so'po:rt/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/sə'pɔ:t/
14. Event /'i:vent/	Х	Х	Х	Tr: /i'vent/ [Imd. Recast]	х	✓

Table 03: List of Lexical Breakdowns and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OLOR	uptake	Target Form
1.Seeking for	х	Х	×	<i>Tr:</i> Seeking for a better life, yes [ <i>Imd.Recast</i> ]	×	✓
2. In order to	[] to have a good life (adapted) [Non.Lex +Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	×	Х	×	1
3. In one	х	Х	Tr: in the same country  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: yes [App]	Х	Partial uptake	1
4. When they are forced	×	Х	Tr: when they are?  [Imd.Elicitation]  Lr: they're controlled  [Ful.Rep+Sub]	×	Successful uptake	1
5. Prospery	Х	Х	Х	Tr: prosperity [Imd.Recast]	Х	✓
6. Better choice of ?	×	X	×	Peers: life [Imd.recast]	×	✓
7. In Charlie Hibdo ?	х	Х	Tr: news paper? [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes [App]	Х	Partial uptake	1
8. The government of France didn't want to	×	×	×	Х	х	?
9. They	[] they hide [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	×	✓
10. They come to a country	×	Х	×	×	×	They go
11. In all the world	х	Х	Tr: Throughout the world!  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: yes [App]	Х	Partial uptake	
12. Some people don't	[] don't like strangers [Non.Lex+Par.Rep + Ins]	Х	Х	Х	×	1
13. Racism is	[] a broad term [Non.Lex+Ins]	X	X	Х	×	✓
14. Than to be	х	Х	Х	х	Х	Then to be here
15. Specially	х	Х	Tr: especially because you're an Algerian [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes [App] (*2)	Х	Partial uptake	1

16. 20 years [] present	х	х	Tr: ruling the country  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: ruling the country, yes  [App+Sub]	х	Successful uptake	1
17. In the same reasons	х	Х	Х	Х	Х	In the same time
18. They are very	Х	×	Х	Peer: gentle [Imd.Recast]	X	✓
19. Are well	x	Lr: [] well [] how to say it? [Non.Lex+Par.Rep +Req.Aid] Tr: they're polite [Imd.Recast]	×	х	х	1
20. With my people	х	х	Tr: sorry? [Imd. Clarification Request] Lr: with my people	х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same error	х	х	Tr: with my people? [Post.Repetition] Lr: ()I'll miss my parents (sub)	х	Successful uptake	1
21. No better	[] no better conditions in Algeria [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	х	Х	х	х	1
22. No better conditions	х	х	Tr: so we've <u>bad</u> conditions in Algeria ?[Imd.Recast] Lr: Yes [App]	х	Partial uptake	1
23. You have	[] you go to America [Non.Lex+Par.Rep + Sub]	х	Х	х	х	1
24. I love their conditions	х	х	Tr: you love? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: their way of living and traditions [Sub]	х	Successful uptake	1
25. The mazing of our country	х	Х	Х	<i>Tr</i> : the beauty? [ <i>Imd.Recast</i> ] <i>Lr</i> : the beauty, yes [ <i>sub</i> ]	Successful uptake	1
26. Swiss [for the country]	х	×	Х	Х	Х	Switzerland
27. It's about the ?	[] the reality [Non.Lex+ Par.Rep +Ins]	х	×	Х	х	1

28. We hate the people of our country	Х	Х	Tr: who're in our country or who're governing our country?  [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes, [App]	Х	Partial uptake	/
29. We can't see any	[] Anything [Non-lex+Par-Rep+Sub]	Х	Х	×	×	✓
30. Young [] young ?	Х	Х	Tr: generation? Youth  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: yes, youth generation  [App+Incorp]	Х	Partial uptake	/
31. Our Country has a lot of things but ?	×	х	Tr: The way it's governed?[Imd.Elicitation] Lr: No, But several people don't know about its beauty(Adapted) [Ins]	×	Successful Uptake	/
32. They don't have the brave	They don't have the courage [Ful.Rep+sub]	Х	Х	×	×	<b>✓</b>
33. Searching for our	[] searching for our life (attempt) [Non.Lex+ful.Rep +Ins]	Х	×	×	х	Looking for personal interest
34. When the people of Ain Saleh [] they	Х	х	Tr: protested [Imd.Recast] Peer: Rebel [Imd.Recast] Lr: Rebel yes, [App+ Ins]	Х	Successful uptake	1
35. They ?	[] they beat him [Non.Lex+Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	1
36. Any opportunity to [] to	Х	х	Tr: to speak? [Imd.Recast] Lr: To speak ,yes [App+Ins]	Х	Successful uptake	✓
37. It is ?	[] We can't find it in Algeria (Attempt) [Non.Lex + Sub]	Х	Х	х	х	It is absent
38. () to work in other countries in order to	[] I'll push this country to become more developed than my country [Sub]	×	×	×	×	✓

39. Any ?	Х	Х	Peer <sub>1</sub> :results [Recast] Peer <sub>2</sub> : hope [Recast] Lr: Any results [Par.rep+Ins]	×	Successful uptake	1
40. Things are changing from worst to	×	Lr: [] wort to [] [Non.Lex+Par.rep] Peer: bad	×	×	×	To the better
Same Error	Х	Х	Tr:In Algeria, is it changing to the best?[Post.Recast] Lr: Yes, there are some changes and hope [Sub/SR]	×	Partial Uptake	1
41. I am also always expecting () for	[] for a better life [Non.Lex+Par.Rep +ins]	Х	×	×	Х	1
42. This accident	This event [Sub]	Х	Х	Х	×	✓
43. I know some people who were	[] they were scientists [Non.Lex+Par.Rep +Ins]	×	×	×	×	<b>✓</b>
44. When we fight	[] when we face [Non.Lex+Par.Rep +Sub]	Х	Х	Х	×	✓

#### Table 04: List of Intelligibility breakdowns and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	S.I.O.R	O.I.S.R	O.I.O.R	Uptake	Target Form
1.They live when they are forced [lexical-failure - induced]	х	х	Tr: when they are? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: when they're controlled by something [Par.Rep]	Х	Partial Uptake	In progress
Same error	х	×	Tr: when they're looking for freedom  [post.Recast]  Lr: yes, [App]	×	Partial uptake	/
2. War [ the student produced a single word as an answer]	х	х	х	<i>Tr</i> : so, when there is a war, we're looking for peace in another country [ <i>Imd.Recast</i> ]	Х	/

3. What happened in France () Charly Ibdo () the government in France didn't want to "as a replay on the Tr's question about racism as a cause of immigration"	×	х	×	Tr: this is not a direct cause of immigration, this is a direct cause of keeling the journalist [Delayed.EX.C]	Partial uptake [student suggest other answer]	✓
4. Black people when they come to a country, they hide ()	×	×	Tr: so you mean black people in America?  [Imd.Elicitation]  Lr: No, all the world [Ins]	х	Successful uptake	1
5. Tr: Another cause for immigration? Lr: homeless	Х	Х	Tr: homeless? [Imd.Repetition] Lr: (no repense)	х	х	immigrants will become homeless
6. When you are out there than to be happy life [Grammatical structure-induced]	×	Х	Tr: so you are for immigration?  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: yes [App]	х	Partial uptake	?
7. Especially in our country [adapted]	Х	Х	Tr: especially because you are an Algerian you want to migrate? [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes [app]	х	Partial uptake	1
8. A government that has 20 years in present	×	×	<i>Tr:</i> Ruling the country [Imd. Recast] <i>Lr:</i> Ruling the country, yes[App+Incorp]	Х	Successful uptake	<b>✓</b>
9. Because trusting our government [grammatical structure-induced]	[] We don't trust them at all [Non.Lex+Sub]	×	Х	Х	Х	1
10. Because is I am studying [grammatical structure induced]	×	×	Tr: because you're studying English?  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: yes [App]	Х	Partial uptake	1
11. They are not all want aggressive [grammatical structure induced]	Х	Х	Tr: they are aggressive? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: No	Х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same error	Х	Х	Tr: you mean they are not aggressive?  [Post.Recast] Lr: yes [App]	Х	Partial uptake	/

12. Our country has a lot of things but [] but	х	х	Tr: the way it's governed?  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: No, but several people don't know its beauty (adapted) [Sub/ SR]	х	Successful uptake	1
13. It's not good for girls	х	Х	Tr: yes, [Imd.Clarefication Request] Lr: it is not good for girls	х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same error	х	х	Tr: it's not good for girls?  [post.Repetition]  Lr: yes [App]	х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same error	х	х	Tr: I imagine you get married () you migrate with your husband, will it be good for girls? [Post.Recast+Elicitation] Lr: yes [App]	х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same error	х	Х	Х	Tr: so, she needs someone to be with her [Post.Recast]	Х	✓
14. () to work in other countries in order to []	[] I'll push this country to become more developed than my country!	х	×	х	х	1
15. We hate the people of our country [Lexical failure- induced]	х	х	Tr: who're in our country or who're governing our country?  [Imd.Elicitation]  Lr: yes [App]	х	Partial up take	<b>✓</b>
16. Things are changing from worest to [] [Lexical failure-induced]	х	Lr:[]worst to[][Non.Le x+Par] Peer: Bad [Recast]	×	х	Partial Uptake	In progress
Same Error	х	х	Tr: in Algeria it is changing to the best?  [Post.Elicitation]  Lr: yes, there are some changes and hope	х	Successful uptake	<b>✓</b>
17. With my people [Lexical choice-Induced]	х	х	Tr: Sorry? [Imd. Clarification. Req] Lr: With my people [Ful. Rep]	х	Partial Uptake	In progress

Same Error	х	х	Tr: With my people??!!  [Post. Repetition] Lr: () I'll miss my parents [Sub]	х	Successful Uptake	1
18. I love their conditions [Lexical choice- induced]	х	×	<i>Tr:</i> You love? [ <i>Imd. Eliciatation</i> ] <i>Lr:</i> Their way of living and traditions  [ <i>Sub</i> ]	х	Successful Uptaek	1

# **Appendix C3: Spoken Errors and Repair Work**

**Session 03: Autism/ Music** 

Table 01: List of Grammar errors and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	O.I.OR	uptake	Target Form
			- First presentation: Autism	•		
1. Several genes appears	х	Х	Х	Tr: Several genes? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: (no response)	Х	Repair In progress
Same error	х	Х	х	Tr: Several genes? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: (bothered)	Х	Repair In progress
Same error	х	Х	Х	Tr: Several genes appear [Post.Recast]	х	1
2. A small numbers	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	A small number
3. I means	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	I mean
4. Being studying	х	х	Х	Tr: being what? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: (no response)	Х	Being studied
5. They were simply words [Adv instead of adj]	х	Х	Tr: they were what? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: simple words [Par.Rep+sub]	Х	Successful Uptake	1
			- Second presentation: Music			
6. Everyone know	×	X	Х	Х	X	knows
7. I pick up (to express the past tense)	х	X	Х	×	Х	Picked up
8. Music is an art entertainment	Х	X	Х	Х	X	Entertaining art
9. Constituted with	[] constituted by [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Sub]	X	Х	×	X	✓
10. In meaningful way	х	Х	×	Х	Х	In a meaningful way
11. Kind of music	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Kinds of music

[to express the plural]						
12. Kind of music [to express the plural]	Х	Х	х	Х	Х	Kinds of music
13. This kind of music is () most of us have forgotten	х	Х	х	Х	Х	Which most of us have forgotten
14. In the early of the 1940	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	In the early of the 40s
15. The foundation of Rock and Roll the []is originated in the USA	×	×	×	Х	х	The foundation of Rock music is Rock and Roll which is originated in the USA
16. They are using [To express past tense]	×	X	×	Х	X	They were using
17. The best known singers [to express singular]	Х	X	Tr: and the best? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: best known singer [Ful.Rep+Sub]	Х	Successful Uptake	<b>✓</b>
18. Third is blues [a missing article]	×	×	×	Х	X	The third is blues
19. It is firm root	х	Х	Tr: it is? [Post.Elicitation] Lr: it [] it has firm root [Non.Lex+Ful.Rep+Sub]	Х	Successful uptake	<b>√</b>
20. In Africa traditional music	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	African traditional music
21. Intense emotion[to express plural]	х	Х	Х	Х	Х	emotions
22. Of	[] from African traditional music [Non.Lex+Sub]	Х	х	х	х	<b>√</b>
23. Africa traditional music	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	African
24. Is just part [a missing article]	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Just a part
25. Significant important	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Importance
26. Pop is kind of music [a missing article]	X	×	Х	Х	X	A kind of music
27. In the early of the 1990	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	In the early of the 90s
28. Now I talk	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	I am going to talk
29. It refer	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	It refers
30. To style [a missing article]	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	To a style
31. Shaebi is in North Africa	х	Х	Х	Х	х	Is originated in North Africa
32. The best performer is	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Best performers

[to express plural]						
33. The third is the Malouf is the Arab Andalousian music [grammatical Structure]	х	Х	х	х	Х	The third type is Malouf which is an Arab Andalousian music
34. The Malouf	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Malouf
35. Originater	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Originated
36. In the 1973	Х	Х	Х	Х	X	In 1973
37. The last is rap is in the same ()	х	Х	х	Х	X	Which is the same
38. Known performing	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Performer
39. There is great singers	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Are
40. Hard disease [to express plural]	х	X	х	Х	X	Diseases
41. Listening reduce	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Reduces
42. A researchers	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	A researcher
43. Are asked [To express the past tense]	×	X	×	×	X	Were asked
44. A bob music lovers	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	bob music lovers
45. Are hard working	Х	Х	Х	Х	X	Hard workers
46. Are hard working	Х	Х	Х	Х	X	Hard workers
47. Do you seeking out	Х	Х	Х	Х	X	Do you seek out
48. Do you seek out secure	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	To be secured / security
49. Than in the artists	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	More than artists
50. They also	[] they are also [non.lex+Ful.Rep +Ins]	X	х	Х	X	✓
51. And now you listen to a song	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	You are going to listen
52. But as little as 15 seconds of music can change the way you just the emotions on other people' faces [Grammatical Structure]	х	Х	×	Х	Х	A 15 minutes of listening to music can change the emotions expressed on people' faces

53*Begin[ to express the past tense] 54*Become[ to express the past tense] 55*The first begin playing [a missing relative pronoun] 56* Pop is kind of music become (adapted) [a missing relative pronoun]	х	х	Tr: what do you think is wrong with this sentence?  [delayed Elicitation] (writes both sentences) $\rightarrow$ what's wrong? what's the common error?  [Delayed.Elicitation +Metalinguistic.Clue] $Lr_{(s)}$ : No response	х	х	Repair in Progress
Begin[ to express the past tense]     Become[ to express the past tense]	х	х	Tr: the tense is not used properly and there is another grammatical element  [Deleyed.Metaling.Clue]  When you say the first begin playing?  [delayed.Repetition]  Lr <sub>1</sub> : began [Sub]  Lr <sub>2</sub> : becomes [Ins]  Lr <sub>3</sub> : became [Sub]	х	Successful uptake (Errors 53+54)	Repair in Progress
<ul> <li>The first begun playing</li> <li>Pop is a kind of music became</li> </ul>	X	х	Tr: it's easy to find it in the 1 <sup>st</sup> more than in the 2 <sup>nd</sup> for it's difficult to find the error  [Delayed.Metaling.Clue]  Lr(s): No response  Tr: (writes down another example)*  → the same error here (adapted)  Is there a missing element?  [Delayed.Metaling.Clue+Elicitation]  Lr(1): who who began [Par.rep+ins]  Tr: how do you call that in grammatical terms?  Lr(s): relative pronouns  [Metalinguistic Explanation]  Lr(2): and kind of music which became  [ful.Rep+Ins]	X	Successful uptake (Errors 55+56)	<b>√</b>

Table 02: List of Phonology Errors and Repair Works accomplished

		Table 02. Elst 0	or Phonology Errors and Repair	v orks accomplished		1
Repair works Errors	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	Uptake	Target Form
3			- First presentation: Autism -			
1.Autism /əʊtɪzm/	Х	Х	Х	Tr: /ˈɔːtɪzm/ with a long "o" /ɔː/  [Imd.Recast]	Х	1
2. Of /pf/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/'pv/
3. Disorder /ˈdɪzɒrder/	Х	Х	Х	Tr: you said /'dizorder/ it is /dɪs'ɔːdə(r)/ [delayed.Explicit Correction]	Х	1
4. Causes /kəʊzes/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/kɔːzez/
5. Spontaneously /spontanosli/	Х	Х	Х	х	Х	/sppn'teiniəs li/
6. Known /naun/	X	Х	Tr: no [ <i>Imd. Elicitation</i> ] Lr: /naun/	х	Partial uptake	Repair in Progress
Same error	Х	Х	Х	Tr: /'nəʊn/ it is a one syllable word, with the diphtongue /əʊ/ [Post.Recast+Exp]	Х	1
7. Currently /ku:rentli/	Х	Х	Х	Tr: /ˈkʌrəntli/ [Imd.Recast]	Х	1
8. Cure /kju:r/	Х	Х	Х	Tr: /ˈkjʊə(r)/ [Imd.Recast]	Х	1
9. Associated /Asp:sieited/	×	×	Х	×	X	/əˈsəʊʃieɪtɪd/
10. Developmental /'dɪvlɒpmentl/	Х	х	Х	Tr: stress falls on this /ment/ And it's /dɪˌveləpˈmentl/ [ Explicit Correction+ Explanation]	Х	1
11. Disability /dɪˈsəbilɪti/	X	х	х	Tr: what is the opposite of disability and where does the stress fall?  [Delayed.metaling.Clue] Peers: /ə'bilɪti/ [Ins]	Partial uptake	/ˌdɪsəˈbɪləti/
12. Result /rɪsɒlt/	Х	Х	Х	Tr: it is like "god". It's /rɪ'sʌlt/ [Delayed.methaling.Clue]	Х	1
			- Second presentation: Music -			
13.Foundation /fpn'derſn/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/faʊnˈdeɪʃn/
14. Alternative /Altʃɜːnətɪv/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ɔːlˈtɜːnətɪv/
15. Performer /pɪrˈfɔːrmer/	X	Х	Х	Х		/pəˈfɔːmə(r)/

16. Going /gɔːn/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈgəʊɪŋ/
17. Jazz /dʒɒz/	/dʒa;z/ [Sub] (Attempt)	×	х	х	Х	/dʒæz/
18. Derived /de'raıvıd/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/dɪˈraɪvəd/
19. Symphony /'səmfoni/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈsɪmfəni/
20. Opera /'pprʌ/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈɒprə/
21. Originated /'princited/	/'pridʒneitid/ [Sub] (attempt)	Х	х	х	Х	/əˈrɪdʒɪneɪtɪd/
22. Began /begeɪn/	Х	Х	Tr: the first? [post.Elicitation] Lr: /bɪˈgæn/ [Sub]	х	Successful uptake	1
23. Known /naon/	Х	Х	Tr: the best? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: (no response)	х	Х	/nəʊn/
24. Known /naun/	Х	X	Х	Х	Х	/nəʊn/
25. Genre /ʒʌnrə/	Х	X	Х	Х	X	/ˈʒɒnrə/
26. First /forst/	Х	Х	Х	Х	X	/f3:(r)st/
27. Indigenous /ɪnˈdɪʒənʊs/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ınˈdɪdʒənəs/
28. Known /naun/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/nəʊn/
29. Marked /ma:rkid/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ma:kt/
30. Poetry /pɔːtʃrɪ/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/pəʊətri/
31. Other /pðər/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/'ʌðə(r)/
32. Refer /'rɪfer/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/rɪ'fɜ:(r)/
33. Kabalian /ˈkʌbʌljen/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/kəbaɪljen/
34. Berber /'bʌber/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/'berber/
35. Kabalian /ˈkʌbʌljen/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/kəbaɪljen/
36. Gained /ʒeɪnəd/	х	х	Tr: what? What did they do?  [Post.Clarefication.Req+ Elicitation]  Lr: (No Reponse)	х	х	Correction In progress
Same error	Х	Х	Tr: it what? [post.Elicitation] Lr: Music /ʒeɪnəd/	х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same error	х	Х	×	Tr: have you understood what she said?  [Post.Elicitation] Peers: it /geind/	Partial uptake	✓ <u> </u>
Same error	Х	Х	Peers: it /geɪnd/ Lr: Music /geɪnd/ [Par.Rep+Sub]	х	Successful uptake	1
37. Adolescents /'adplisants/	Х	X	Х	Х	Х	/ˌædəˈlesənts/

38. Great /gri:t/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/greit/
39. IQ /aɪˈkiː/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/aɪˈkju:/
40. Treatment /treitment/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/tri:tmənt/
41. Anxiety /'ænegzītī/	х	Х	Tr: and what? [Imd.Clareficatin.Req+ Elicitation] Lr: /ænegzɪtɪ/	х	Partial uptake	Correction in progress
Same error	х	Х	Tr: /ænegzɪtɪ/ [post.Repetition] Would you please write down the word? Lr: (write the word in the board)	х	Partial uptake	in progress
Same error	х	Х	Х	Tr: have you recognized the word?  [Post Elicitation] Peer: /æŋˈzaɪətɪ/	Partial uptake	1
42. Treatment /treitment/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/tri:tmənt/
43. Doesn't /dpznt/	×	Х	Tr: /dʌzənt/ [Imd.Recast] Lr: sad music /dʌzənt/ [Ful.rep+sub]	Х	Successful uptake	1
44. According /Akɔːrdɪŋ/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/əˈkɔːdɪŋ/
45. Enjoyable /ænˈʒɔɪəbl/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/inˈdʒɔɪəbl/
46. Interesting /'inte'restin/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈɪntəstɪŋ/
47. Says /seiz/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/sez/
48. Reveal /re'vɪl/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/rɪ'vi:1/
49. Information /ænf/	[] an / infə meisn/ [ Par.Rep + Sub]	Х	Х	Х	×	✓
50. Personality/'personaliti/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˌpɜːsəˈnæləti/
51. Accurate /'a:kret/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈækjəret/
52. Extroversion /'ıkstrıveı∫n/	х	Х	Tr: of? <i>[ImdElicitation]</i> Lr: /ˈɪkstrɪˈvɜːrʃn/ <i>[Sub]</i>	X	Partial uptake	In progress
53. /ˈɪkstrɪˈvɜːrʃn/	Х	Х	Tr: of [Elicitation] Lr: /ˈɪkstrʌˈveʃn/ [sub]	×	Partial uptake	In progress
54. /ˈɪkstrʌˈveʃn/	Х	Х	Tr: of /ˌekstrə'vɜ:ʃn/ [post.Recast] Lr: ok /ɪkstrʌ/? Req.Aid	х	Partial uptake	In progress
55. /ɪkstrʌ/	Х	Х	Tr: /ˈəkstrə/ [Post.Recast] Lr: /ˈəkstrə/ [Req.Aid]	х	Partial uptake	In progress
	Х	Х	Tr: (nodding yes) [Body Language] Lr: of / ekstrə'v3:ʃn/ [Ful.Rep+Sub]	х	Successful uptake	1
56. Extroversion	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/_ekstrəˈvɜːʃn/

/ˌɪkstræˈvɜːʃn/						
57. Favorite /favorit/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈfeɪvərɪt/
58. Extroverted /'Ikstro'vɜːrtɪd/	Х	х	х	х	Х	/ˈekstrəvɜːtɪd/
59. Creative /krɪ'ʌtɪv/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/kriˈeɪtɪv/
60. Uneasy /ɪni:zɪ/	Х	Х	Tr: And more? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: /ɪn:zɪ/ [Rep]	х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same Error	Х	×	Tr: and more? [Imd.Elicitation] Lr: /m:zi:/ [Sub]	х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same Error	×	Х	×	Tr: would you please write the word down  [Post.Elicitation]  Lr: (writes the word) *No S.R  Tr: /ʌn'i:zɪ/[ Post. Recast]	×	1
61. Aggressive /Igri:siv/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/əˈgresɪv/
62. Aggressive /Igri:sɪv/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/əˈgresɪv/
63. At ease /Ati:z/	Х	х	Lr: (pointing to the word written on the board "easy") [Req.Aid] Tr: /ˌʌt'i:z/ Lr: yes	х	Partial uptake	<b>√</b>
64. /kɒnv/[]	Х	Lr: /kənv/? [Non.Lex+Par.Rep +Req.Aid] Tr: /kən'venʃənl/ [Imd.Recast]		х	Х	1
65. Break /brɪk/	х	х	Tr: centered on what? [Post.Elicitation]  Peer: heart /'breik/  Lr: heart /breik/	х	Successful uptake	1
66. Stable /'stɪbl/	Х	х	Tr: very? [ <i>Imd.Elicitation</i> ] Lr:/'steɪbl/ [ <i>Sub</i> ]	х	Successful uptake	1
67. Aggressive /'eɪgrɪsɪv/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/əˈgresɪv/
68. Gentle /ʒpntl/	Х	Х	×	×	Х	/ˈdʒentl/
69. Introverted /æntr'v3:tɪd/	х	х	Tr:/'Intrəv3:tɪd/ [Imd.Recast] Lr: /'Intro/[] /'Intrəv3:tɪd/ [Par.Rep+Non.Lex+Sub]	х	Х	1
70. Creative /'krı'ʌtıv/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/kriˈeɪtɪv/
71. Int []	[]/'intrəv3:tid/ [Non.Lex+sub]	Х	х	х	×	1

72. Intellectual /ˈæntɪlektʃʊəl/	Х	×	х	х	Х	/ˌɪntəˈlektʃʊəl/
73. Creative /'krɪ'ʌtɪv/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/kriˈeɪtɪv/
74. Researcher /ˈrɪserʃer/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/rɪˈsɜːtʃə(r)/
75. Low /lau/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈləʊ/
76. Introverted /intro'vetid/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈɪntrəvɜːtɪd/
77. Creative /'krɪ'ʌtɪv/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/kriˈeɪtɪv/
78. Extroverted /ikstra-v3:tid/	Х	Х	Peer: /ˌ'ækstrə,vɜːtɪd/ [Recast] Lr: /'ækstrə,vɜːtɪd/ [Sub]	х	successful uptake	1
79. Extroverted /ıkstrʌ'vɜtɪd/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/'ækstrə,vɜ:tɪd/
80. Creative /'krı'ʌtɪv/	Х	Х	×	X	Х	/kriˈeɪtɪv/
81. Linked /lɪŋket/	Х	Х	×	Tr: we don't say /lıŋket/ because we have this cluster of consonants /nkt/ in sequence, you say /lıŋkt/ [Delayed.Ex. C+Explanation]	×	/
82 *Consider /'kɒnsɪdered/ 83 *Centered /'sentered/	×	Х	Tr: (writes the two words on the board) How do you pronounce these ones?  [Delayed.Elicitation] Lr <sub>(s)</sub> : /'kənsıdəred/ /sentəred/ ()	х	Partial uptake	In progress
84* /'kənsidəred/ /85* sentəred/	×	×	×	Tr: /'kənsidəred*/? /sentəred*/? Why /'konsidəred/? Do you have enough energy to waste? [Delayed Repitition+Elicitation Metaling.Clue] It's just /kən'sidə(r)d/ and /sentə(r)d/ [Recast]	х	✓

#### Table 03: List of Lexical breakdowns and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	S.I.O R	O.I.S. R	OI.OR	uptake	Target Form
	- First Presentation : Autism -					
1.With cauting	With caution [Par.Rep+Sub]					1
2. People	People[]people who[] people who gravities[  Non.Lex+Ful.Rep+Ins]	Х	×	Х	Х	1
	- Second presentation: Music -		•	•		
3. Small definition	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Short / brief definition
4. It is a social	[] a total social fact [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	<b>√</b>
5. Originaten	Originated [Sub]	Х	Х	X	X	1
6. The purpose is the <u>inspiration</u> of intense emotions (adapted)	Х	X	X	Х	Х	Expression
7. The best singer is the Alabama	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Musical group
8. kabelia	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Algeria
9. The problems	[] the problems of society [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	1
10. That knowing	[] that knowing the type [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	1
11. And []	[] and more [] more uneasy [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	X	X	Х	✓
12. Centered on []	[] centered on [] centered on the heart [Non.Lex+Par.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
13. This side	[] this style of music [Non.Lex+Ful.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
14. And the world []	[] and the world around them [Non.Lex+Ful.Rep+Ins]	Х	Х	Х	Х	<b>√</b>
15. We have also	[] They said music ()[ Non.Lex+Sub]	Х	Х	X	Х	<b>√</b>

#### Table 04: List of Intelligibility Breakdowns and Repair Works accomplished

				_		
Repair work	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	uptake	Possible Target

Errors						Message
	- Th	e Secon	d presentation: Music -			
1.The foundation of Rock music is Rock and Roll the [] is originated I the USA [Grammatical Structure-induced]	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	The foundation of Rock music is original in USA
2. The second is "Rai" is can be tolerate advice or an opinion  [Grammatical Structure-induced]	Х	Х	х	Х	Х	"Rar" can offer advice or an opinion
3. The third is Malouf is the Arab Andalousian music [Grammatical Structure-induced]	Х	Х	х	Х	Х	?
4. We have also [Lexical Choice-Inducedinduced]	[] they said music [Non.Lex+Sub]	Х	х	Х	Х	1
5. But as little as 15 seconds of music can change the way you just the emotion on other people's faces  [Grammatical structure-induced]	×	Х	X	Х	×	Lestining to music can change people's facial expressions
6. Conventional /kɒnvɒnʃənl/ [mishearing-inducsd]	х	Х	Tr: what? [Imd.Clarefication.Req] Lr: conventional [Ful.Rep with lower voice]	Х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same breakdown	х	Х	Tr: There's "convertion" and "convertible" but  "Convertional"! () you mean?  [Post.Metaling.Che.+Elicitation]  Lr: there are conventions	Х	Successfu l uptake	1
Same Breakdown	Х	Х	Tr: conventional? /kən'venʃənl/ [Post. Recast] Lr: yes [ App]	Х	<b>✓</b>	1
7. Would you rather watch MTV, country music lovers are hard working	Х	Х	х	Х	×	?
8. Do you seeking out secure than in the artists [Grammatical structure induced]	×	Х	х	Х	Х	Do you seek out being secured more than artists
9. The purpose is the inspiration of emotions [Lexical Choice- Induced]						The purpose is the expression of emotions

**Appendix C4: Spoken Errors and Repair Work** 

# Session 04: The Truth [Presentation]/ The Family Value [Play]

Table 01: List of Grammar errors and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	Uptake	Target Form
			- The presentation	l <b>-</b>		1
1.To built		Х	Х	Х	Х	To build
2. I give you [to express near future]		X	×	Х	Х	I am going to give you
3. All the human beings		Х	×	X	X	All human beings
4. The peoples		Х	X	Х	Х	people
5. This is [] [to express near future]	[] will [] relations (SR Attempt) [Non.Lex+Ins]	X	×	Х	Х	This will create relations
6. What is this rules	Х	Х	×	X	Х	What are these rules
7. To saying	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	To say
8. I try [ to express future]	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	I will try
9. Important one [to express plural]	Х	Х	X	Х	Х	Important ones
10. Is concerning what the proverb	Х	X	×	Х	Х	Concerned with what the proverb
11. It containing	Х	Х	X	Х	Х	It contains
12. I may give you ()	Х	Х	X	Х	Х	I will / I am going to give you
13. Read the question the first	х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Read the question first
14. I lie on him	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Lie to him
15. Lie on her	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Lie to her
16. Someone who lie is me	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Who lies
17. They haven't lazy	Х	Х	Х	Tr: laziness? [Imd.Recast]	Х	✓
18. They haven't laziness (adapted)	х	Х	Х	Х	Х	They don't have
19. They was about	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	They were about
20. In TV	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	On TV
21. The reality is [ to express the past tense]	Х	×	Х	Х	Х	The reality was

22. To didn't broke	Х	Х	Х	х	Х	To not break / to avoid breaking
23. I give you [to express near future]	Х	X	х	х	×	I am going t give you
24. Same advices	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Same pieces of advice
25. Respectful person [a missing article]	Х	X	Х	х	×	A respectful person
26. She has add	Х			Tr: added, yes [Imd.Recast]	×	✓
27. She move smoothly	Х	Х	Х	Х	X	She moves
28. She is smoothly	X	X	х	×	×	She's smooth
29. She has self confident	Х		Tr: she is? self confident  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: she is self confident  [Ful.Rep+Sub]	х	Successful uptake	<b>✓</b>
30. The very important	×	Х	×	Tr: an error in "the very important" but you say "the most important" because it's superlative [Delayed.EX.Correction +Explanation]	Х	<b>✓</b>
			-The play -			
31. What this smell (*)	Х	Х	×	Х	X	What is this smell
32. She need	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	She needs
33. You're not man [a missing article]	×	X	х	×	×	You're not a man
34. I can't []	[] had I have been [Non.Lex+Par.Rep +Ins]	Х	х	х	×	✓
35. I have been worked	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	I have been working
36. Before just few minutes	х	Х	х	Tr: you say just "few minutes earlier" not before [Delayed Explicit Correction]	х	<b>✓</b>
37. I worried about her [verb instead of adj]	Х	Х	Х	х	Х	I am worried
38. Let's go watch on TV	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Watch TV
39. We can turn []	[] We can't turn	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓

	[Non.Lex + ful.Rep+Sub]					
40. We can turn hard world	Х	Х	Х	×	Х	We can turn the hard world
41. More than	×	Х	×	Tr: you were saying "more than", we express something after "than"! "More than what?" [delayed Explicit . Correction+ Explanation]	х	/
42. Kids are not only <u>for</u> []	[] the kids of women only  [Non.Lex + ful.Rep+Sub]	×	x	×	х	✓
43. the kids of the women	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	kids of women
44. Is big responsibility [a missing article]	х	X	х	Х	×	Is a big responsibility
45. A small story about drug	х	Х	Tr: about?  [Imd.Elicitation]  Lr: about drug [Par.Rep]	Х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same error	Х	X	Tr: ok about drugs [Post.Recast] Lr: yes [App]	Х	Partial uptake	<b>✓</b>
46. He drink [to express past tense]	Х	X	х	Х	×	He drank
47. He do [to express past tense]	Х	Х	Х	Х	X	He did
48. For	To save our children [Sub]	Х	Х	Х	Х	✓
49. Between two couples [to express one couple]		×	х	Tr: not two couples! You know what does it make?  [delayed Explicit  Correction+Explanation]  Peer: one couple	Partial uptake	<b>✓</b>
50. We have see	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	We have seen
51. The choose	х	Х		Tr: the choice [Imd.Recast]		✓
Same error (*3)	х	×	Tr: the choose!  [Post. Repetition]  Lr: oh yes, the choice  [App+Sub]	×	Successful uptake	/

52. It wills	Х	×	Tr: (Raising her eyebrows)  [Imd.body Languges]  Lr: no, it was [Sub]	Х	Successful uptake	<b>/</b>
53. We see on TV [to express past tense]	Х	X	Х	Х	X	We saw it on TV
54. The most enemy	Х	×	Х	Tr: The biggest or the most dangerous enemy [Imd. Recast]	X	<b>✓</b>
55. The mistakes [] not good	Х	Х	Х	Tr: You say sorry when you make mistakes [Imd. Explicit Correction]	×	I didn't feel good about my mistakes

**Table 02: List of Phonology Errors and Repair Works accomplished** 

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	Uptake	Target Form
		1	- The presentatio	n -	1	
1.Psychological /psikɒlɔ:ʒikl/	Х	Х	Peer <sub>1</sub> : /ˌsaɪkəˈlɒdʒɪkl/ [Imd.Recast] Lr: []/saik//saikv/ [] yes [Non.Lex+ParRep+App]	х	Partial uptake	1
2. Need /'nɪd/	X	X	×	X	Х	/'ni:d/
3. Relations /reˈli:ʃnz/	Х	Х	×	Х	Х	/rɪˈleɪʃnz/
4. Relation /reˈli:ʃn/	X	X	×	X	Х	/rɪˈleɪʃn/
5. Honesty /ˈæʊnesti/	Х	Х	×	Х	Х	/ˈɒnəsti/
6. Fidelity /fiˈdelɪtɪ/	Х	Х	×	X	Х	/fɪˈdeləti/
7. Respect /'rispict/	Х	Х	×	X	Х	/rɪˈspekt/
8. Hear /h3:r/	X	X	×	X	Х	/hɪə(r)/
9. Heard /h3:rt/	X	X	×	X	Х	/h3:(r)d/
10. According /A'kɒrdiŋ/	X	Х	х	х	х	/əˈkɔːdɪŋ/
11. Religious /ˈrelɪzʊs/	Х	Х	×	X	Х	/rəˈlɪdʒəs/
12. Concerned /kən'sırnəd/	×	Х	х	х	×	/kənˈsɜːnd/
13. Relationship/re'lɪʃnʃɪp/	Х	Х	х	х	Х	/rɪˈleiʃnʃɪp/
14. Principle /prensipl/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈprɪnsəpl/
15. Close /klu:z/	Х	Х	×	X	Х	/ˈkləʊz/
16. Wish /'wɪtʃ/	Х	Х	×	X	Х	/'wɪʃ/
17. Worst /'wɔ:rst/	Х	×	Х	Tr: what? [Imd.clarefication.Req] Peer: /'w3:st/ habits	Partial uptake	<b>✓</b>
18. Actually /ˈæktuəlɪ/	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	/ˈæktʃuəli/
19. Incomplete /ˈænkɒmpli:t/	Х	Х	х	х	Х	/ˌɪnkəmˈpliːt/
20. Feelings /ˈfɪlɪŋz/	Х	Х	×	Х	Х	/ˈfi:lɪŋz/
21. Presentation /prizən'tation/	Х	Х	х	Tr: /,prezn'teifn/ [Imd.Recast]	X	✓
22. Sympathetic/sim'pʌti:k/		Х	Х	Tr: /ˌsɪmpəˈθetɪk/ [Imd.Recast]	X	✓

-The Play-										
23. Drink (adj) /'druŋk/	X	X	×	×	Х	/ˈdrʌŋk/				
24. Interest /inte'rest/	Х	Х	Х	×	Х	/ˈɪntrəst/				
25. Something /ˈsʌmθiːŋ/	×	X	Х	Х	×	/ˈsʌmθɪŋ/				
26. Feelings /ˈfɪlɪŋz/	X	Х	×	×	Х	/ˈfiːlɪŋz/				
27. Agreement /æ'grɪmənt/	Х	Х	Х	Х	×	/əˈgriːmənt/				

Table 03: List of Lexical breakdowns and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	Uptake	Correction
	1		- The presentation -		1	
1.As you heard it [repeated 3 times in one sentence]	х	Х	х	Peer: as it is [Imd.Recast]	х	✓
2. A []	[] different kinds [Non.Lex+ Ins]	Х	х	Х	х	✓
3. Religious truth	Х	Х	Х	Peer: faith or belief [post.Recast]	Х	✓
4. She has all [] ?	Х	Х	Peer: characteristics [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes, that I like [App+Ins]	Х	Partial Uptake	<b>✓</b>
5. I want to be a presenter	х	×	Tr: in another country? Like a minister?  [Imd.Elicitation+Recast] Lr: On TV, a journalist [Sub]	×	Successful uptake	<b>✓</b>
6. Group of hotels	Х	Х	Х	Tr: Eh! a series [Post.Recast]	Х	✓
7. Eco []	х	Lr: [] Econ []  [Non.Lex+Par.Rep]  Peers: Economical	х	Х	х	<b>✓</b>
8. Why to tell the reality	[] the truth [Non.Lex+Sub]	Х	х	Х	х	✓
9. She was turning us into her topic	х	Х	Tr: involving us, yes  [Imd.Recast]  Lr: yes [App]	Х	Partial uptake	<b>✓</b>
10. The mistakes [] not good	х	Х	Х	Tr: you say "sorry" when you make mistakes [Imd.Explicit.Correction]	х	✓
			- The play -			
11. Look []	[] to [] to Eliza husb [Non.Lex+ Par.Rep + I		×	×	Х	<b>✓</b>
12. I am realy	[] I am extremely [Non.Lex + Par.Rep + S		х	х	Х	✓
13. I have being working (adapted)	I have been working a weeks [Ful.rep+Ins]		Х	х	×	<b>✓</b>

14. It seems delicious [to express the taste]	х	Х	Х	Х	Х	It tastes delicious
15. We've seen that (adapted)	[] that small mistakes.  [Non.Lex +Par.Rep +Ins]	×	х	×	х	<b>&gt;</b>
16. They work hard	Х	Х	Tr: they were?  [Imd.Elicitation]  Lr: work hard [Par.Rep]	Х	Partial uptake	In progress
Same error	Х	Х	Х	Tr: yes, hard workers [post.Recast]	Х	✓
17. Really on the scene	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Real
18. The voice was short	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Low
19. To be good for our kids	х	Х	Tr: to resist, yes [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes [App]	Х	Partial uptake	<b>✓</b>
20. The kids are not of women only (adapted)	х	Х	Tr; both [Imd.Recast] Lr:yes, both [App+Sub]	Х	Successful uptake	1
21. House women	х	Х	Tr: Housewife [Imd.Recast] Lr: housewife	Х	Successful uptake	✓
22. He had to []	Х	Lr: [] to []  [Non.Lex+Par.Rep]  Peers: choose	Х	Х	Х	1
23. I thought she	[] No one has answered them [Sub]	Х	х	×	Х	<b>✓</b>

Table 04: List of Intelligibility breakdowns and Repair Works accomplished

Repair work Errors	S.I.S.R	SI.OR	O.I.S.R	OI.OR	Uptake	Possible Target Message	
- The presentation -							
1.Religion truth () if you want to be close to god	Х	Х	peer: I didn't understand [Clarefication.Req] Lr: to look what's wrong and what's right [Sub] Peer: what's good & what's bad	Х	Successful uptake	<b>✓</b>	
2. Proverbial truth is concerning what the proverb [] it containing	Х	Х	Peer: the meaning?! [Imd.Recast] Lr: yes, the meaning of the proverb. [Sub]	Х	Successful uptake	<b>✓</b>	
3. I want to be a presenter [Lexical choice-induced]	Х	×	Tr: In another country? Like a minister?  [Imd.Elicitation]  Lr: on TV a journalist [Sub]	Х	Successful uptake	<b>✓</b>	
4. I want to have a chain of hotels [Lexical choice-induced]	×	×	Peer: what? What did he say? ()  [Clarefication.Request]  Lr: a group of hotels	×	Successful uptake	✓	
5. I thought she []	[] No one has answered them [Non.Lex+Sub]	Х	×	х	х	<b>✓</b>	
			-The play -				
6. I'm sorry I can't, I have been worked all weeks [grammatical structure-induced]	х	Х	×	х	×	?	
7. It was really on the scene	х	Х	Tr: yes, [Imd Clarification Request] Lr: really on the scene	Х	Х	In progress	
Same error	х	Х	Tr: yes, it was good [Post. Elicitation] Lr: it was like on TV [Sub]	х	Successful uptake	✓	
8. Between two couples [Lexical choice- Induced]	х	х	×	Tr: Not two couples, you know what does it make?  [Del Explicit Correction +Explanation] Peer: One couple [Sub]	Partial Uptake	✓	
9. Tr: the bottom line? [the aim of the play]	Х	Х	Tr: Bottom line?! <i>[Elicitation]</i> Lr: the happy family? <i>[Ins]</i>	Х	Successful uptake	✓	

Lr <sub>(s)</sub> :( No Response)						
10. To be good for our kids	×	Х	Tr: To resist, yes[Imd.Recast] Lr: Yes[App]	Х	Partial Uptake	✓

# **Appendix D: Jefferson's Notation Transcription**

Symbol	Name	Use		
[ text ]	Brackets	Indicates the start and end points of <i>overlapping speech</i> .		
=	Equal Sign	Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single interrupted utterance ( <i>latched Speech</i> )		
(# of seconds)	Timed Pause	A number in parentheses indicates the <i>time</i> , in seconds, of a pause in speech.		
(.)	Micro-pause	A <i>brief pause</i> , usually less than 0.2 seconds.		
. or ↓	Period or Down Arrow	Indicates <i>falling pitch</i> .		
? or ↑	Question Mark or Up Arrow	Indicates <i>rising pitch</i> .		
?	An italicized Question Mark	Indicates a <i>weaker rise</i> than that indicated by a standard question-mark		
,	Comma	Indicates a temporary <i>rise</i> or <i>fall</i> in <i>intonation</i> .		
-	Hyphen	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.		
>text<	Greater than / Less than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered in <i>a faster pace</i> than usual.		
<text></text>	Less than / Greater than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered in a <i>slower</i> pace than usual		
° text°	Degree symbol	Indicates whisper or <i>reduced volume</i> speech.		
ALL CAPS	Capitalized text	Indicates shouted or <i>increased volume</i> speech.		
<u>Text</u>	Underlined text	Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech.		
:::	Colon(s)	Indicates prolongation of a sound.		
(hhh)		Audible exhalation		
• or (.hhh)	High Dot	Audible inhalation		
( text )	Parentheses	Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript.		
((text ))	Double Parentheses with Italics in between	Annotation of non-verbal activity or a stab at sound difficult to present anywhere near phonetically.		

$\rightarrow$		To indicate that the following speech is important to the analyst
[]	Brackets with 3 dots inside	To indicate omitted speech

Jeffersonian Transcription Notation is described in G. Jefferson, "Transcription Notation," in J. Atkinson and J. Heritage (eds), *Structures of Social Interaction*, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

# Appendix E: Conversation Analysis' Transcription of Examples

# **Discussed in the Analysis**

#### **Session One**

#### • Example 01 : Min 5:20

Student: u::h as a result of that (0.2) we:: I would illegal immigration

- in Algeria we can't uh

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  So (yi'd) someone in Algeria cannot develop himsel $\underline{f}$  if he's capable or he has got(ed)

>sorry< talent or gifted and he can do that and develop himself or herself if she's in another country?

# • Example 02 (min 37:29)

Student: People >who've <u>mo</u>ney< who have u::h ((The student puts his hands up to his shoulder to express power))

# • Example 03 (min38.58)

Student: a student th' student in Europe (.) who fnished thei::r studies are they (0.2) are the:y like us? for example they u::h - we are <u>just</u> studying,

#### • Example 04 (min 13.25)

Student: THAT'S o ito, this is a start this is a start

Teacher: What's your point?

Student: We eat en' we throw, we eat en' we throw our ((Hand gesture of throwing a gum)) =

Peer: =Not all [people]

Teacher: → [(hhh)] as one of my teachers used to say we "spit everywhere" (hhh) ye::s

Student:  $\rightarrow$  Yes, then we say u::h the::: u::h the people who clean the floor they are they don't do their works! [This is wrong]=

Teacher: = [ehem that's right]

# • Example 05 (min 40:33)

Student 1: because if <u>I</u> work here i'll not [get ((Hand gusters of getting money))]

Student 2: [>n' n' no] so you're not <u>changin'</u> so yi're not a <u>good pe::rson</u> \(\bar{\text{}}\)

#### • Example 06 (min 26:33)

Students 01: ° there is lot of people who risk their lives to travel by see o::r  $^{\circ}$ 

→ - there's a <u>fu</u>nny funny person who who:: hide himself in the wheels of the plane

Teacher: Ehem, yes [I heard about him]

Student: [And he fall down]

#### • Example 07 (min 35:10)

Student: Well for me it's not u:::h

->personally I want to go there< to change people - yea:h

# • Example 08 (min 26.07)

Student: I mean go there ba' with (.) with papers – °and after° Go without come back (0.3)

Teacher: → You are with going or immigrating to a foreign countri:: u:::h without going back if you

have the official papers [that =

Student: =[I mean even if I have]

Teacher: that permit you] to stay there without problems, that's what you mean?

Student:  $\rightarrow$  ((Nodding with her head))

#### • Example 09(min 27:29)

Student: He wes di::e

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$ He was  $\uparrow$  ((Raised eyebrows))

Student: → He >died<,

#### • Example 10 (min 7:34)

Teacher: They said it's easier in Italy=

Student1: = [(Although??)]

Student2: [[(? ? ) They hate Algerians] =

Teacher: = [this morning th' my students u::h they told me] that u::h (.) Italian people are em:: more=

Student 3: = (may be) Just French and Italian people

Teacher: = Yes $\uparrow$  >may be< mo:re to:lerant they are <u>nice</u> (0.3) a::nd even if you compare those to::

Canadianas - >whet yi'< what'd you say?

Students: ((No response))

Teacher: → KHETTABI SAYS tha:t, it's easier to be: u::h an immigrant in France than in other

European countries

(0.2)

[what would yi' say?]

Student 01: → [yes] they'd have the opportunity to have the right papers

### • Example 11 (min 10.15)

Student: = took off

Student: This country is suffer from economical crisis (.) crisis (0.3)Teacher: So r' country is = Peer 1: =Which country? Tecaher: (She:'s) our country → The Economical crisis in Algeria? – ye'r supposed to be with↑ Student:  $\rightarrow$  [Yes] Peer 2: (hhh) Peer 3: [th' ] The Europian countries suffer from economical crisis↓ Student: (??)= Peer 3: = I don't think so, do you think [that] Teacher: → [So if the:y] have problems and we:: have problems (.) why not staying in your country?avoiding a::ll those problems? Peer 4: [because it's different] Student:  $\rightarrow$  [Because Algeria] is full of problems (0.2) more than other countries  $\downarrow$ • Example12 (min 26:51) Student: When the wheels take u::h >took< place Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  e::h yes $\downarrow$ , took off [the plane]= Student: = [e::h] so it <it will be crashed on u:h > - here in Constantine Teacher: a::h, really↑= Student: =yes Teacher: I heard ano: ther story about but e::h he didn't (.) he didn'die, Student: No he felt down (.) when <th' the wheels tei:> took their places he felt down Teacher: a::h the person was a'youngster? Student: When the plane u::h Peer: → °Too:k off° =

# **Session 02**

#### • Example 01 (min 11:22)

Student: I want to go to Engl/i/nd

Teacher: England↑ Why↑

Student: because (first) is u::h I am stud/e/ying

Teacher: → because you are studying English, good

Student:  $\rightarrow$  Yes

#### • Example 02 (min 10:22)

Student: A government that have u::h that has <u>twenty</u> year u::h twenty years in u::h (0.2) in (th') present

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  in <u>ru:</u>ling the:: country

Student: → ruling the country >yes<

#### • Example 03 (min )

Student: they are not all °want° aggre:ssive

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  they are aggressive?

Student: no↑ ((aised eyebrows))

Teacher: → you mean they are <u>not</u> aggressive?

Student:  $\rightarrow$  yes  $\downarrow$ 

# • Example 04 (min 19.25)

Student: I want to see Algeria like USA >like Canada like France like< not by immigra:te to t' work in other countries in order t' -

→ I will push this country to become more develope:d than my country

# • Example 05 (min 16:15)

Student: because r' country has: a lot of things but u::hh but u::h

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  <th' wa::y> it i:s governed

Student: NO \(^1\) (0.3) several of people don't:: they don't know the:: the mazing th' mazing of our

°country° ((Hand wave)

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  the beauty?

Student:  $\rightarrow$  th' <u>beau:ty</u>, (yes)

Teacher: yes↓

#### • Example 06 (min 17.21)

Student: °it's not good for girls° I think=

Teacher: = Yes↑

Student: it i:s not good for gi:rls

Teacher: → it's not good for gi:rls↑

Student: Yes

Teacher: I will ima::gine that yi'get ma::rried ((Smiling)) an' then you migrate with your hu:sband=

Peers: [((hhhhhh [hhhhh))]

Teacher: = [so yi'r not alone?]

 $\rightarrow$  will it be good for gi:rls  $\uparrow$  in this case  $\uparrow$ 

Student:  $\rightarrow$  yes  $\downarrow$ 

#### • Example 07 (min 20:08)

Student: we hate the people °of ° our country

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  who a:re $\uparrow$  wh(h)o are in our country or who are go:verning r' country $\uparrow$ 

Student:  $\rightarrow$  yes  $\downarrow$ 

#### • Example 08 (min 20:57)

Student: young u::h young::

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  generation \(^{\} [youth?] =

Student:  $\rightarrow$  = gene[ration] yes  $\downarrow$  youth generation are u::h (.) are immigrating because they cen't live

here

#### • Example 09 (min 22:50)

Student: WHEN- for example when th' people of Ain- Saleh u::h they th th' (.)

Teacher: → protested?=

Peer:  $\rightarrow$  = re<u>bel</u> REBEL,

Student: → rebel (yes) for there rights

# **Session Three**

# • Example 01

Student: this is currently /ku:rentli/ [...]

Teacher: → /'karəntli/

#### • Example 02

Student: [...] cure /kju:r/

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  /'kjvə(r)/

## • Example 03 (min 14.30)

Student: if so you tend to be /i/xtraverted honest and: >conventional </kpnvpnfənl/ while=

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  = >an' what  $\uparrow$  <

Student:  $\rightarrow$  conventional  $\downarrow$ 

Teacher: conVERtional↑

Student: ((use of hands to express the meaning)) (

Teacher: I don't think this word exsists att all (.) there's conversion >for< t' convert there's convertible convertional is a <u>bit</u> probably not ( ) but doesn't exist in the English language as a <u>whole</u>

(0.2) - you meant?

Student:  $\rightarrow$  ° ((متمسك بالعرف)) (0.3) there are conventions° adhering to conventions

Peer: = °conventional°

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  <u>CON</u>ventions? (.) conventional  $\uparrow$ 

Student: yes ↓

#### • Example 04 (min 4.55)

Student: it is firm (.) firm root in Africa traditional music

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  it <u>i:s</u> $\uparrow$ 

Student:  $\rightarrow$  it (.) it <u>has</u> firm (.) root in Africa traditional mu:sic $\downarrow$ 

# • Example 05 (min 33.58)

Student: this <u>one</u> (.) conside<u>red</u> /'kpnsidered/ ((writing on the boardconsidered and centered)) (0.8)

-How d'you pronounce these words?

```
Students: /'kənsidəred/ °/sentəred/ °
Teacher: cen consi°dered°/'kənsidəred/↑ n' [centered/sentəred/↑]
Students: [centered]
             (0.3)
Teacher: considered centered -why /'konsidered/? d' you d'yi' have enough energy to (.) to waste?
Students: ° considered [cent°] =
Teacher: \rightarrow = [\text{It's just}]/\text{kən'sidə}(r)d/ \text{ and /sentə}(r)d/ [...]
       Example 06 (min 0.44)
Student: music is an art /e/ntertainement (.) it i::s a social u::h
\rightarrow >a total social fact \downarrow <
    • Example 07 (min 15:58)
Student: <researchers found that >they are less cr/ia/tive less cr/ia/tive and:::h (.) and::h more /l/neasy
Teacher: and mo::re↑
Student: /I/neasy
    • Example 08
Student: Several genes appears to -
Teacher: \rightarrow = several genes \uparrow
Student: ((no response))
Teacher: \rightarrow several ge::nes\uparrow
Student: ((No response))
Teacher: several ge:nes appea::r
       Example 09 (min 4.07)
Student: the first beg/ei/n Rythm and Blues in the:: ((swallow)) in th' USA
Teacher: \rightarrow th' first \uparrow
Student: \rightarrow the fi:rst big/æ/n \downarrow
         Example 10:
Teacher: when you hear (
                                    ) <the <u>fi:</u>rst u::h begin playing something> the first begin playing ((caugh))
                                       ) so I don' know ↓
the first (
                  ) heard (
```

```
- you said the firs begin pla:ying
Student: (
            (0.2)
Teacher: what d' yi' think is wrong with this sentence? (.) if it is, think about it
           (0.2) - the first begin pla:ying
           (0.3)
there's this one an' an' and another kind uv ( ) be<u>come</u> kind uv music be<u>come</u>
         These'r the two points I wanted to (underline)
((Stands up and writes both sentences on the board))
          (0.7)
- the first (( writing on the board))
          (0.40)
→ what < d' you:: think is wrong with> u::m these two sentences? an' what d' yi:: think i:s <the common
denominator u::m errors of these two sentences ?>
Students: no response (0.4)
Teacher: → there is a grammatical element which is comple::tly in thi' in both sentences
-of course the tense is not used properly ↓ and there is another grammatical element which is completely missing
when yi' say the fi:rst begin playing↓
Students: \rightarrow bega:n
Teacher: the fi:rst began [(( writing on the board))]
Student 1: [° becomes °] (.) becomes=
Student 2: \rightarrow = ^{\circ} became ^{\circ}
Teacher: a::nd this one is became
-this is about the tense but this'is not thi' th' most th' most (.) this's not the error that pushed me to write these
down ↓ ( ) [...] it's easier to find it in the <firts more than in the second because of th' construction of th' second
is rather difficult to find th' error >
Students: ((no response))
                               (0.5)
Teacher: the student wrote this essa:y is intelligent ((writes down another example)) [...]
\rightarrow the same error here ( ) is the:re a missing element \uparrow
               (0.3)
Student1: [°who°]
```

Student 2: [°who [began°]] =

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  = [the fi:rst $\uparrow$ ]

Students2:  $\rightarrow$  who began

Teacher: how d' yi' call that in <gramma:tical> (.) terms?

Students: relative pronouns [°which became °]

Teacher: [...] an' kind of music which became ↓

# • Example11

Student: known /naon/

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  <u>no:</u>,

Student: /nnon/

#### • Example 12

Student: they were simply words

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  >they were< what  $\uparrow$ 

Student:  $\rightarrow$  they were <u>simple</u> words

# • Example 13 (min 12.29)

Student: some psychologists suggest that u::h people < <a href="mailto:cud">cud</a> make a:ccurate judgements about the individuals' level> of:: ixtra /'ɪkstrɪveɪʃn/

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  Of  $\uparrow$  ((Raised eyebrows))

Student: /'ɪkstrɪ'vɜːrʃn/

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  Of  $\uparrow$ 

Student: ((smilling)) °/'ıkstra'veſn/ °=

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  = >ov' / ekstrə'v3: $\int$ n/<

Student: ok of /ikstrn/?

Teacher: /'əkstrə/,

Student: /'akstra/?

Teacher: ((Nodding with his head))

Student:  $\rightarrow$  of / ekstrə'v3: $\int n/$ 

(0.2)

of u:h /'ıkstr^versn/ (.) creativity and u::h <open-mindness>

# **Session Four**

### • Example 01 (min 44:10)

Student: the most enemy of family is u::h alco(h)ol

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  the <u>biggest</u> enemy (.) is alchom or the <u>mo</u>st dangerous enemy  $\downarrow$ 

#### • Example 02 (min 41:18)

Student: more than [...]

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  more than – yi' were using more th/e/n (.) we express something after than=

Peer: =yeah

Teacher: more than what↑ more than tha::t more than - yi' know↓

# • Example 03 (min 42:23)

Student: between two couples

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  a:n' two couples? not two couples, you know what does it make \(^{\} ( )

Peer:  $\rightarrow$  ye:s $\downarrow$  (.) one couple (( two fingers' gesture))

Audience: ((Laughter))

Teacher: so this is <u>two</u> couples ((fingers gesture, ربعة)))

Four

#### • Example 04 (min 36.27)

Student 1: we have seen that 'u::h  $\rightarrow$  that sm/D:/ll mistakes destroy whole familie(s) [...]

#### • Example 05 (min 29:12)

Student 2: → LOOK to: ↓ to: Eliza's (.) to Eliza's hu:sband she is a hu:man, not like you ↓ ((laughters of the audience))

## • Example 06 (min 32:51)

Student1: grea:t (0.2) am so so:rry I can't I had (.)

→ - I have been worke/d/ at u::h I'v been worke/d/ at a:ll weeks↓

# • Example 07 (min 35:34)

Student: ((noise)) we can't turn (.) we can turn hard wor(1)d and'u:h (.) we can turn hard wor(1)d  $\downarrow$  (0.4) ((laughters of the audience))

 $\rightarrow$  we can turn hard world upside down and avoid all sorts of painful and u:h >and ( ) f/i/lings< and agr/i/ment between (.) between two couples to save our children  $\downarrow$ 

# • Example 08 (min 12:00)

Student: ° I want to be: a° ((noise)) presenter

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  in another country  $\uparrow$  (.) [(like) a <u>mi</u>nister  $\uparrow$ ]

Peers: ((laughter))

Student:  $\rightarrow$  on TV ((noise)) u::h a journalist

# • Example 09 (40:07)

Student: it wi(ll)s it [wiz ((laughter))]

Teacher:  $\rightarrow$  [((Raising her eyebrows))] =

Student:  $\rightarrow$  = no ((Finger gestures with laughter)) >it was< it was really on the: sceen $\downarrow$ 

# • Example 10 (min 39:29)

Student: the choose [of pers]ens=

Teacher:  $\rightarrow = [\text{th' } \underline{\text{choice}} \uparrow]$ 

Student: ((confused))

Teacher: ° th' chhoose°

Student:  $\rightarrow$  a::h yes, the choice of ( ) also'u::h was'u:h (.) good  $\downarrow$ 

# ملخص

تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية ليس بمنأى عن ارتكاب الأخطاء اللغوية و من ثمة فدراستها و تمحيصها ضرورة في مجال البحث الأكاديمي. إن تحفيز التعاون بين الأستاذ و الطالب خلال عملية تقويم الأخطاء الشفوية لأجل تحسين مستوى الأداء اللغوي للطلاب هو نواة هذه الدراسة لذا انطلاقا من الأسئلة الأساسية المتمثلة في: من يصحح أي صنف من الأخطاء , متى و كيف يتم ذا التقويم و الى اي مدى يخلق استيعابا لدى الطالب تم بناء استمارتي استبيان لاستطلاع مواقف 150 طالبا بكلية اللغات, قسم الانجليزية, و16 أستاذا بنفس القسم حول عملية تقويم و تصحيح الأخطاء الشفوية للطلاب. اعتمادا على أهداف البحث بالإضافة إلى فرضية أن تفعيل تقويم تعاوني بين الطالب و الأستاذ - أخذا بعين الاعتبار لما يفضل كلاهما - قد يحسن بشكل ملحوظ الأداء الشفوي, تم تمحيص السلوك التقويمي للأخطاء الشفوية خلال16 ساعة من الملاحظة الطبيعية لحصص التعبير الشفوي التي تراوحت بين تقديم البحوث و المناقشات الحرة دون تدخل الباحث. آلت نتائج البحث إلى اللاتجانس, مع اعتبارها غير متضاربة بالكامل, و قد تم تسجيل اللاتجانس على مستويين; أولهما تابع للاختلافات بين أراء الأساتذه و تلك المعلن عنها من طرف الطلبة حول تقويم الأخطاء الشفوية, و ثانيهما متعلق بما لوحظ فعليا من اختلاف تلك الأراء عن السلوك التقويمي الفعلي خلال الحصص و التي أسفرت عن معدلات متوسطة لاستيعاب الطلبة لتصحيح الأستاذ. هاته السلوك التقويمي الفعلي خلال الحصص و التي أسفرت عن معدلات متوسطة لاستيعاب الطلبة لتصحيح الأستاذ. هاته النشاذة الفرضية المعبر عنها سابقا متبحة المجال لمواصلة البحث في ذات المجال .

الكلمات المفتاحية: الاخطاء الشفوية- التصحيح الذاتي- تصحيح الاستاذ- الاستيعاب

# Rèsumé

Les erreurs orales sont très courantes dans le processus d'apprentissage des langues étrangères. La volonté de susciter la collaboration des enseignants et des etudiants dans le traitement d'erreurs et dans l'amélioration de la production orale, est possible. Le but de cette étude est de réussir l'acceptation de la correction. Sur la base des questions principales : « qui ? Quand ? Quoi ? et comment corriger ? », deux questionnaires comportementaux ont été livrés à 150 étudiants de deuxième année LMD et à 16 enseignants dans le département d'anglais, à propos de leurs perceptions sur la correction d'erreurs. A partir de notre observation, qui s'est étalée sur 16 heures de cours oraux, et qui s'est focalisée sur le comportement correctif chez les enseignants et les étudiants, on a constaté que l'attitude change pendant l'interaction et la présentation. Les résultats de la controverse, mais pas du conflit, se situent à deux niveaux d'analyse : 1-les attitudes des étudiants vis-à-vis des échecs oraux, à l'inverse des attitudes des enseignants qui se traduit pendant la réparation ou la correction. 2- les attitudes face aux questionnaires, à l'inverse du comportement face à la correction observée chez tous les participants. Cela a abouti à une acceptation de la correction, chez un nombre moyen d'étudiants. Les résultats obtenus constituent un appui solide pour notre hypothèse, qui stipule que l'amélioration de la langue parlée chez les étudiants, doit être menée par une coopération consciente entre les enseignants et les étudiants, tout en respectant les propositions des uns et des autres, en ce qui concerne la correction d'erreurs.

**Mots Clés :** Les erreurs orales/ Auto-Correction/ La correction d'enseignant/ Absorption de Correction