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Corrective Feedback in Students' Speaking

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Zásady pro vypracování

Cílem bakalářské práce je zjistit, jaké techniky korektivní zpětné vazby lze využít v mluveném projevu studentů anglického jazyka a proč. V teoretické části studentka bude definovat cíl, funkce a typy zpětné vazby a zasadí téma do kontextu neformálního vzdělávání dospělých, bude se věnovat problematice chyby v mluveném projevu studentů z pohledu socio-konstruktivistické teorie učení, tj. chyba jako nástroj učení a její pojetí jako východisko pro korektivní zpětnou vazbu při rozvoji řečové dovednosti mluvení. V praktické části práce pak bude pomocí vhodných výzkumných metod a technik zjišťovat, jakých chyb se studenti v mluveném projevu dopouštějí a jaké techniky korektivní zpětné vazby jsou ve výuce mluvení používány.

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Prohlašuji:

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Abstract:

The thesis focuses on the issue of corrective feedback in speaking. The theoretical part aims to find out what types and techniques of corrective feedback are used in speaking. This part also deals with speaking as one of the skills in learning a foreign language and mistakes that appear there. The topics are based on the attitude of authors of listed sources and are put into a non-formal educational background. The practical part aims to find out what forms of corrective feedback are provided to different types of speaking mistakes made by adult students in a language school. The research will be based on observation of recorded online lessons.

Key words:

Corrective feedback, techniques of corrective feedback, speaking as a skill, types of mistakes in speaking, role of mistakes, social-constructivist theory of learning

Bakalářská práce se zabývá otázkou korektivní zpětné vazby v mluveném projevu. Cílem teoretické části je zjistit, jaké typy a techniky zpětné vazby jsou v mluveném projevu užívány. Tato část je rovněž věnována mluvení, jako jedné z dovedností v učení se cizímu jazyku a chybám, které se v mluvení vyskytují. Témata se opírají o přístupy odborníků (autorů uvedených zdrojů) a jsou zasazena do prostředí neformálního vzdělávání. Cílem praktické části je zjistit jaké formy zpětné vazby jsou poskytovány při kterých chybách v mluvení dospělých studentů v jazykové škole. Výzkum bude založen na observaci nahraných online lekcí.

Klíčová slova:

Korektivní zpětná vazba, techniky korektivní zpětné vazby, mluvení jako dovednost, druhy chyb v mluvení, role chyb, socio-konstruktivistická teorie učení.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS:

CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference for languages

CF – Corrective Feedback

L2 – Second Language

INTRODUCTION

This thesis deals with the issue of corrective feedback in speaking in non-formal education.

The theoretical part aims to find out what forms and techniques of corrective feedback are used in speaking. This part also deals with speaking as one of the skills in learning a foreign language and to the mistakes that appear there. Firstly, the speaking will be characterized as one of the skills in learning a foreign language and as an area where the main topic will be observed. Some of the teaching approaches and speaking activities are defined here as well. The following part describes non-formal education and adults as students and participants of the research. The second part of the theoretical part is devoted to mistakes, which appear in speaking, their classification, and sources based on the social-constructivist theory of learning. The thesis then naturally focuses on the main topic, the corrective feedback, which will be specified as one of the possible types of feedback and as the reaction of the teacher to the students´ mistakes. The theoretical part will conclude by defining the function, target, types, and techniques of the corrective feedback.

The practical part aims to find out what forms of corrective feedback are used for different types of mistakes made by adult students in a language school. The research is based on observation of recorded online lessons where the individual mistakes and corrective feedback are written down into the table sheets. The sample of this table sheet is attached at the end of the practical part. After stating the research questions and describing the context of the research, we also introduce the process of observation including data collection and their analysis and discussion. The research can indicate whether the teacher promotes efficient corrective feedback.

The reason for the choice of this topic was the opinion that some teachers find providing corrective feedback the most demanding part of their work. The research can help the teacher (the author of this thesis) to improve the way of providing corrective feedback in the future.

For purposes of this paper, we use the word 'student/s' to identify both learner/s and student/s, unless we use the ideas of a particular author, who sometimes distinguishes between these two groups.

We also use the word 'mistake' to identify both mistake/s and error/s, unless we follow the ideas of a particular author, who sometimes distinguishes between these two types.

THEORETICAL PART

1. Speaking

This chapter defines the area, in which the bachelor paper´s issue takes place. Since speaking is such a wide topic, it is seen as a skill. In this chapter moreover, we will mention some approaches to teaching speaking and state some activities in which speaking can also be found.

Speaking may seem to be a slightly undervalued skill, which is taken for granted, mainly because everybody can speak. Learners of both, second and foreign languages, need to be able to speak with confidence because this is the skill they need to make friends, get a better job or social ranking.

For Bygate (1987, 5), for example, speaking is a skill, which deserves attention and expresses its complexity. He uses an analogy between the driver and a car to show how much the driver has to know and do to become a good driver. For good speakers he defines motor-perceptive skills and interaction skills. Motor-perceptive skills involve perceiving, recalling, and articulating sounds and structures in the correct order. It is the context-free skill, which he compares to learning how to drive without going out on the road. To him, interaction skills mean using knowledge and motor-perceptive skills to achieve communication. Interaction skills cover what to say and how to say it and whether to develop it according to desired relations with others. (Bygate 1987, 5)

The Common European Framework of Reference (2003, 58-63), next CEFR only, rather discriminates between oral production and spoken interaction. Oral production activities include for example reading a written text aloud, speaking from notes, speaking spontaneously, and singing. Production strategies help learners to mobilize resources and balance between different competencies to manage the required utterances. Reception and production strategies are employed during spoken interaction. (CEFR 2003, 58-63)

Goh and Burns (2012, 35) describe speaking as a complex of processes and skills, in real time, which can not be planned in advance and highlight its cognitive, social and affective demands on the speaker (2012, 35).

Trying to imply the process of speaking, it is also necessary to mention the similarity between speaking and writing, because they are both part of productive skills, both take part in the coding of the speaker´s statement and both are an essential part of each

interaction. They are similar in lexis, grammar, and structure. Some kinds of spoken discourse can deal with similar topics, but the audience and social purposes may differ. We can also notice some differences between speaking and writing - the key differences are the way they are acquired (speaking is intuitive, writing is deliberate), differences in terms of the time aspect (speaking is time restrictive, but writing unrestrictive), in communication with the recipient (we speak in real time, but we can write in different time). (Brown and Yule 1983, 1–3)

The definition of speaking varies with different authors, and it does not seem easy to provide a precise one. Nevertheless, we can conclude that speaking is an exciting process, which involves oral production and spoken interaction.

1.1. Speaking as a Skill

As stated in the previous chapter, one of the possible ways of defining speaking is through its description as a skill. To communicate effectively in a foreign language, students usually focus on multiple things, because speaking is a combinatorial skill, which requires a simultaneous use of several discourse skills and strategies. (Goh and Burns 2012, 52)

It is also necessary to be aware of 3 different functions of speaking. The first function is transactional because we convey information. This type of speaking deals with a practical purpose of the dialogue. For example, when we ask for directions, order a meal at a restaurant, or book hotel accommodations. However, the main function of speaking is interactional since we also communicate necessary information and establish and maintain social relations. When people meet, they greet each other, share experiences or only talk on a friendly level. It is the language we use every day. The last function of speaking is speaking on your own, a kind of public appearance. It is a form of monologue, which is the main difference between the 2 previous types. We can find it in public speaking – in presentations, several statements, or speeches. (Brown and Yule 1983, 23; Goh and Burns 2012, 113)

To be able to communicate with others, students need to achieve some communicative competence. CEFR (2003, 109-118) states linguistic competences, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competences. Linguistic competences are made up of the lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competence. It

is defined as the knowledge and ability to use the formal resources, which should formulate a meaningful message. Sociolinguistic competence is 'concerned with the knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use' for example, the use and choice of greetings, conventions for taking turns, use and choice of expletives. The pragmatic competences are associated with student´s knowledge of how the messages are organized, structured, used to meet communicative functions and how they are sequenced. (CEFR 2003, 109-118)

Nevertheless, Goh and Burns propose an apt model of second language competence, which is made up of the following 3 aspects. (see figure 1) The first aspect, knowledge of language and discourse, covers sufficient knowledge of language (grammatical, phonological, lexical and discourse). This aspect creates a base for core speaking skills and development of communication strategies.
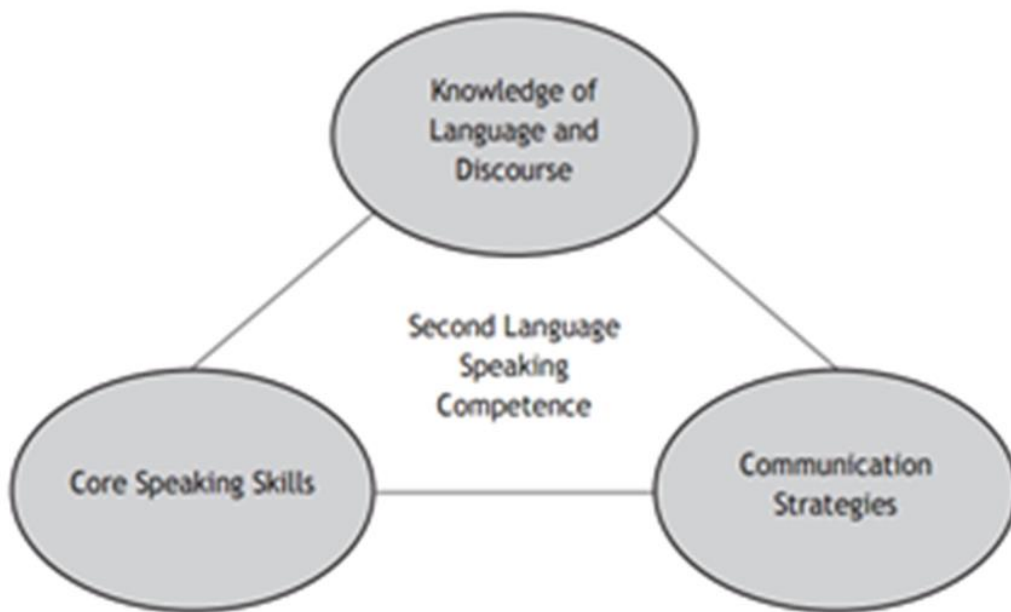
Figure 1: Aspects of Second Language Competence

(Goh and Burns 2012, 53, Figure 3.1)

The second aspect, core speaking skills, enables student to use the knowledge of language in various communicative contexts. Core speaking skills include four skills: speech-function skills, interaction-management skills, discourse-organization skills, and pronunciation, which are related to fluency in speaking. Speech-function is used for expressing thanks, disagreement, declining, complaining, encouraging, or praising.

Interaction-management skills are used for changing the topic, clarifying a meaning, asking, and answering or uncovering body language. In discourse-organisation skills learners develop skills for structuring talk and responding appropriately as listeners. Learners use several devices, which can help them establish coherence and cohesion of the text. The last core speaking skill, pronunciation, includes the production of segmental and supra-segmental features of the target language with emphasis on appropriate stress and intonation. When the students attain the first two steps of speaking competence, there are still communication strategies, which are used for two purposes – to reduce the communication and to reach the purpose of communication by the usage of any strategies they have access to. (Goh and Burns 2012, 62)

Bygate (1987, 3) also emphasises the importance of learning some strategies to be able to cope with difficulties because there are some 'processing conditions', which affect the speaker. One of these conditions is time pressure. Speakers use devices to facilitate production and often have to compensate for the difficulties. He can simplify the speech by:

- Improvising (using less complex syntax)
- Taking shortcuts (to avoid producing unnecessary individual utterances – using ellipsis)
- Using devices to gain time to speak
- Using fixed conventional phrases

(Bygate 1987, 3)

CEFR (2003, 58-63) however states communication strategies as an application above all of the metacognitive principles (pre-planning, executions, monitoring and repair) to different activities (reception, interaction, production and mediation) and uses production and interaction strategies. Production strategies help learners to mobilize resources and balance between different competencies to manage the required utterances. The interaction strategies on the other hand include both receptive and productive activities, which work based on co-operative principles and conversational discourse. They involve taking turns and giving turns, framing the issue, proposing, evaluating and others.

Interaction strategies are divided into 4 phases: Planning, Execution, Evaluation and Repair. The planning phase covers the conscious preparation, calculating the effect of discourse structures, or formulations and looking things up. This can help the student to become more ambitious in expressing his thoughts. In the execution phase, the student

reduces or enlarges his speech to ensure success in a more limited area or attain his goals with the resources available. The evaluation phase monitors success, or effect and asks for clarification, or give clarifies repair. (CEFR 2003, 58-63)

To be able to speak and communicate with others, speakers need to achieve some speaking and communicative competence. Even though each author suggests a slightly different model of these competences, it is generally agreed that students should acquire some knowledge of the language and discourse and be able to use it in the given social context when they want to speak and communicate. When some problems appear in speaking or communication, speakers have several possibilities/strategies to cope with them. These can make their communication easier, and they can reach the goal of their communication faster.

As soon as we have identified speaking, it is also necessary to mention how to approach teaching. This is what the following chapter focuses on.

1.2. Approaches to Teaching Speaking

Teachers use various activities in lessons to focus on different aspects of the language. One of these aspects is fluency and accuracy. If they want students to produce accurate speech, they emphasize grammar correctness and focus on form. However, if they prefer fluent speech, they emphasize coherence and cohesion, while focusing on the meaning.

When accuracy and fluency are automatized and learners can demonstrate it by complex and precise language, which may take a long time, this ability is called language complexity. Unfortunately, particularly lower-level students, are mostly not able to produce speech that is both fluent and accurate. When students communicate face-to-face, they concentrate on the meaning rather than on grammatical accuracy. For example, when speaking under time pressure, learners have problems simultaneously processing the meaning and linguistic knowledge. Therefore, it is not easy for them to use grammar they know well because their priority is to express the meaning. (Goh and Burns 2012, 42-43). Approaches to teaching speaking can also be divided into direct and indirect. When the direct approach focuses on developing isolated skills, the indirect approach focuses on the production of the speech during communicative activities. We can also describe it as the way the direct approach is concerned with the structural accuracy and practice of language forms. The indirect approach works with fluency, and functional language use,

focuses on the meaning rather than on the form, allowing students to talk in the class. (see Table 1). Approaches have got limitations because separately they do not support all the processes of second language speaking development. Therefore, it is recommended to combine both approaches. (Goh and Burns 2012, 134-135)

	Direct (controlled)	Indirect (transfer)
Aim	Develop enabling skills.	Develop interaction strategies.
Focus	Accuracy. Language analysis.	Fluency. Language for communication.
Characteristics	Controlled language use. Skill getting. Pedagogic. Pre-communicative. Part-task practice.	"Authentic" / functional language use. Skill using. Real life. Communicative. Whole-task practice.
Activities	Drills. Pattern practice. Structure manipulation. Language awareness. Consciousness raising.	Discussions. Information gaps. Project work. Role plays. Simulations. Talking circles.
Interaction	Teacher led.	Learner centered.

Table 1: Approaches and Activities for Teaching Speaking

(Goh and Burns 2012, 134, Table 6.1)

As stated above, both approaches have limitations, and it is recommended to combine both. Therefore, Goh and Burns (2012,152-153) suggest encouraging students among others to use core speaking competence, develop fluency in expressions of meaning, be flexible in using grammar for producing of utterances, which express the meaning, use appropriate vocabulary and accurate language forms, understand and use linguistic conventions for various contexts. They show a teaching cycle, which can guide the planning and sequencing of learning activities to develop the students´ speaking competence. (Goh and Burns 2012,152-153)
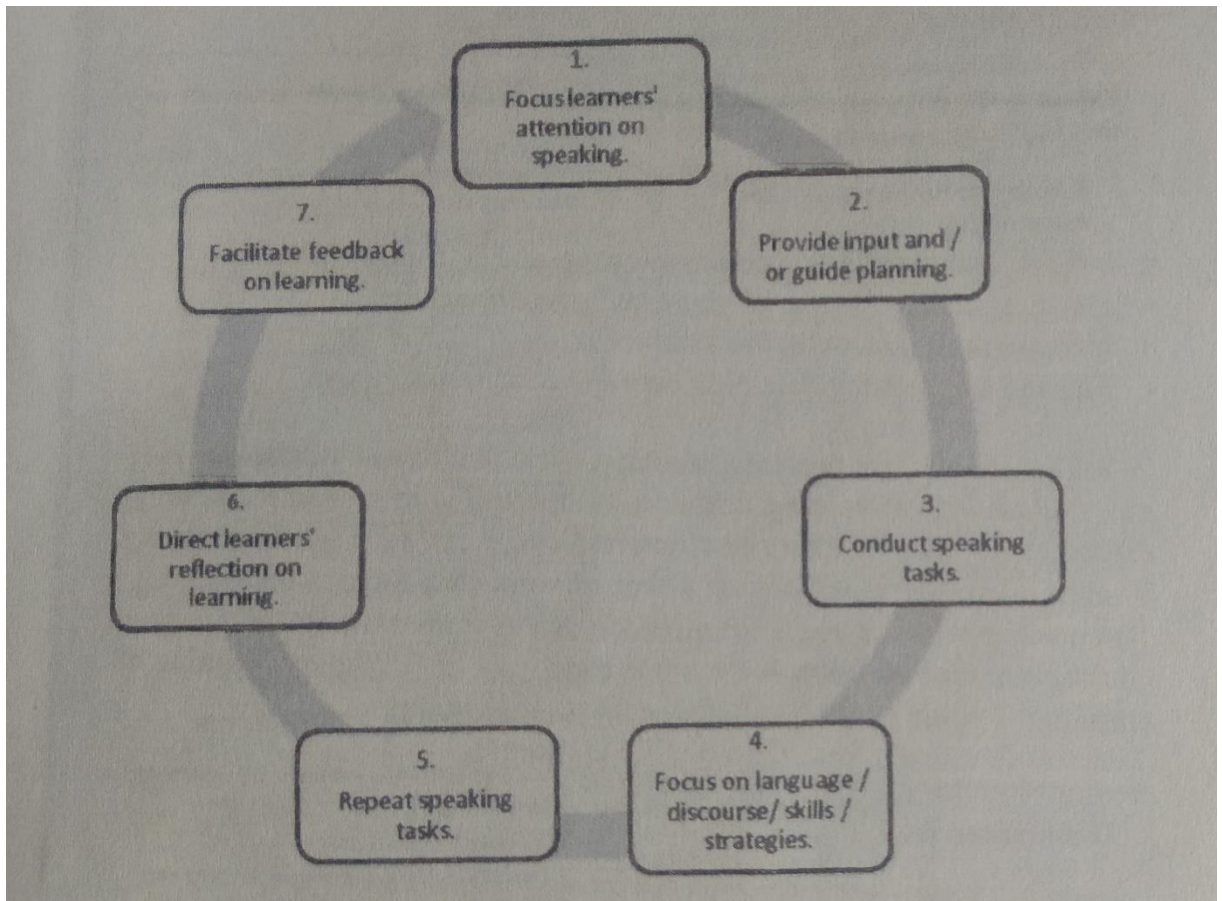
Figure 2: The Teaching Speaking Cycle

(Goh and Burns 2012, 153, Figure 7.1)

The teacher provides input and feedback and should facilitate practise and learning. Students can benefit from working together and receive many opportunities to speak. If we follow the model (see Figure 2) we can see that some stages can support more than one objective. The teacher can select different learning activities, thereby emphasizing the objective. Goh and Burns (2012, 153-154) claim that it is not realistic to focus on all objectives in one cycle, but just on one of them. They also state how the single objectives can develop speaking. For example, stage 4, which focuses on the students´ attention on features of the speaking task, supports learning some of core speaking skills, employs appropriate oral-communication strategies and acquires appropriate vocabulary (Goh and Burns 2012, 153-154).

Barnes (1987, 93-94) however uses a slightly simpler model and distinguishes between 'exploratory' learning and 'final draft' approach. While the 'exploratory' learning approach expects students to experiment with language and seems to be interesting and

useful for them, the 'final draft' learning approach seems to be rather demanding. It focuses on error avoidance and perfect performance from the beginning. It supposes that learners will for example understand things quickly before they are used, or that learners need to anticipate difficulties before they meet them. 'Explanatory' learning does not expect any of these preconditions and assumes that things can sometimes go wrong. In addition, the 'exploratory' learning approach assumes that personal interpretation can help with understanding and improving memory. The 'final draft' approach becomes important when the learner is able to use the skills and knowledge of the discipline. (Barnes in Bygate 1987, 93-94)

In agreement with what has been said, when teaching speaking it is better to combine both approaches (accuracy+fluency, direct approach+indirect approach) and not to teach them separately. Students should be given more opportunities to speak and interact. Consequently, it is certainly necessary to be precise with the speaking activities´ order and organisation.

1.3. Speaking Activities

After identifying the speaking skill and stating some of the approaches to teaching, we also need to know where we can find speaking in the lesson, precisely what activities focus on speaking. It is essential to mention that there are several criteria related to how to divide them.

When learners should communicate, we rather work with fluency. Harmer (2001, 85) states that learners should be encouraged to communicate, and teachers should not insist on complete precision. He presents his communication continuum, where we can find non-communicative activities on one end and communicative activities on the other (see the Figure 3). He says that learners should desire to communicate something, should have a purpose to communicate (for example to buy something, to make a point) and should use a variety of language rathen than just one language structure when doing these activities. He mentions the information gap as a key to enhancing the communicative purpose and desire to communicate. (Harmer 2001, 85) Gap activities incite students to interact. Learners share information, which others may not know, but need more information to complete the task. Students must cooperate and share information. These

activities are fluency-oriented in which students convey the meaning. (Goh and Burns 2012, 203)
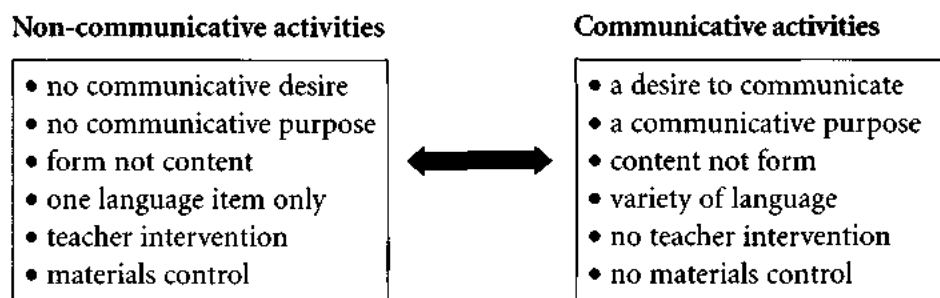

Non-communicative activities

- no communicative desire
- no communicative purpose
- form not content
- one language item only
- teacher intervention
- materials control

Communicative activities

- a desire to communicate
- a communicative purpose
- content not form
- variety of language
- no teacher intervention
- no materials control

Figure 3: The Communication Continuum

(Harmer 2001, 85, Figure 14)

The teacher can present these activities differently, for example, in forms of short texts, pictures or text with illustrations. Students mostly describe pictures or find differences among them or in their information. The speaking activities that use pictures and descriptions are not only linguistic tasks, but also cognitive. Moreover, students can use the pictures for another purpose (for example, making up stories), thereby create new context (Goh and Burns 2012, 204). William Littlewood (1981, 85–86) suggests using pre-communicative skills to equip learners with some skills that they need for better performance in communication. (see Figure 4) These activities prepare students for the second type of the task, in which they must communicate.
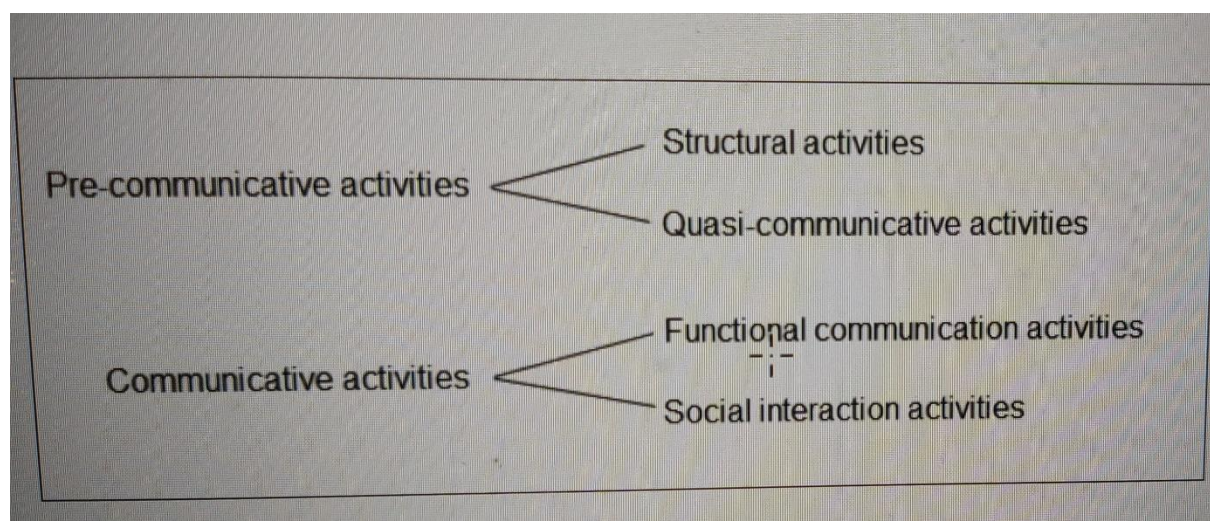

Pre-communicative activities
- Structural activities
- Quasi-communicative activities

Communicative activities
- Functional communication activities
- Social interaction activities

Figure 4: Speaking Activities

(Littlewood 1981, 86)

In communicative activities, the learners are supposed to use their pre-communicative knowledge and skills to get the meaning across. They have to cope with the communicative demands of the immediate situation. In functional communication activities, learners have to solve a problem or get information from somewhere or someone else. In social interaction, on the other hand, they are encouraged to develop greater social acceptability. For example, role-plays and simulation are popular because they reflect real-life, but can be difficult for some learners. (Littlewood 1981, 85–86) Also Goh and Burns (2012, 202–208) claim that to get greater fluency in speech, learners should practice their speaking. They introduce task-based activities, that put different demands on learners' skills and linguistic knowledge. They state the communication-gap and discussion tasks. These tasks cover a combination of transactional and interpersonal interaction and practice different speaking skills based on their knowledge of language and discourse and use strategies to support their communication. Gap activities are very effective because they provide an impulse to interaction. The key feature is that students share information which other students may not know. The student only has a part of information and if he wants to complete the task, he needs to get more information, start interacting and sharing information by speaking. These activities can be found in text or picture description, their comparison, procedures, tasks and answers. In discussion tasks, students share their personal ideas on their background knowledge and experience. They need to negotiate with each other. Within these activities students can for example discuss and judge, propose, solve different tasks, make plans. (2012, 202–208)

As was stated above, these activities can be difficult for some students, so Harmer (2001, 272–273) comes up with an idea to create a 'buzz group', which can help students to pre-discuss the task somehow beforehand. He also claims that to encourage discussion the teacher should provide such activities that force students to reach a decision or a consensus in choosing some of the specific alternatives (Harmer 2001, 272–273). It is also necessary to mention monologic tasks, which are useful when students need to produce some pieces of discourse for an audience in both formal and informal situations. We can state for example, telling stories, personal reflections or reactions, explanations and giving talks (Goh and Burns 2012, 213).

We can notice a difference among activities' classification of individual authors and their approaches. For example, in Littlewood´s activities, students are prepared for their communication (by grammar and discourse given by a teacher), while in Burns and Goh´s

students use their present knowledge and explore naturalistic data from the discourse. Another difference is in their function. While information gaps are mainly designated for transaction and some of them lack real communicative purpose, discussion on the other hand supports interaction and works established on real communicative principles. Monologic tasks are undertaken by students individually and give them a chance to speak extensively without interruptions.

To sum up, there are several speaking activities which can develop speaking skills, but they are effective from a different perspective. However, if any activity is to be effective, it must be built on an authentic context and it has to be presented well. Speaking skills are used in activities which focus on means of language (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, orthography) and are the cornerstone of communication competence which enables students to communicate on their own, or in interactions with others.

2. Non-Formal Education

This chapter describes the environment and participants involved in the practical part and creates the basis of this paper. Children and pupils are not the only ones, who are supposed to study. Following several changes in society, adults are the studious ones, who have greater English knowledge demands placed on them. This is due to the working conditions, social surroundings, relationships and travel opportunities.

One way to practice language skills in the adulthood is in the background of non-formal education. It is realized through courses at language schools, in companies, or at the place of a lecturer. There can also be educational activities, that take place inside of official educational institutions, but these are outside of the school system (Šerák 2009, 16). Non-formal education focuses on skills, knowledge, experience, and competences, which can improve the students´ social status or working opportunities, but in this education, the learner does not obtain any comprehensive degree of education (Veteška and Vacínová 2011, 51). Adult education is therefore based on developing any type of education that adults already have. They can improve their already attained skills and knowledge or acquire new ones.

2.1. Characteristics of Adult Students

Adult students have different qualities, skills and experience and they are also motivated differently. These facts should be the object of the teacher´s interest if he wants to get to know his students better.

Adult students are autonomous, self-directed and want to be sure that they can participate somehow, for example, as facilitators. They are goal-oriented and usually know what goal they want to achieve. Therefore, they appreciate educational programs with clearly defined elements. They must see the reason for learning something because they are relevancy-oriented, so the learning should be applicable to their work or other responsibilities. The adults should be treated as equals (in experience and knowledge) and be allowed to express their opinion freely (Lieb 1991, 1-2). As was indicated above there are several barriers which prevent adult students from participating in learning. They can lack of money, time, confidence, interest, or information about opportunities on how and where to learn. They also face problems with childcare, or transportation.

Concurrently, adult students are strongly motivated. This is attributed to higher life needs, their social situation, work or private life. Even though they usually learn for their personal growth, there are some motivators which support or make students learn.

Lieb (1991, 1-3), for example, develops the following factors, which serve as sources of motivation:

- social relationship (to make new friends, to meet a need for associations)
- external expectations (to fulfil expectations/recommendation of someone with formal authority)
- social welfare (to improve the ability to serve mankind or prepare to serve a community)
- personal advancement (to achieve a higher status at work, to secure professional advancement)
- escape (to break up routine or fight against boredom)
- cognitive interest (to learn for the sake of learning or seeking knowledge).

(Lieb 1991, 1-3)

Šerák (2009, 62) introduces a motivational triangle (see figure 5) for effective learning, which supposes fulfilment of the following conditions:

- the adult must have the possibility to learn in both social aspects (family and working situation, time sufficiency...) and physical aspects (state of health, intelligence, mental performance..)
- the adult should desire to learn (importance of strong internal motivation)
- the adult should be able to learn (he suggests that the quality and effectiveness of learning is influenced by a routine progress of learning).
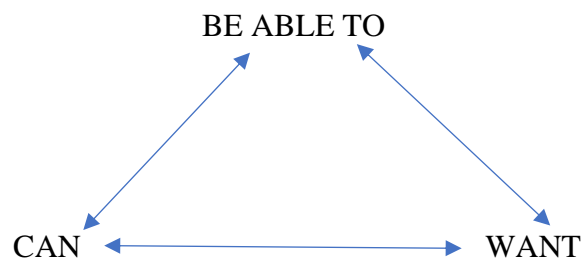

Figure 5: Motivational Triangle

(Šerák 2009, 62, 4)

Although the adults may seem to be somewhat problematic students, they have several qualities and characteristics, which can be useful for the teacher to work with. If the teacher is able to use it adequately, cooperation could be satisfactory for both sides.

2.2. Adults' Education

The preceding section indicates that adult students somehow differ from children. They also face some problems related to their social situation or age. Therefore, it is necessary to bear these facts in mind and choose a different approach. It is obvious that second language acquisition of adult students differs from that of children.

It is essential for the teacher to find out the student´s motivation for learning, to find out what prevents him from learning and to try and create good learning conditions. As mentioned earlier, students should be well motivated for learning, or changing their behaviour. They have to be aware of inadequacies in their behaviour, they have to have a clear picture of the required behaviour, the opportunity to practice such behaviour, they must acquire reinforcement of the correct behaviour and have appropriate materials. (Miller in Brookfield 1986, 26)

Miller (1986, 26) probably suggests how to treat adults during a lesson, when they make mistakes and emphasizes the importance of support (teacher). Unlike the Miller´s concept of adult learning, Kidd´s (1986, 26) concept is based of egalitarian nature of the student-teacher relationship, the different functions of adults (compared to children), the self-directing of adults, the cultural, emotional, and physical meaning of time and attitude of the surrounding (Kidd in Brookfield 1986, 27). Compared to Miller, Kidd (1986, 27) bases his view more on adult himself, his functions and state. Finally, Knox (1986, 28) concludes this topic with the opinion that all the students can learn anything, if they have time, persistence and assistance (Knox in Brookfield 1986, 28). However, age also plays an important role in adults´ learning. For example, 40-45 years old students need by 10-20 % more time than the younger generation. Teachers should also remember that it is necessary to give these learners more time to express, or to correct themselves. (Šerák 2009, 62–63) Not only in Smith´s (1986, 29) exploration do we find out that adults use experience as a source in learning. So, teachers should support such processes and contents with respect to the past experience (Smith in Brookfield 1986, 29).

Based on what has been said, it all eventually depends on teachers (or lectors). They should know their learners better, reflect their needs and involve them in the teaching process. Veteška and Vacínová (2011, 95–96) mention traditional didactic principles, which can make students more motivated to learn, keep them satisfied and skilled. These principles are:

- Scientific principle (the content responds to the scientific cognition)
- Orientation to the practice principle (to clarify how to apply the language in students´ practice)
- Motivation and participation principle (using the learners´ experience and knowledge emphasizing activity, self-reliance and students´ inventiveness, which can be an important motivator in lessons)
- Individual approach principle (respecting differences among students)
- Feedback and transfer principle (to get information about the student´s progress and the teacher´s job)
- Principle of educational process division (division for parts, change of methods, breaks)
- Illustration principle (more senses participation to improve memory)

- Free time orientation principle (it supports and develops student's activities to communication, it gives place to work independently). (Veteška and Vacínová 2011, 95–96)

To sum up, all the opinions and explorations show that adult students differ in motivations, learning needs and purposes for learning. They like their learning to be organized and prefer a problem centred style, which is comprehensible and fits their life situation. The teacher should take into consideration that adults can draw and connect with their experience, which is sometimes harmful but sometimes be can also be helpful. If the teacher knows his students well, is able to motivate them, ensures appropriate support, and if he uses at least some of the didactic principles mentioned above, he creates a good environment for their education.

3. Mistakes in Speaking

Once we have clarified the skill of speaking, described an adult as a student and identified the teaching method, we need to specify what mistakes we can face in the students' utterances and how to treat them. There are many different views and opinions on mistakes, but this paper mainly covers the social constructivist learning theory view.

3.1. Definition of a Mistake in Second Language Acquisition from the Social-Constructivist Theory Viewpoint

Above all, the social-constructivist theory defines a mistake as very useful information in the second language learning and contemporary second language acquisition. The theory understands the student as an active person, who participates in building his knowledge through the cognitive processes. He needs to somehow adapt the content to his needs. The theory also suggests that the best way to support the cognitive process is through the imitation of models and in interaction with others. (Kolaříková 2018, 503–507)

In other words, the mistakes should not be taken as an aim for correction, but as a highly valued tool. This positive approach might be based on the analogy that children also make plenty of mistakes while acquiring their first language and their parents expect and accept them as natural development. Thus, the teachers should also accept these mistakes as natural because learners will feel more confident (Hendrickson 1978, 388). Corder (1981, 8–9) even considers mistakes a necessity for students themselves because in making mistakes we recognize the students´ perception and learning (Corder 1981, 8–9). It is good

when students recognize that making mistakes is human and that a man can learn from his mistakes. The mistake is also found to be a natural part of the teaching process and can have a function of the feedback for both the teacher and the students (Hendrich 1988, 365-66).

A few authors agree that mistakes play an important role in the student´s progress or development, because they identify an area that the student hasn´t master yet and can indicate why the mistakes arose. Mistakes serve as feedback for the teacher. They highlight some failures in instructions, practise, quality of textbooks or lesson arrangement. They can also be useful for the student because they can indicate him his learning style, intensity, and fields that he still needs to master. (Korčáková 2004, 60) Schmidt (2004, 63) confirms some mistakes are positive. For example, they can express the act of courage and creativity in using the language. He adds that mistakes can move or improve the educational process forward (Schmidt in Korčáková 2004, 63).

There are some authors, who even encourage mistakes and advise teachers to let learners be exposed to much of the language, to form ideas on how the languages work and try it in practise. They highlight that it is necessary to allow learners to make guesses, experiment and be creative in the language to have opportunity to make mistakes. They suggest transmitting the idea that the mistakes are natural and essential to the students. They should know that: 'The person who never made a mistake, never made anything.' (Bertram and Walton 1991, 12-18) Many authors are convinced that the mistakes have to be avoided and that students should not make mistakes at all. However, this paper does not state these approaches and authors.

Since the mistakes are considered to be a necessary or even desirable part of the educational and learning process, the students should be exposed to much of language, be creative in lessons to learn how the language works. Nevertheless, students should be informed about these mistakes to be able to learn from them. Not only may mistakes help students to better understand the target curriculum but they also may help the teacher to identify some possible failure in teaching.

3.2. Mistakes Classification in Speaking

Although we have stated the positive impact of the mistakes, it is convenient to discuss mistake classification and see it from more angles and aspects. Only then will we be able to work with it in correction and feedback. Interestingly, each author has a slightly different perspective.

While Harmer identifies slips as mistakes which can be corrected by the learner and errors as mistakes, which the learner cannot correct himself (2001, 99), CEFR (2003, 155) suggests the following definition:

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

L2 refers to the second language here and the abbreviation will be used henceforth.

James (1998, 83-84) even broadened Harmer´s and CEFR classification by saying that slips are lapses of the tongue, which can be easily detected and corrected by their author. Mistakes can only be corrected by their agent if they are pointed out to him, and errors cannot be self-corrected without further relevant input (implicit/explicit). (James 1998, 83-84)

Edge identifies one more group: attempts, when the learners do not know how to express what they want to say, and this is unclear to the teacher (1989, 11).

As we can see, while James and Harmer identify mistakes according to the possibility of their correction, CEFR and Edge judge mistakes according to the students´ competence.

Another possible classification of errors can be made according to the fact how much they disturb communication:

a)   Global error – cause misunderstanding in the communication or incomprehensibility in a sentence.

b)   Local errors – do not hinder communication (linguistic error, which appears strange in the utterance but only causes little or no problem with understanding of the meaning). (Hendrickson 1978, 391)

Burt claims that correcting one global error can clarify the message more than correcting of several local errors in the same sentence (Burt and Kiparsky in Hendrickson 1978, 391).

Edge (1989, 3-8) refers to the fact that people do not mind when people make grammatical mistakes, but do not forgive social mistakes. In this regard, he suggests the following division of mistakes:

Mistakes of meaning:

- A correct piece of language which does not mean what the speaker wanted to express
- A correct linguistic form which is socially unacceptable

Mistakes of the form: (these mistakes will be explained in the following chapter).

Even though mistakes that disrupt communication should receive preference in correction, other mistakes should be corrected or be pointed out from time to time as well. Since students want to improve their language, they should also be taught how to produce accurate language as well.

Some authors indicate that mistakes are possible to be divided further according to their origin and this theme will be clarified in the following chapter.

3.3. Reasons for Mistakes in Speaking

As we have said, for both the student and the teacher, it is essential to detect the cause and origin of at least some of the mistakes. Once the mistake´s origin is detected, the teacher should find a suitable technique for indicating the mistake and student can broaden his knowledge of the language then.

Lyster and Ranta (1997, 45), for example, use the following mistake classification in their research:

- L1 (native language interference)
- Phonological
- Lexical
- Grammatical (in this category, they also use the 'Gender' subcategory)
- Multiple (when more than one type of error has occurred)
  (Lyster and Ranta 1997, 45)

Mistakes resulting from the native language interference are such mistakes, in which the learner tries comparing the second language to his native language and uses the same rule (at the level of sounds, grammar and word usage). Developmental errors arise by over-

generalisation when learners start using the same rules in cases when another rule is applicable (for example she goed to school, these womans…).

(Harmer 2001, 99–100)

Hendrich (1988, 366), however, lists errors made by insufficient mastering the language structure, errors made when the learner has not learned the rule yet, and even errors that have arisen out of imperfection in textbook conception or in the work of the teacher (for example, inaccurate usage of grammar structures).

(Hendrich 1988, 366)

Corder (1981, 36) expands the classification by the group of errors which arose out of insufficient comprehension of the rule related to:

- Errors of omission (some element is omitted)
- Errors of addition (some element appears where it should not be)
- Errors of selection (a wrong item was chosen instead of the right one)
- Errors of order (incorrectly sequenced elements)

(Corder 1981, 36)

Although the authors show many reasons why the mistakes arise, their origins are similar but presented from other points of view.

4.   Corrective Feedback

As soon as we have described mistakes and know their origin, the teacher also needs to decide which mistakes are going to be corrected and when. Only then he is ready to indicate that a mistake was made to the student. This process will be explained and described below.

4.1. Correction Priority

It is not always easy for the teacher to estimate the right time for correction. As outlined above, in the present communicative second language education, the main criterion for correction is the degree of communication disturbance. There are several aspects, which the teacher should bear in mind before deciding to correct a mistake, for example, the stage of the lesson, the activity, the type of the mistake made, and possibly the teacher´s focus (on fluency or accuracy) or maybe the individual student, who is making the mistake.

If students are to learn to use a language, they need to practise uninterrupted, meaningful communication, so a delayed correction is recommended. When the teacher identifies mistakes, he can make a note of them (Edge 1989, 37–39). When the student is trying to formulate something the last thing the teacher should do is to correct pronunciation or intonation, because it is very stressful. If the message is unclear, it should be the listener who ask for clarification (Brown and Yule 1983, 53).

When making corrections, Edge (1989, 18–19) advises not reacting to the form, but focus on the content of the utterance. Students should have time to focus more on fluency than on accuracy (Edge 1989, 18–19). When treating errors, it is also highly recommended to stay consistent and systematic by supporting feedback/correction (Krashen 1995, 119). However, some teachers may also decide to correct frequent mistakes, or mistakes, which they consider elementary, and students should know the target language. The students themselves may also wish to be corrected more often to improve their language. In this case, correction choice criteria may differ from teacher to teacher.

Nevertheless, none of the possibilities mentioned above are the only possible correct options. It is always up to the teacher to decide which option is convenient in the given situation. Moreover, the teacher can also decide to correct all the mistake because of the orientation to accuracy, when focuses on the language means to improve the students´ knowledge of language, especially with beginner students. The method of the mistake indication is another important step that will be explained further.

4.2. Feedback and its Relation to the Corrective Feedback

As the term indicates, feedback is information that is feed back to the student about his performances. It should have positive impact even if it has negative content, because it relates to something which was done incorrectly. It is something which guides the way towards the desired shape and pushes us forward.

Feedback plays an important role in language learning and teaching. It can influence students´ learning and achievement. It can also help both the teacher and the student to meet their teaching and learning goals. It is a tool, which the speaker uses to reflect on communicative situations, comment on them or clarify them.

Moreover, the feedback can also help in learning process because learners can confirm or modify rules, which they make about the second language´s grammar (Hánková 2014, 28–29).

If the teacher reacts to the learner´s answer, the reaction is of a confirming or refusing character. If there is no reaction, the learner becomes discouraged, because he expects the feedback. One of the reasons is that he wants to know whether or not he met the teacher´s idea. (Gavora 2005, 86)

Harmer (2007, 144) even introduces balanced feedback, that means that the teacher will appreciate the learner´s effort even though the utterance was only partially correct because teachers want to show their progress and to motivate students. It is essential for learners not to lose their motivation. Therefore, the teacher´s positive attitude is more important than the effectiveness of feedback and correction (Harmer 2007, 144).

Harmer (2007, 115) also emphasizes that motivation and praising are not always easy. Some students want to be properly corrected and others may need more support and positive reinforcement. On the other hand, over-criticism leads to demotivation and too much praise may turn learners into 'price junkies', who need constant approval. (2007, 115)

One of the possible feedback is corrective feedback (next CF only), which relates to the topic of mistakes and their treatment. If the teacher decides that it is necessary to correct the student´s utterance he uses CF, which is somehow connected with correction and remediation (extra explanation to the mistake). (James 1998, 237–239) It is also important for teachers not to perceive correction as criticism. They should support the learners' courage and enthusiasm and show interest in what the learners are going to express rather than follow how accurate they are. This tactic is especially recommended in production activities (Harmer 2007, 139).

4.3. Corrective Feedback, its Function and Target

Corrective feedback relates to 3 cognitive theories: the Interaction Hypothesis, the Output Hypothesis and the Noticing Hypothesis (see Table 2). The theories stress the fact that CF helps with acquisition when students mainly focus on the meaning, make mistakes, and receive feedback. Not only do they receive information about the linguistic form but also about form-meaning mappings. (Sheen and Ellis 2011, 595)

Hypothesis	Description
Interaction Hypothesis	This claims that the negotiation of meaning that occurs when a communication problem arises results in interactional modifications that provide learners with the input needed for L2 learning.
Output Hypothesis	This claims that learners also learn from their own output when this requires them to "stretch their interlanguage in order to meet communicative goals" (Swain, 1995, p. 127).
Noticing Hypothesis	This claims that L2 learning is enhanced when learners pay conscious attention to specific linguistic forms in the input to which they are exposed.

Table 2: Three Hypotheses that Inform Cognitive Accounts of Corrective Feedback
(Sheen and Ellis 2011, 595, Table 36.3)

According to socio-cultural theory (which claims that learning is rather 'participation' than 'acquisition') is the CF: '…a key element, in how teacher (or other learners) can assist a learner to achieve self-regulation through self-correction and thereby ultimately learn how to use a feature correctly without assistance.' (Sheen and Ellis 2011, 597) CF also helps the learner to direct attention between the target language and his interlanguage and it helps him to produce comprehensible output. (Long in Hánková 2014, 29) Corrective feedback can shift the learner´s attention from meaning to form and gives him the opportunity to focus on the linguistic aspect of his output. It can help students make fewer errors (Leeman 2007, 117).

James (1998, 237–239) claims however, that by providing CF the learner receives information that his utterance is somehow wrong, but he does not know how or why. During correction we provide more details. We describe the nature of the wrongness. The remediation still explains why the error was committed (James 1998, 237–239).

What is more, CF can also assist acquisition when students have opportunity to correct their errors following the CF move, precisely to react somehow to the CF. This phenomenon is known as 'uptake'. It helps students:

'to rehearse the correct form in their short memory and consolidate a form-function mapping and thus enable them to incorporate the corrected feature more fully into their interlanguage.'

However, in order for this to be effective, students must be conscious that they are being corrected. (Sheen and Ellis 2011, 596) Lyster and Ranta (1997, 49) identify two possible

results of student´s uptake: 'repair' when the wrong utterance was corrected and student used the corrective feedback successfully and was able to fix the error by repetition, incorporation, self-repair or peer-repair and 'needs repair' when the error was not corrected and students made the same error, a different error, partial repair, or hesitation. No uptake, on the other hand, is specified as a kind of student´s ignorance or incomprehension of CF. (Lyster and Ranta 1997, 49).

Being so helpful in the learning process and assisting in the acquisition, CF becomes an indispensable instrument for both teachers and students. Not only can CF help the teacher to motivate his students more, but students can also confirm or modify rules about the second language, enhance their language acquisition, and obtain feedback about their progress in language.

4.4. Types and Techniques of Corrective Feedback

In the previous chapter, we stated that the corrective feedback is very important for students learning a foreign language. However, if we want it to be effective, we need to choose the most appropriate way of supporting it.

CF can be provided immediately after the mistake is made (on-line attempts), or after the communicative event is finished (off-line attempts). Oral CF can be input-providing (student receives the corrective form) or output-prompting (correction is elicited from the student). (Sheen and Ellis 2011, 593)

Firstly, it is necessary to specify, who should make correction.

As was already said, self-correction seems to be the best form of correction because it makes learners think about mistakes, help them imprint the corrections into their memory and subsequently to apply them in their language production. Nevertheless, students themselves prefer self-correction to correction from somebody else too (Edge 1989, 24). Sheen adds that if self-correction is the goal of CF, then CF should be fine-tuned to individual learners´ level of L2 development and their capacity to benefit from CF. (Sheen and Ellis 2011, 607)

Also, peer correction is beneficial, especially within error correction. All students involved in this type of correction need to pay attention to and learn from the mistakes that other students make. They are getting used to the idea of learning from each other, they are learning to cooperate and to be less dependent on the teacher. (Sheen and Ellis 2011, 600–601)

If neither the student nor his peers are able to do self-correction, the teacher steps in to provide further help. Nevertheless, it does not mean that he needs to do it explicitly. Positive evidence is when the learner receives an example of the right use within the feedback. Negative evidence is when the learner receives information that his utterance was incorrect. The negative evidence can be explicit (direct error correction, grammatical explanation), or implicit (interaction - for example question for the understanding approval).

(Long in Hánková 2014, 29)

In explicit correction the teacher indicates that the student has made a mistake and that it is necessary to correct it or change it. In implicit correction the teacher does not say that the student has made a mistake, but he reformulates the previous utterance (which is known as 'recast') or asks the student for clarification.

There are several possibilities how to indicate that a mistake has been made and give the student a chance to find it and correct it.

Firstly, it is necessary to explain **how** to indicate that the mistake has been made.

This can be accomplished as follows:

- Gestures (rotating by open hand, palm down or waving by the finger)
- Facial expressions (frowning, shaking the head, doubtful expression)
- Non-verbal sounds (Errrr, Mmmmmhhh)
- Simple phrases ('not quite.. ', 'good, but.. ', 'nearly.. ')

(Bartram and Walton 1991, 44)

Students may accept gestures or facial expressions better than the phrases like 'it was wrong'. They know the teacher´s gestures, so they understand them quickly and easily. When the learner hears the word 'wrong' more often, he probably becomes demotivated and will not say anything for the rest of the lesson.

Lyster and Ranta (1997, 46–48), for example, suggest the following corrective feedback typology:

1.   Explicit correction – the teacher supplies an explicit correction and indicates that what has been said was incorrect (e.g. 'You mean..', 'You should say')

2.   Recast – teacher's reformulation of the whole utterance or a part of it,

3.   Clarification request – this type indicates that the utterance was misunderstood by the teacher or is ill-formed in some way and can refer to problems in accuracy, comprehensibility, or both. (e.g. 'Pardon me, what do you mean by….?')

4.   Metalinguistic feedback – contains information, comments or questions oriented to the right form without an explicit provision.

5.   Elicitation – this type covers at least 3 techniques to elicit the correct form from the student (pausing in utterance to allow the students to 'fill in the blank' – e.g. 'No, not that. It´s a…', using questions – e.g. 'How do we say X in English?', or asking students to reformulate, what they have said.)

6.   Repetition – repeating the student´s erroneous utterance 'in isolation'.

For example:

S: I have got a sister. His name is Anna.

T. 'His' name?

(Lyster and Ranta 1997, 46-48)

Bartram and Walton (1991, 45-46) divide techniques upon where the mistake arose and what kind of a mistake it was.

If we need to indicate **where** the mistake is, we can use the 'finger technique'. Each word represents one finger of one hand and the index finger of the other hand taps/holds the 'incorrect' or 'missing' word/finger.

We can also use simple phrases where we:

a) can verbally indicate which word is wrong.

For example:

S: Yesterday I go to the doctor.

T: 'Not go but…'(rising intonation, pause)..or…'Go?'

b)   can repeat the utterance, but without the mistake and let the student continue:

For example:

S: Last summer, I went in Scotland.

T: Last summer, I went…(pause)

S: to Scotland

T: Right

(Bartram and Walton 1991, 45-46)

Another set of techniques can even suggest **what** kind of a mistake was made.

Bartram and Walston (1991, 47-52) recommend gestures for the following techniques:

- to indicate that the past tense should have been used, the teacher points his hand/thumb behind himself.

- a similar technique is used for the future tense. This time, the teacher points his hand out into the distance in front of him or rolls the hand forward in the air.

- to suggest that a mistake in contractions was made, we bring the index finger and the thumb together or link the index finger in front of you.

- when there is a mistake in the word order, the teacher can indicate it by crossing his arms out in front of himself.

- if there is a mistake in pronunciation, the teacher can indicate it by cupping his hand behind his ear, as if trying to express that he hasn´t heard properly.

- another useful technique which brings double advantage (involves no criticism but shows what happened) is pretending to misunderstand.

For example:

S: She went on holiday with your husband.

T: My husband?

S: No, sorry, her husband.

- the following technique is commonly used by people on the street or in shops. A technique in which they just 'reformulate' what the speaker says. Bartram and Walton suggest that the success of this technique depends on two principles - students ´interest in the content (if the student is not interested, he may find learning harder) and the idea that learning takes place all the time (not only when the teacher is teaching) plays its role here.

For example:

S: Yes, and on Saturday I go to Bath on trip..

T: You´re going to Bath? That´ll be nice.

S: Yes, I going to Bath, and we see the Romanic Baths.

T: Have you seen the Roman Baths before?

S: No, this is first time.

T: What, the very first time?

S: Yes, I never see before.

T: Right, so Sonia´s going to Bath to see the Roman Baths.. (Bartram and Walton 1991, 47–52)

Harmer (2001, 106–107) says that the choice of corrective feedback depends on the stage of the lesson, the activity, type of the mistake and the learner himself. During the communicative activities the learners should not be interrupted so often, and the correction should follow the event. That is why it is important to record the mistakes somehow. communicative activities force learners to respond to the content not just to the language form. For fluency work a gentle correction, for example reformulation (or other techniques, when done gently) is recommended (Harmer 2001, 106–107). Also Krashen (1991, 53–54) suggests reformulating as very effective. Learners are immediately exposed to the language; they will understand and which they can add to their own current repertoire. He claims that this method appears to be more effective than formal correction, which does not expose the learner to real long-term learning. Moreover, this can relax the learner and open the way to real, long-term learning. Teachers, who are expected to provide correction and sometimes feel guilty for ignoring some mistakes, are satisfied with this technique, which enables them to react to the mistake without direct correction. (Krashen in Bartram and Walton 1991, 53–54) Nevertheless Russel (Russel in Elam 2014, 2-3) claims that event though recasts were found as the most used CF, they are the least effective in the terms of uptake and repair. After much research had been made it was discovered that prompts (explicit forms of CF as elicitations, metalinguistic cues, repetitions, clarification requests) were more effective for students' acquisition (Russel in Elam 2014, 2-3).

Authors concur that the most effective form of correction is self-correction, or peer-correction, which lead to better remembering. They also suggest reformulation as the right technique especially during speaking activities because it is gentle and more effective than formal correction. The explicit form of corrective feedback however seems to be even more effective according to the possibility of student´s repair.

5.   Conclusion of the Theoretical Part

Based on theory, the first part of the thesis explores speaking as an important skill and its role in second language acquisition and suggests some recommendations for teachers regarding the ways how to teach speaking. Subsequently the paper also introduces some

activities, which practise speaking. The following part of the thesis discusses adults as students, their learning styles, motivation, and barriers in learning. The conclusion of this chapter hints at ways how to teach adults more effectively. The next part deals with the topic of mistakes, their role and ways how to approach them, based on social-constructivist theory. This section also discusses the types and sources of mistakes made in speaking and provides suggestions related to their analysis before correction. Finally, the paper focuses on the topic of feedback, its relation to corrective feedback and its significant role in L2 teaching. It concludes with the types and techniques available to teachers to achieve the students´ acquisition.

The theoretical part offers the basis for the research which will be discussed in the following, practical part. The aim of the practical part is to write down students´ mistakes and teacher´s feedback and students' reaction in communicative activities based on recorded online lessons and indicate whether or not the teacher provides efficient corrective feedback.

PRACTICAL PART

The practical part of the bachelor paper, which can help the teacher to improve her approach to corrective feedback during speaking activities, is based on the standpoints of the theoretical part where the topics of speaking, types of mistakes and corrective feedback were discussed.

There are several reasons why to integrate research in the teacher´s practise. Being a reflective practitioner may help teachers solve various problems, such as evaluating the implementation of new textbook, new methods, etc. This may be referred to as action research because it comes from the needs of practise and the results are possible to be applied immediately into the practise (Gavora 2000, 12). Not only is the research an essential part of this bachelor thesis but it also comes from the need of the teacher to find out if she promotes the right corrective feedback. That is why, as stated in the introduction, the aim of the research will be to find out what mistakes students make in speaking, what forms of corrective feedback are used for their correction and what is the student´s reaction.

6. Objectives of the Practical Part

Based on the above-mentioned assumptions, the following questions were raised:

1. What mistakes appear in students´ speaking?
2. What forms of corrective feedback are used for their correction?
3. What is the result of students´ uptake after the corrective feedback?

To investigate the pedagogical phenomenon systematically and empirically, a quantitative approach is used in the practical part to understand the relationship among the existing pedagogical phenomena (Chráska 2007, 12).

6.1. Context of the Research

The research was conducted by a junior teacher, the author of this thesis (me). It was conducted at a private language school, in the form of online education (due to the situation with Covid-10) in the years 2020 and 2021.

The language school I cooperate with is a small, family-type language school, which offers an individual approach mainly to adult students of all levels. We strive to set up a friendly, equal and student-teacher based environment in all lessons as it is introduced in

the theoretical part (see p. 16). We benefit from the knowledge we have about adult education. I have been teaching there for over 5 years and lead one-to-one lessons or lessons for small groups of elementary to intermediate level students. The courses I tutor focus on general English and take place once a week for 60 minutes. Before we start any course, we usually have an interview with each student to learn all the details about their decision to learn the language, and we also test their current knowledge of the language. Not only do we find out their level of English, but we also ask about their motivation, time availability and goals for the lessons.

In the theoretical part (see p. 14) we state that adult students are goal-oriented and usually know what goal they want to achieve, that they must see a reason for learning something and are strongly motivated. Hence also my students know why they learn the language. Some of them want to travel and make new friends abroad, others want to get a better (paid) job, grow professionally or only escape boredom. Sometimes they also deal with problems linked to different blocks, which prevent them from participating; above all, they are represented by lack of time, money, or childcare.

Before the research, I informed all the involved students about the investigation and received their consent to record the lessons. To obtain valid and reliable data, the lessons were recorded in 3 separate (elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate) small groups of adult students of mixed gender (11 students took part in total, out of that 4 elementary, 4 pre-intermediate, 3 intermediate). Each group was recorded during 5 different lessons (each lesson took 60 minutes). Therefore, a total of 15 lessons were observed for this research.

Since it is important to practice speaking to improve fluency and knowledge of the language and discourse, I keep this in mind while planning my lessons and include activities, which focus on speaking. These activities challenge the students´ skills and the linguistic knowledge in ways that help them to become more fluent.

The typology of activities for the study was chosen based on the suggestion of Goh and Burns (2012) (see page 12 of the theoretical part) because students can use authentic and functional language and are encouraged to communicate or collaborate in some way. Even though these activities assume better knowledge of language and discourse (and beginners might struggle a bit) I decided to challenge them. I chose mainly indirect

activities for students to show how they can cope with each function of the language. For my study, I defined only 3 basic categories of these activities.

The first category is represented by discussions, in which students can propose, organize, judge, solve or plan something in their discussions. In these activities, students need to negotiate with each other. The next category is represented by information gaps. In this type of activity, students compare some texts, describe pictures or processes, ask each other questions and give answers. When they want to achieve their pre-defined goals, the students need to interact. The last category of activities is monologic. Students tell stories, reflect, or react to some objects or recordings, share anecdotes and give talks. In these activities, students must produce some discourse individually. Since the tasks of the above-mentioned activities involve a combination of several functions of the language such as monologue, transactional and interpersonal interaction (as stated on page 12), learners can practise different core speaking skills and use their knowledge about the language and discourse.

As I tend to teach mostly beginners, who at their A1-A2 levels make basic mistakes (CEFR 2003, 114), I decided to use the mistakes typology of Lyster and Ranta (1997, 45), because it seems to be transparent and easily recognizable for observation. Students of lower levels need to be able to improve their language knowledge also in speaking activities and that is why we need to focus on mistakes and their correction in that area as well.

Nevertheless, it is necessary to mention that not before the observation had been over, I found out that the typology of Goh and Burns (2012, 54), who highlight the need for linguistic knowledge, might have been more appropriate for the study.

6.2. Observation

There exist a few investigative tools which can be used for different investigating intentions. They are for example observations, interviews, questionnaires, and others. Since in this practical part behaviour of both students and the teacher is examined, the tool used to investigate this phenomenon is observation. (Denscombe 2014, 196)

The observational sheet was created on the principles of the theoretical part, the selected lessons were video-recorded at first and then analysed with the help of the observation sheet created. Gavora (2000, 76–80) refers to this type of observation as the structural, which indicates that the observer structures the observed reality into categories stated

beforehand. The observer identifies phenomena of the same features. The recording sheet must be ready before the start of the research. If we observe the phenomena in person, we speak about direct observation. If we observe the phenomena from a recording, this way is called indirect observation (Gavora 2000, 76‒80).

Gavora (2000, 79) also states there exist two different ways of recording – the length of the individual categories and the frequency of their occurrences. As the aim of the practical part suggests, in the observation the phenomenon, its existence is important there only frequencies are measured, not their duration. Gavora also says that the content coming from observation is analysed quantitatively, hence the content of the text, which is qualitative (words, sentences, topics) is converted into quantitative rate. It is necessary to determine semantic units and their analytical categories and quantification (their frequency). The detected data are finally interpreted in a table or graph and a statistic analysis is made (Gavora 2000, 117‒120).

The observation sheet used is designed to identify each mistake by a single number, in ascending order. This number is stated also in other observed items (columns). It means that when the student made his/her first mistake, it was written down as the number one and then classified by each semantic unit as the activity, type of mistake, teacher´s feedback, student´s reaction to feedback and correcting person. As you can see, the first mistake was made in discussions, it was lexical, teacher did not provide any CF, student did not react to it and finally we can see that it was not corrected at all.

Even though some of the suggested unites of the observational sheet are not necessary for answering the research questions, they can be important for the overall context of the investigation and therefore they are included into the observation sheet.

For the sake of reliability, I asked my more experienced college to take part in the research and supervise it. Her role was supervision over the activities, errors, and corrective feedback and their right classification during the observations.

The outcomes will be compared with the theory of the theoretical part and may indicate whether or not the teacher promotes effective corrective feedback. The teacher (author of the bachelor paper) believes that this study can help her to improve the ways in which she provides corrective feedback.

6.3. Data Collection

The data of all 15 lessons were written down into observation sheets. Each sheet contains a heading at the top with the specification of the group (for the sake of ethics the groups were marked as elementary, pre-intermediate, the intermediate only), the date of the lesson and the number of the recorded lesson (1-5). (see Appendix 1)

The type of activity which was being practiced and where the mistake occurred was recorded in the first 'activity' column according to the number of the mistake.

The 'type of mistake' column indicates the domain of the language, where the error was made. Lyster and Ranta (1997, 45) identify lexical errors when wrong or inappropriate words are used, that may cause misunderstandings or incomprehensibility.
Another type of error they describe is grammatical error, which indicate insufficient knowledge of the rule (for example omission, addition, selection, ordering). When students pronounce the words badly, we speak about another type of error, which is phonological. Multiple errors occur when two or more stated types are mixed together. (Lyster and Ranta 1997, 45)
I decided to establish one more type called 'others' that includes mistakes, which were not easy to identify, or those which did not fall into any of the stated categories.

In the 'teacher´s feedback' column, we specify several teacher´s reactions to students´ mistakes. The classification was made based on Lyster and Ranta´s typology (1997, 46–48). The reaction when the teacher 'repeats the mistake' is not included in my table, because it is not supported by some authors.

The 'student´s reaction' column describes student´s responses following CF also classified by Lyster and Ranta´s typology (1997, 46–48).

By 'correcting person' in the following column is meant the person, who eventually provides the correct model of the utterance. No correction means that no correction was provided at all (neither by students/nor by the teacher). I did not include the choral answer because it did not appear.

To be precise and objective I tried to write down all the mistakes connected with the stated activities (not only the ones, which caused misunderstanding or were sociably

unacceptable) to have relevant data for the analysis. During the observation I also recorded data that could be used as a base for further research.

7.   Data Analysis and Discussion

This chapter elaborates on the data collected in the observation sheets and their analysis.

Before we present the final results, it is necessary to confirm some findings. Since the teacher reacted to students' mistakes, it is obvious that he provided corrective feedback. (see p. 23 of the theoretical part) When the teacher indicated that what has been said was incorrect, he provided 'explicit correction'. When he reformulated what has been said, he provided a 'recast'. If he asked for clarification he offered a 'clarification request' and if he used comments or questions, which led to the right form he gave 'metalinguistic feedback'. When the teacher elicited the right form from the student he provided 'elicitation' (see p. 27 of the theoretical part). There were also a few instances when the teacher did not provide any corrective feedback at all.

Since the students reacted to the provided corrective feedback, we speak about 'uptake' (see p. 24 of the theoretical part). When the students were able to self- or peer-correct we speak about 'repair', if they made the same or different mistake or they repaired the mistake only partially, we speak about 'need-repair'. If they did not react at all, that phenomenon is called 'no-uptake'(see also p. 24 of the theoretical part).

When we look at the table with the overall results (see Table 3), we can see the final numbers of all 3 groups together (data from all 15 worksheets are included). The first result we can work with is the type of activity, where mistakes occurred most frequently. Students made the most mistakes in discussions (eighty-one). We can only speculate whether the reason for more mistakes in discussions than in other activities was connected to the fact that students may have been less careful about making mistakes, or whether there may have been more than one activity in one of the 3 stated categories, thus more mistakes were pointed out. The number of mistakes recorded in the monologue activities was lower, which leads us to the presumption that the students might have been focused more on faultlessness when speaking to an audience.

Activity	Type of mistake	Form of CF	Uptake	Correcting person
Discussions - proposals, judgements, solutions, making plans 81	Lexical 33	Explicit correction 52	Repair 59	Self correction 49
Information gaps- text/picture comparision, description of pictures/procedures, asks/answers 57	Grammatical 79	Recast 44	Needs-repair 54	Peer correction 11
Monologues - telling stories, reflections/reactions/explanations 36	Phonological 35	Clarification request 12	No Uptake 26	Teacher´s correction 76
	Multiple 22	Metalinguistic feedback 19		0 correction 37
	Others 5	Elicitation 23		
		None 24		
TOTAL	174	174	139	173

Table 3: Summary of data collection

During the observation, a total of one hundred and seventy-four mistakes were recorded in all 3 groups. The highest number of mistakes was found in the grammar and phonological fields.

Moreover, the study shows the differences among individual levels. It was found that there were more mistakes made at lower levels (see Table 4). Elementary students made ninety-eight mistakes, pre-intermediate students made forty-nine and intermediate students twenty-seven mistakes. This analysis also showed that the highest number of mistakes in each level was made in grammar. The elementary students, however, also made many phonological and multiple mistakes, and in comparison, with the intermediate students, the pre-intermediate students made more lexical and phonological mistakes. These results show that the teacher should probably focus on pre-communication activities and means of language more.

Levels	Lexical	Grammatical	Phonological	Multiple	Others
Elementary 98	14	46	15	20	3
Pre-intermadiate 49	13	20	14	0	2
Intermediate 27	6	13	6	2	0

Table 4: Summary of mistakes by levels

The teacher was the only agent of intervention. She provided corrective feedback in one hundred and fifty cases. Forty-nine mistakes were finally self-corrected and eleven mistakes were peer-corrected. Fifty-four uptakes needed another correction. There were no uptakes in twenty-six cases. The teacher finally corrected seventy-six mistakes of all the mistakes. We can see that the total number of uptakes differs in comparison with the number of mistakes made and CF provided. One of the reasons could have been that CF was not provided in 24 cases. The second reason might have been the possibility of self-correction without any CF provision.

During observations 5 different types of corrective feedback were provided (see Table 3): explicit correction (fifty-two), recast (thirty-two), clarification request (twelve), metalinguistic feedback (nineteen) and elicitation (twenty-three). From the observational sheets it is also possible to identify the type of CF that followed the particular mistakes (see Table 5). Explicit correction mainly followed phonological mistakes (twenty-two), recast was used with grammatical (twenty-one) or multiple (fifteen) mistakes. Clarification request was most frequently provided in grammatical (six) or phonological mistakes (four). Metalinguistic feedback was mainly given after grammatical (ten) and lexical (six) mistakes. Elicitation was mostly used in lexical mistakes (fourteen).

Mistake/Type of CF	Explicit correction	Clarification request	Recast	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation
Lexical	10	2	0	6	14
Gramatical	20	6	21	10	5
Phonological	22	4	8	0	0
Multiple	0	0	15	3	4
Others	0	0	0	0	0

Table 5: Summary of mistakes and provided CF

Students were able to correct themselves in 42% (including peer correction – see Figure 9). They were not successful to self/peer-correct in 39%. The research also showed moments, when the lesson went on without any student´s reaction, so no-uptake was recorded in 19%.

In the following subchapters the questions, presented in the beginning of the practical part, will be answered.

7.1. What Mistakes Appear in Students´ Speaking?

As we can see not only in the graph bellow (see Figure 7) nearly all types of mistakes appeared in speaking of the students, although the most common were grammatical mistakes.
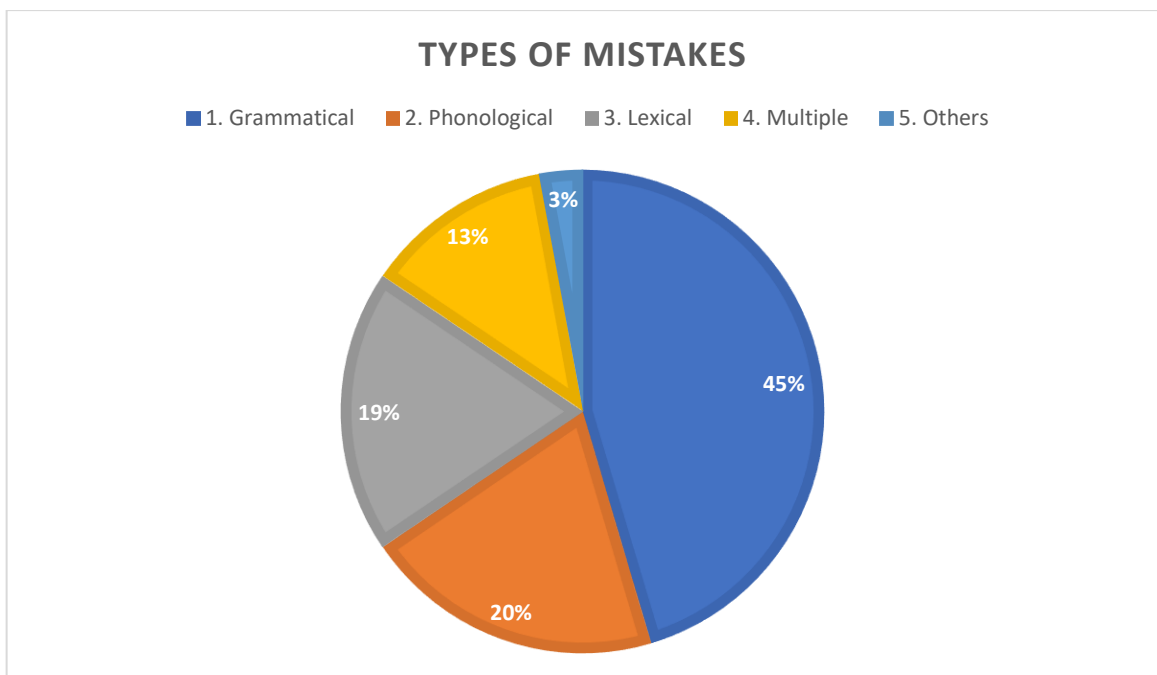

Figure 7: Types of mistakes

The types of their mistakes depended on their level of proficiency, the activity, and probably also on their physical and psychological state at the time of the recording. In grammar, students made mistakes mainly in wrong item selection for example in the phrase 'to go to the theatre' they used the wrong preposition (for example in, or for). Sometimes they added a preposition to the place, where it should not appear, like in the phrase 'to go home' they added 'to' and said 'they went to home'. Sometimes they

overgeneralized the rule and applied the past tense rule of the regular verb (weared) instead of the correct form of an irregular verb (wear, wore).

From the lexical mistakes, we can mention for example the wrong usage of the word 'hours' instead of 'o´clock' used wrongly in this sentence: 'I must be there at 6 hours.' In the sentence 'I wanted to be a cooker,' they changed the words 'cook' and 'cooker'.

In the area of phonological mistakes, the students pronounced some abbreviations, such as EU, UFO, incorrectly, or put the definite article before a vowel (the apple – they pronounced the article as [ðə]). They also incorrectly pronounced the names of some states as France and Netherlands. The students also had problems with the correct pronunciation of the words 'ski' and 'sky', they confused them very often.

When more than one mistake appeared in one sentence, the mistakes were classified as multiple. These comprise different categories of mistakes, such as phonological+grammatical (I wrote the letters at the evening), grammatical+lexical (I wanted be a cooker) or phonological+lexical (I bought /bəʊt/ a new sky).

7.2. What Forms of Corrective Feedback Are Used for their Correction?

The explicit correction was the most frequently used type of corrective feedback, followed by recast, elicitation and metalinguistic feedback which were also provided (see Figure 8 or Table 3). Since the most used type of CF was explicit correction, it means that students did not have time for self-correction. Recast was the second most frequently used type and might have offered a wider consciousness about the origin of the mistake and that is why was more effective than explicit correction. In twenty-four cases there was no CF given, but the analysis does not identify the reason. From the recordings, we can see that the reason can be the student´s immediate self-correction or the fact that the mistake was not corrected at all.
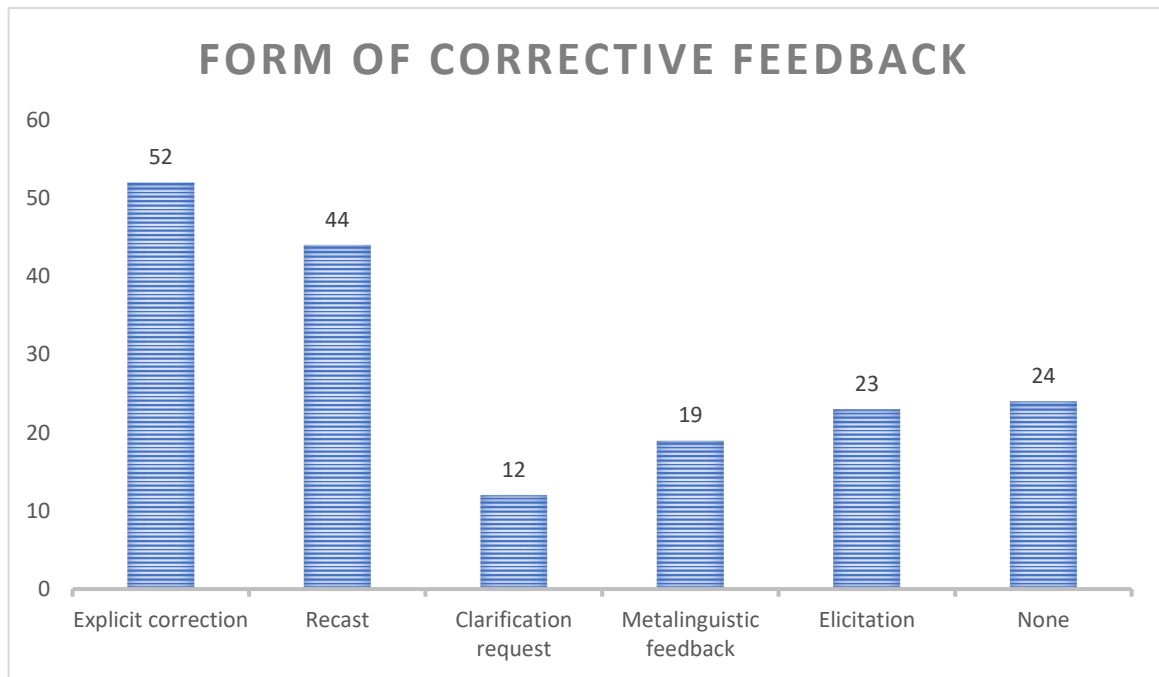
FORM OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Figure 8: Form of corrective feedback

As written above the teacher corrected the erroneous utterances almost by an immediate supply of the right word or tried to reformulate the sentence for the student to learn the correct form is (for example: I visit my parents yesterday x I visited my parents yesterday). Sometimes the teacher followed up with a question 'Why did we need to make a correction?' to revise rules and reinforce the memory process. Even though the elicitation was not a frequent type of corrective feedback, it was used to prompt a change in the utterance (for example 'No, try it again' or 'Well, there is a better word for that and it is a…'). Occasionally, the teacher also used metalinguistic feedback when she offered two options, and only one was the right one (for example 'in 1996 or on 1996') or she asked for a rule to be applied correctly (for example 'What tense do we use if we speak about yesterday?' and 'Is money countable or uncountable?').

Moreover, the teacher used gestures like shaking the head, waving the finger or short phrases like 'No, no', 'Try it again', 'Ok/fine, but..' to indicate that a mistake was made. If the teacher wanted to identify the place where the mistake arose, she used the finger technique and motivated with her hand (in the case of incorrectly used tenses), but she also pretended to misunderstand or not hear well. Postponed correction was used in a few cases.

The recordings also show that students were mainly able to self-correct after metalinguistic feedback and elicitation, but these facts were not defined as the aim of the research and were not included in the main calculation.

7.3. What Is the Result of Students´ Uptake after the Corrective Feedback?

All 3 results of student's uptake (repair, needs-repair and no-uptake) were identified during the observation, although the most common result was 'repair' (see Figure 9), which means that students were able both to either self- or peer-correct.
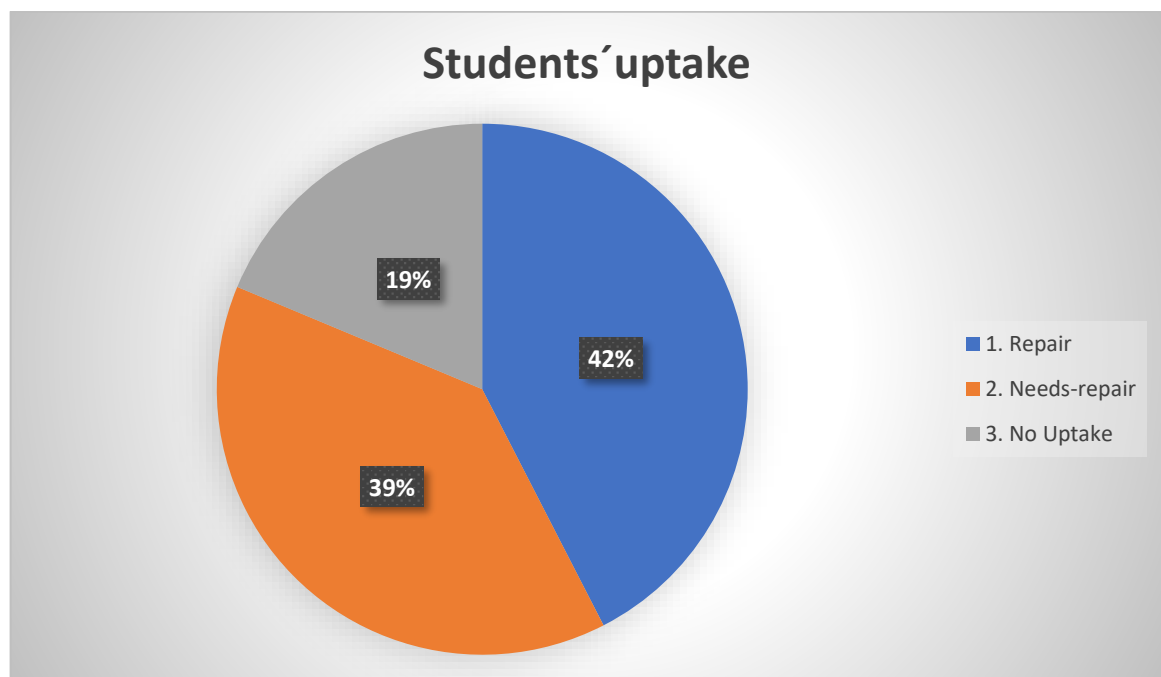

Figure 9: Students´ uptake

Once the corrective feedback was provided, students responded almost immediately. In a few cases, they did not understand what was incorrect and were not able to repair or did not have any space for uptake because they were corrected by the teacher (explicit correction) or did not receive any feedback at all. Sometimes they were unsure about their repair hence the teacher confirmed the correctness of the repair and praised them.

There were some other findings observed within the study. During speaking activities, it was not always easy for the teacher to only focus solely on the above-mentioned mistakes. Especially in groups of beginners, she had to often interrupt the activity and go over the instructions again, or even help the students to form answers. This finding indicate that some activities may have not been suitable for that level of students.

Although some of the activities appeared to be challenging, especially for beginner students who sometimes struggled to express themselves properly and correctly, the speaking activity exposed them to real-life situations that they may encounter outside the classroom. At the same time, the teacher had opportunity to detect some further needs for students´ speaking practice as well as realize that adaptations may need to be made to future lesson plans.

During the observations, the teacher did not only focus on mistakes disrupting communication itself (which were the ones being primarily corrected), but also on other kinds of errors, such as grammatical ones. Each correction provided the student with room for improvement and showed effort on the teacher´s side to strive for the student´s continuous development.

The findings in the part of the corrective feedback gave preference to only some forms of CF. It would make for interesting research to find out the reason for that occurrence. We can only guess that the teacher is perhaps inexperienced in other forms of CF, that she felt pressed for time during the lessons, or that she came to the assumption that students wouldn´t be able to correct themselves based on their lack of proficiency. However, the last monitored area yielded key data. It focused on the results of students' uptake, which subsequently generated the students´ repair (in 42 % - see Figure 9). It means that the delivered CF was successful at least in this part out of the total number of provided CF, and students might have been able to automatize the retrieved knowledge of the language.

Furthermore, it was found out that the total number in the column 'Correcting person' does not accurately correspond to the total number of the recorded mistakes, but the reason was not found.

8.   Further Implications

When students speak it is suggested not to disturb them so often and to only correct such mistakes, which lead to misunderstandings and incomprehensibility. It is better to use the postponed correction, but this seems to be counter-productive sometimes. The teacher can forget to make the necessary corrections after the activity and does it much later, which might lose its significance. During speaking activities, it is not always easy to only focus on the above-mentioned mistakes. Some teachers believe that they must correct most of the mistakes anyway. Moreover, there are always a few students who wish to be warned about all the mistakes.

It is not recommended to provide a correct model immediately, although this may be an easier and quicker alternative for the teacher. Students should be given time for self-correction because they prefer to correct their mistakes themselves. When they are aware of the fact that they have made a mistake and are given a hint about where the mistake appeared, it is more possible for them to self-correct and learn from their mistakes.

Peer correction is also desirable because other students need to think about the problem and learn from the mistakes of their classmates, but there is not always such an atmosphere for this kind of cooperation. Some students feel uncomfortable correcting their classmates, they do not want to discredit them this way, or they are not sure about the correct model. It might be useful to improve the classroom atmosphere somehow and to assure students about the benefits of participating in the correcting process.

Recast is frequently recommended as a gentle and effective type of corrective feedback in speaking, nevertheless, it does not support much uptake. That is why, for example, metalinguistic feedback or explicit elicitation seem to be more successful in students' self-correction.

To achieve more self-corrections, the teacher should focus on offering more space for self-correction and allow students to learn from their own mistakes. The use of corrective feedback, which supports acquisition (for example, explicit feedback together with metalinguistic clues) could be more effective.

CONCLUSION

Since corrective feedback is significant also for developing speaking skills, it is important to know what its forms and techniques are and understand how they correlate to mistakes made in speaking.

The following findings were made upon completing the study on providing corrective feedback in speaking: When students make mistakes, the teacher can apply several different techniques to point them out. It is recommended to choose the ones which enable the students to have enough time to repair their mistakes. If they are unable to repair, they should be given a correct example and find out why or where the mistake was made. Students make various mistakes while speaking and their number depends on several aspects, which depend, for instance, on the student´s level of proficiency, type of activity and teacher´s approach to providing corrective feedback. When students should speak relatively fluently, it is recommended to correct only such mistakes which lead to

misunderstandings and incomprehensibility. Nevertheless, especially with lower-level students, the teacher may prefer to focus on the means of language more, and correct all the mistakes students make to improve their knowledge of the language. If the teacher is inexperienced, she/he may find it difficult to choose suitable speaking activities for different levels of students. They may also prefer to use only certain forms of corrective feedback, such as explicit correction or recast, which are not much recommended, because students do not have time to repair. When students are overly recommended as they do not give students enough time to repair. Correction techniques, where students are given the right word or phrase immediately without any clues (for self-correction) or explanation, hinder the students´ ability to learn and support their acquisition effectively, even though they still develop some knowledge of the language.

Further research into corrective feedback may focus on the topic of students´ takeaway from the provided feedback (on mistakes the students made) or to identify the reason why they needed another repair after the provided CF. It would also be interesting to find out what their ability is to apply the correct version in the future or how much time is sufficient for students to be able to repair.

RESUMÉ

Tato práce se zabývá problematikou korektivní zpětné vazby v mluveném projevu studentů anglického jazyka. Cílem teoretické část je zjistit jaké techniky korektivní zpětné vazby lze v mluveném projevu studentů využít a proč, což je založeno na názoru odborníků. Cílem praktické části bude zjistit, jakých chyb se studenti v mluveném projevu dopouštějí a jaké techniky korektivní zpětné vazby jsou ve výuce mluvení používány. Praktická část je založena na výzkumu provedeném v rámci výuky dospělých studentů v jazykové škole.

První kapitola je věnována dovednosti mluvení, jako kombinované dovednosti. Jsou zde objasněny i hlavní funkce mluvení. K tomu, aby studenti byli schopni komunikovat plynule, správně a společensky vhodně, musí zvládat některé aspekty v jazyce, jako jsou například znalost jazyka a diskurzu, základní řečové dovednosti a komunikační strategie, které ve svém modelu mluvní kompetence navrhují Gohová a Burnsová. Součástí kapitoly je také prezentace několik možných přístupů ve výuce mluvení, a to v souvislosti s řečí plynulou a přesnou, jejichž rozdíly jsou zde taktéž definovány. Kapitolu mluvení uzavírá návrh mluvních aktivit, které napomáhají rozvoji této dovednosti. Jednotliví autoři vydělují aktivity dle různých kritérií a v kapitole jsou uvedeny včetně několika příkladů. Na základě porovnání aktivit W. Littlewooda a Gohové a Burnsové, byly pro praktickou část vybrány aktivity Gohové a Burnsové, jelikož studenti využívají jejich současnou znalost jazyka, bez předchozích příprav, a tudíž jsou více propojené s reálným životem.

Druhá kapitola se zabývá konceptem vzdělávání dospělých. V úvodu je vysvětleno paradigma celoživotního vzdělávání a vzdělávání dospělých osob. Dále jsou definovány obecné charakteristiky dospělých ve spojitosti se studiem jazyků a v porovnání s dětmi. Dospělí mají na rozdíl od dětí více zkušeností, které se mohou uplatnit v procesu studia. Mimo jiné zde také nalezneme informace o motivaci těchto dospělých studentů a několik rad k jejich výuce. Kapitola je zakončena prezentací několika didaktických zásad, které by měly být při výuce dospělých dodržovány. Příkladem může být zásada individuálního přístupu, která nutí lektora respektovat rozdíly mezi účastníky, nebo zásada názornosti, při niž se lektor snaží do výuky zapojit co nejvíce smyslů studenta a napomáhá tak větší zapamatovatelnosti.

Třetí kapitola je věnována tématu chyby v mluveném projevu a její prospěšnost z pohledu socio-konstruktivistické teorie učení, která chápe studenta jako aktivní osobu, jež se podílí na budování znalostí skrze kognitivní proces, imituje model (učitele) a spolupracuje s ostatními spolustudenty. Chyby mohou být prospěšné jak pro studenta, který se tak dozvídá, jaké oblasti jazyka ještě zlepšit, ale také pro lektora, neboť chyby mohou být ukazatelem možných nedostatků v učebních metodách učitele, nebo i v učebnicích. Součástí kapitoly je také přehled názorů několika autorů, kteří chyby dělí dle různých aspektů, mimo jiné i dle důvodu jejího vzniku. Jako hlavní zdroje chyb můžeme uvést například vměšování rodného jazyka, nedokonalé pochopení pravidel, nebo také únavu, či spěch studenta. Pro praktickou část byla zvolena typologie chyb dle Lystera a Rantové, neboť jednoduše vystihuje základní problémové oblasti ve výuce jazykových prostředků především u studentů začátečníků, kteří si potřebují zlepšit znalost jazykových prostředků tak, aby ji byli schopni používat v jazykových dovednostech v různých komunikačních kontextech.

Čtvrtá kapitola se již zabývá hlavním tématem celé práce, a to je korektivní zpětná vazba. Kapitola nejprve prezentuje několik přístupů při opravách chyb, jelikož existuje mnoho hledisek, které by měl lektor před samotnou opravou chyby zohlednit (např. fáze hodiny, druh aktivity, typ chyby a další). V průběhu nejen této kapitoly, je stále zdůrazňováno, že má-li student trénovat komunikaci, měl by být přerušován co nejméně, proto někteří z autorů doporučují odloženou korekci chyb. Chyby, které způsobují nedorozumění, či nesrozumitelnost, mají při opravách nejvyšší prioritu. Lektor se však může rozhodnout a opravovat také časté, či „základní" chyby, nebo z důvodu orientace více na řeč přesnou a jazykové prostředky, opravovat většinu chyb. Dále se kapitola již věnuje tématu zpětné vazby, její důležité roli v procesu učení a vyučování. Většina autorů se shoduje v tom, že zpětná vazba napomáhá procesu učení, neboť za pomocí zpětné vazby si studenti potvrzuji, či upravují gramatická pravidla a může též sloužit jako nástroj k motivaci studentů. Následně jsou popsány jednotlivé formy zpětné vazby a jejich vyžití v praxi. Důraz je zde kladen na to, by lektoři dávali přednost takovým technikám, při nichž studenti získají více času pro možnou autokorekci, či korekci ze strany spolustudentů a které také vedou k lepšímu zapamatování pravidla. Jako vhodnou techniku zpětné vazby v mluveném projevu doporučují reformulaci, při které jsou studenti vystaveni jazyku, kterému rozumí a nejsou stresování. Nicméně je doporučeno používat tuto techniku více explicitně, neboť se stává pro studenta více přínosnou.

Teoretickou část uzavírá závěrečné shrnutí této části, která slouží jako základ pro výzkumné šetření, které je popsáno dále, v praktické části.

V úvodu praktické části, která se skládá z 9 kapitol, je představen cíl této části spolu s upřesněním důvodu k provedení výzkumu. Následně kapitola již definuje otázky, které budou základem celého výzkumu:

1. Jaké chyby se objevují v mluveném projevu studentů?

2. Jaké formy zpětné vazby jsou užity na jejich korekci?

3. Jaká je výsledná reakce studentů po poskytnutí zpětné vazby?

V kapitole kontextu výzkumu jsou uvedeny informace o jazykové škole, kde probíhal výzkum a také o studentech, kteří se výzkumu účastnili (o jejich motivaci a bariérách v učení). Do výzkumu byly zapojeny 3 skupinky dospělých studentů s odlišnými znalostními stupni (začátečníci, středně pokročilí a pokročilí). Celkem se zúčastnilo 11 dospělých studentů různých věkových kategorií. Každá skupina byla nahrána v 5 různých lekcích. Kapitolu uzavírá výpis typologií užitých ve výzkumném šetření u mluvních aktivit, chyb a zpětné vazby a důvod jejich výběru.

V následující kapitole je vysvětlen pojem observace, jakožto vybraný nástroj pro výzkum v této práci. Dále zde nalezneme popis možností jejího použití a postup při práci s tímto nástrojem. Kapitola též popisuje jednotlivé části záznamové archu a naznačuje postup práce s ním během observace.

Další kapitola se již zabývá analýzou dat získaných při výzkumném šetření a diskuzí. Nejprve bylo nutné potvrdit výskyt jednotlivých jevů odhalených při observaci a objasnit jejich odborné názvy. Dále jsou již prezentovány jednotlivé výsledky z observace. V mluveném projevu studentů se nejčastěji objevovaly gramatické a fonologické chyby. Nejčastěji používaným typem zpětné vazby byla explicitní korekce. Výzkumné šetření též identifikuje typ korektivní zpětné vazby, která nejčastěji následovala po jednotlivých druzích chyb. Studenti reagovali na zpětnou vazbu autokorekcí v 59 případech, v 54 případech bylo potřeba další opravy a ve 26 případech nedošlo k žádné reakci a aktivita pokračovala dále. Kapitola též představuje další výsledky výzkumu, poté již v podkapitolách dochází k odpovědím na jednotlivé otázky výzkumu s uvedením příkladů v jednotlivých kategoriích.

Následující kapitola se zamýšlí nad dalšími jevy vypozorovanými při observaci a prezentuje doporučení týkajících se výsledků v jednotlivých kategoriích.

V závěru práce jsou ještě jednou shrnuty výsledky výzkumného šetření a doporučeny tipy na další možná šetření. V mluveném projevu studentů se objevují různé chyby a důvod jejich vzniku záleží na různých aspektech. Když studenti dělají chyby, je nutné je na ně upozornit nejlépe poskytnutím takové zpětné vazby, která vede k autokorekci. Pokud studenti po obdržení zpětné vazby nejsou schopni autokorekce, či nedojde k opravě spolustudenty, měli by obdržet správnou formu výrazu a taktéž by měla být objasněna příčiny chyby. Kapitola dále naznačuje některé důvody výsledků šetření, které by mohly vyplývat z malé zkušenosti lektora s poskytováním zpětné vazby. Na úplný závěr autorka práce navrhuje možnosti dalších výzkumných šetření spojených se zpětnou vazbou.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 – COMPLETED OBSERVATIONAL SHEET

Student´s specification: Elementary Number of recorded lesson: 2 Date: 14. 2. 2021
Pre-intermediate ✓
Inteermediate ✓

Activity	Type of mistake	Teacher´s feedback	Student´s reaction to feedback	Correcting person
Discussions - proposals, judgements, solutions, making plans. ① ② ⑤ ⑥ ⑨ 10 *Information gaps* - text/picture comparision, description of pictures/procedures/ asks/answers ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ *Monologues* - telling stories, reflections/reactions/ explanations ① ⑪	Lexical ① ② ⑤ Grammatical ③ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ① 10 Phonological ⑨ ⑪ Multiple ④ Others	The teacher indicates what has been said was incorrect (for example 'You mean..', 'You should say..') ② ④ ⑦ ⑪ The teacher reformulates what the student said. ⑤ The teacher asks for clarification (as 'What do you mean by..?') The teacher uses comments or questions which lead to the right form (error indication 'Can you find the error?' or grammatical metalanguage, which refers to the nature of error 'Is it singular or plural?') ⑥ ⑧ 10 The teacher elicits the right form from the student by asking questions ('How do we say it in English?' 'Say it again.') or by using yes/no questions. ③ The teacher does not provide any corrective feedback. ①	Self/Peer correction ③ ⑥ ⑦ 10 The same/different mistake, partial repair ② ④ ⑤ ⑪ No reaction ① ⑧ ⑨	Self correction ③ ⑥ ⑦ 10 Peer correction Teacher´s correction ② ④ ⑤ ⑧ ⑨ ⑪ No correction ①

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