CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

The aim of the present study entitled “Using Oral Corrective Feedback to Enhance Speaking Skills of Undergraduate Students: An Intervention Study” was to improve speaking skills of undergraduate learners with regional medium background, through oral corrective feedback in colleges located in rural and semi-urban areas of Andhra Pradesh. There are several methods and techniques to teach and develop students’ speaking skills in ESL context. However, the researcher thought that providing oral corrective feedback on students’ speaking performance and helping them to improvise would be the best option to achieve the goal. This chapter presents the relevant theories pertaining to the present study. A detailed discussion on the underlying theories and principles of is presented in order to justify the need for the study. It analyses the construct of the speaking skill, its definitions and discusses its sub-skills. It also discusses the current research in the field of communication skills using the oral corrective feedback.

2.1 English Education in India

India is a multi-cultural and multilingual nation. The vast country with more than a billion people is divided into several states primarily on the basis of the regional languages for the convenience of administration. In terms of population, Hindi is the most dominant language spoken by about 29% of people in India. In post independent period, there was a proposal to make
Hindi the national language of the union of India. But the southern states were vehemently opposed to this idea and consequently both Hindi and English were decided to be the official languages of the union government. It was for this reason that, when the Indian constitution was framed in 1950, English was made as an associate official language up to January 21, 1965, along with Hindi. „The Official Languages Act” 1963, however, amended this by saying that English would continue to be used as the official language. In December 1967, a Parliament Act declared English as an “Associate Official Language” at the national level for an indefinite period.

The frequent changes in the educational policies of the government lay stress on weakening the dominance of the imperial English and assigning new roles to indigenous languages in public life. But at the societal level, English has continued to be an important part of the communication matrix, especially in urban India. It is now estimated that about 10% of the total population (about 125 million speakers) spread across the country know some amount of English. English is the medium of higher education and the medium of official correspondence in almost all the states of India. Discussions at most academic conferences and seminars and interviews are held in English only. As a result, today there are a number of English teaching Institutions, a vast number of English teachers, English writers, and a strong English media in the country.

2.2 Language Policy in India

David Graddol (2010) points out that “throughout India, there is an extraordinary belief, among almost all castes and classes, in both rural and urban areas, in the transformative power of English” (p.120). In India, English is seen not just as a useful skill, but as a symbol of a better life, a pathway out
of poverty and oppression. Aspiration of such magnitude is a heavy burden for any language, and for those who have responsibility for teaching it, to bear. The challenges of providing universal access to English are significant, and many are bound to feel frustrated at the speed of progress. But we cannot ignore the way that the English language has emerged as a powerful agent for change in India.

Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) made two important proposals that firstly, “education system must make its contribution to the development of habits, attitudes and qualities of character, which will enable its citizens to bear worthily the responsibilities of democratic citizenship and to counteract all those fissiparous tendencies which hinder the emergence of a broad, national and secular outlook, (p.106). Article 343 of the Indian Constitution declares Hindi as the official language and also recommended English for all the official purposes for a period of 15 years. It was thought that Hindi would replace English after 15 years but things were not as expected but English still remains as the important language of India. English occupies a special place in the judiciary, parliament, media, journalism, and education. It was also recommended by many educational commissions after the Independence. In spite of the fears regarding English dominance over the national languages, it was believed that it may create social political and economic inequalities. (Mohanraj et.al 2014, p: 4).

2.3 The Three Language Formula

Since India is a multi-lingual country, language education has always been a difficult issue for policymakers. The first discussion on language in school
education was initiated by the Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE) in 1940s. The CABE proposed the following issues.

- The number of languages to be taught at school level;
- The introduction of second and third language;
- The place and role of Hindi;
- The teaching of Sanskrit and minor languages in school.

After many long discussions, the CABE introduced the three language formula in 1956 as a policy to suit the social and political situations of this country.

The main objectives behind implementation of this policy were national integration and international communication. The CABE also recommended English as a compulsory subject to be taught both at the secondary and tertiary levels of education.

The recommendations of the three language formula were simplified and approved by the Chief Ministers’ Conference in 1961 which is still in force till today. They are:

- The regional language or the mother tongue of the individual child
- Hindi in the non-Hindi speaking areas and any other Indian language in Hindi speaking areas
- English or any other modern European language (Mohanraj 2014, p: 4).

Finally, after examining all these recommendations, the Education Commission (1964-66) advocated the three language formula as follows:

i. the mother tongue or the regional language

ii. the official language of the Union or the associate official language of the Union so long as it exists; and
a modern Indian or foreign language not covered under (i) and (ii) and other than that used as the medium of instruction (cited in Mohanraj 2014, p: 6).

Education being a states’ affair, different states have followed different plans for the teaching of English. In Andhra Pradesh, it English was introduced from class III. Other states along with Andhra Pradesh introduce the three language formula as the following:

- first language mother tongue/regional language from class I (e.g., Telugu, Urdu, Hindi ... etc)
- second language (Hindi, Sanskrit) from class VI
- third language (English) from class III

The NCF (National Curriculum Framework) 1975, 1986, 2000, 2005 and 2010 successively restated the earlier stand on Three Language Formula and resolved to implement it and it is in force till date.

2.4. Teaching of English in Andhra Pradesh

In Andhra Pradesh, on the basis of the three language formula recommended by the Education Commission (1964-66), the English language is introduced at primary level as one of the three languages, from class III onwards. However, in spite of all the efforts made by the educational authorities, proficiency in the English language among the learners is not up to the expected level at all levels of school and college education. Even students at the undergraduate level, after almost 11 years of exposure to English, are unable to read, write and speak in the language proficiently. With specific reference to speaking skills in English, the students’ proficiency is in fact abysmally low. There are several reasons behind students’ deficiency in speaking skills. Firstly, the
conventional methods of teaching English at the school level have been of no use in developing a certain amount of speaking skill or its sub-skills among students. Secondly, speaking skill has not been given the due attention it deserves by the syllabus designers and teachers, and most importantly in language assessment criteria in examinations. At primary level of education, more emphasis is given on developing students’ reading and writing skills rather than to listening and speaking skills. This is because teaching learning of English is examination oriented and in examinations students are required to reproduce in writing the content knowledge they have internalized or memorized from the textbooks. As teachers primarily focus on completing the syllabus and preparing students for examinations with the goal of enabling them to score good grades, focusing on students’ language skills development takes a back seat. Hence, we can understand how speaking skill is neglected in the syllabus as well by the teachers.

Majority of students from regional language medium background are found to be weak in English in general. The same learners from the regional medium schools are getting into the degree courses in English medium, but their language ability remains the same. Their communication skills are not up to the mark even after the completion of the degree courses. In spite of realizing the significance of communication skills for students, no priority is given to teaching of speaking skills in the prescribed undergraduate syllabus. This lapse in syllabus and in teaching practices in classroom causes great damage to students’ speaking skill and adversely affects their overall communication skills. Students realize their lack in speaking skill when they appear at interviews for employment or higher education.
2.5 Approaches to Language Learning and Teaching

It has been pointed out by Uso Juan et. al. (2006, p.3) that research studies carried out in the field of linguistics, psycholinguistics, cognitive psychology and sociolinguistics have established the complex nature of language learning. They have made it clear that linguistic, psychological and socio-cultural factors interact and play a significant role in language learning processes. In their view, communication is crucial in the process of learning a language and that the degree of success achieved in this process depends to a great extent on how meaning is negotiated in particular acts of communication. The main goal of these researchers was to develop learners’ communicative competence through the communicative approaches which requires a comprehensive understanding of L2 learning processes. Therefore, some of the established language teaching approaches should be taken into consideration which can serve as the background to language teaching and learning, such as the environmentalist, the innatist and the interactionist approaches.

2.5.1 The Environmentalist Approach

In the field of learning, environmentalist ideas were dominated up to 1960s. These ideas were rooted mainly in two schools of thought: in linguistics and psychology. The approach found out that many Indian languages had no written form and the only data available was on the oral form of the language. Based on the available data, many languages did not have the written form and that people learned to speak those languages merely by exposure and imitation, by listening and speaking. In the absence of orthographic representation or scripts, there was no way to read and write in the language.
According to Mitchell and Myles (1998), learning took place by imitating and practicing the structures by the learners and the teachers made it explicitly clear what was to be taught and focussed mainly on the structures presumably difficult for children.

2.5.2 The Innatist Approach
Chomsky (1957) was the pioneer of the innatist school of thought. According to him, any language is creative and open ended. Children can create and understand new sentences that they have never heard or learned before. (Cited in Esther Uso Juan, 2006:7). Chomsky contended that the creativity nature of a language implies that children have internalized an underlying system of rules. He claimed that children were innately predisposed to acquire the language of the community into which they were born because they were born with some kind of Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which enables the children to learn any grammar and structures. Hence, teachers should develop learner’s mental construction of the language system.

2.5.3 The Interactionist Approach
By the 1970s, researchers began to turn their focus to discourse or language chunks or language beyond the sentence. Halliday’s systemic grammar (1975) attempted to describe how the function of language determines the form of language. Halliday stated seven communicative functions which portrayed the child’s early communicative development which is related to social life. These functions were: instrumental, which involves the use of language to get things; regulatory, which involves the use of language to regulate people’s
behaviour; interactional, which involves the use of language to interact with other people; personal, which involves the use of language to express one’s feelings; heuristic, which involves the use of language to explore the outside world; imaginative, which involves the use of language to create an environment, and representational, which involves the use of language to communicate information. Halliday theorized that children learn to talk because it serves as a function for them.

Dell Hymes (1971) was a sociolinguist whose theory of language was influential to react against Chomsky’s view of language. He felt that Chomsky’s theory of „competence“ and „performance“ did not explain the aspects of language used in social practice and related issues concerning the appropriateness of an utterance in a particular situation. Therefore, he introduced the term „communicative competence“ which included not only the grammatical competence but also the rules of language in a social context.

The interactionists’ view maintained that both internal and external factors play a key role in the process of learning a language. Consequently, the interactionists believed that learning is dynamic, social and communicative in nature and that teachers should focus on developing learners’ communicative competence and their cognitive capacity in the language learning process.

The speaking skill very naturally falls in the broad area known as „communication“. One of the most common words of the twentieth century is „communication“ and has a high frequency in the field of language teaching and in many other fields as well. This is not only because of its frequent appearance in the research world but because of the essential meaning that
represents the gradual globalization of the present world. We cannot separate the speaking skill from its prime root that is communication.

### 2.5.4 Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a language teaching method which stresses the importance of learning to communicate information and ideas in the language. Richards (2001) points out that “CLT is a broad approach to teaching that resulted from a focus on communication as the organizing principle for teaching rather than a focus on mastery of the grammatical system of the language” (p.36). It emphasizes that learning a new language should be easier and enjoyable when learned through genuine communication. In this method, there would be no rigorous restrictions where the teacher has to stick to one particular teaching method.

Communication is a very important aspect of our lives. As a matter of fact, it is important for all forms of life as it takes place not only among human beings but also among other living beings. The word ‘communication’, is derived from the Latin words ‘communis’ and ‘communicare’, which means ‘common’ and ‘to share’ respectively (Jayashree Mohanraj:2001). Brown (2003) says that communication is a transfer of information from one person to another, whether it elicits confidence or not but the information transferred must be understandable to the receiver. According to Dutt et al. (2008), communication is the exchange of information or ideas. They also say that it is the art or act of expressing a message in a way that allows others to understand. Communication takes place when the sender

- has a message to be communicated, and
has a purpose to communicate the message.

The main purpose of any communication is to share and exchange of information. It involves a purpose, some function, and intelligibility between the communicators. Communication skills are considered to be the most important part of soft skills. In business as well as in many other professional fields, it is really very important to be able to communicate effectively with others, both verbally and in writing. While communicating with others, especially in speech, we need to ensure that we are understood. We need to combine our interactions with the required degree of politeness and clarity in speech while discussing difficult issues or delivering difficult messages in order to overcome challenging situations at workplace.

All communication in the world, whether intentional or unintentional, has some effect. This effect may not be always in the communicator’s favour or as desired by him or her. Communication that produces the desired effect or result is effective communication. Effective communication serves its purpose for which it was planned or designed. The purpose could be to generate action, provide information, create understanding or communicate a certain idea or view. Effective communication also ensures that message distortion does not take place during the communication process. Dutt (2008:28) explains that effective communication involves the following:

- Using appropriate voice and body language
- Understanding the situation and the people involved in it
- Understanding the message being communicated, and
- Responding appropriately

Communication takes place in different situations:
Human communication occurs through a variety of methods: speaking, telephones, television etc. Communication can occur instantaneously in closed, intimate settings or in large public forums. However, all forms of communication require the same basic elements: a speaker or sender of information, a message, and a recipient or an audience. The speaker and the recipient must also share a common language or means of understanding each other for communication to be successful.

2.6 Nature of Communication

All human beings in this world have more or less communicative needs and want to satisfy their needs. In the process of communication, one person passes on a message to another. The person who conveys the message is called the „sender“ and the person who gets the message is called the „receiver“. The sender puts the message in a code and uses a „medium“. The receiver decodes the message and understands it. On understanding the message the receiver shows some reaction. This is called „feedback“. On getting the feedback the original sender modifies it or sends a fresh message. Thus, a cycle is established where the sender and the receiver exchange role (Mohanraj, 2001:2). The diagram given below represents the process of communication:

![Process of Communication Diagram](image_url)
The speaker is the sender; the listener is the receiver; language is the medium; the response the listener provides is the feedback. Generally, there are two interlocutors in a conversation or communication and there is a flow of information from one to the other. However, the sender should take the utmost care to be clear and effective in communication (Mohanraj, 2001, p. 2).

It is said that man does not live by bread alone. People do not live in isolation. They live in a society and need to communicate with others. It is certain that the purposes of communication among people might be different but the final goal is to meet their needs or share information. Harmer (1991) lists some reasons for which speakers and listeners or writers and an audience want to be engaged in communication. He states that people want to say something instead of keeping silent or living in closets. Depending on the nature of intended communication, they select appropriate language forms from their infinite language repertoire.

Human communication is mainly divided into two categories such as non-verbal and verbal.

Non-verbal communication refers to the process of conveying messages through physical gestures and body language. Research shows that a lot of human communication takes place in the non-verbal form. Some of the non-verbal communication includes facial expression, physical gesture, body posture, eye contact, tone and pitch of voice. Verbal communication includes both the oral and the written mode of communication. Oral communication includes speeches, lectures, presentations, discussions, and aspects of interpersonal communication where as written communication is made through the medium of writing.
2.6.1 Problems in Communication

The communication process is not always simple and smooth. We often hear about a "communication gap". The problem or barrier to communication can occur at any point – the sender, the receiver or the medium. It can also occur due to some external factors like a technical problem or noise etc.

2.6.2 Barriers of Communication

Communication is a two-way process. It does not always happen in a smooth way. There are some factors that act as barriers in the way of communication. Some of these barriers are as follows:

- The sender may have a physical problem, for example, "a speech disability".
- The sender may not be clear in stating a concept.
- The language may not be suitable.
- The subject may be complex.
- The receiver may not be ready.
- The receiver may have a physical problem such as "hearing disability".
- The receiver may not have the required language skills.
- There may be cultural differences.
- There may be external noise that affects transmission/reception of message.
- The sender/receiver may have personal biases. (Mohanraj, 2001:3).

As mentioned earlier, the present study aims at developing the speaking skill of regional medium undergraduate learners through oral corrective feedback.
Thus, this study particularly focuses on oral communication only. All oral communication involves some speech acts or functions which make it meaningful and contextual. These speech acts can provide plenty of opportunities for students to improve their speaking skills. Some discussion on speech acts will make our understanding of oral communication more comprehensive.

2.7 Speech Acts

Every human being performs different activities in daily life to meet various needs. Speech act is one of the activities among them. We use speech for varied reasons and on most occasions for communication. A speech act is an utterance that serves a function in communication. According to Crystal (1985), a speech act is an act that a speaker performs when making an utterance. Functions like praising, promising, ordering, greeting, warning, scolding, inviting, welcoming, and congratulating are some of the speech acts. A speech act might contain just one word, as in „sorry”, to perform an apology, or several words or sentences such as “I’m sorry I forgot your birthday. It just slipped my mind”. Speech acts include real-life interactions and require not only knowledge of the language but also appropriate use of that language within a given culture.

According to John Austin, every use of language has a performative function. Austin’s (1962) very popular speech act theory divided all speech acts into three separate categories such as locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary.
2.7.1 Locutionary Act

Locutionary act is the actual utterance of a word corresponding to the verbal, syntactic and semantic aspects.

2.7.2 Illocutionary Act

Illocutionary act is the real, intended meaning of an utterance.

2.7.3 Perlocutionary Act

A perlocutionary act is its actual effect, such as persuading, convincing, scaring, enlightening, inspiring, or otherwise getting someone to do or realize something, whether intended or not.

The above-mentioned speech acts are very commonly used during the process of communication. In order to use various speech acts in communication, one needs to have the communicative competence in the language. The term “Communicative Competence” was coined and used for the first time by Dell Hymes.

2.8 Communicative Competence

The notion of communicative competence as proposed by Dell Hymes (cited in Goh and Burns, 2012), refers to a language user’s grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology and phonology as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. Hymes concept of communicative competence” was further expanded by many researchers. The following are some of the popular models on communicative competence:
2.9 Models of Communicative Competence

As said earlier in this chapter, there are some representative models of communicative competence. The following models of communicative competence are adapted from the Uso-Juan et al. (2006, p.6-18). Each model is discussed briefly in the following sections.

2.9.1 Noam Chomsky’s Model of Language Competence

According to Chomsky (1965), competence is the „ideal” language system that makes it possible for speakers to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences in their language, and to distinguish grammatical sentences from ungrammatical sentences by “grammatically irrelevant conditions” such as speech errors. The actual use of language in concrete situations is „performance”. Chomsky (1981) proclaims that „Language learning basically revolves around the idea that all humans have an internal capacity to acquire language and that ability to learn and analyze linguistic information is universal and innate which he named as LAD i.e. „Language Acquisition Device”.

2.9.2 Hymes’ Model of Communicative Competence

Hyme’s (1971) model of communicative competence is the direct criticism against Chomsky’s „linguistic theory”. He felt that Chomsky’s theoretical distinction between „competence” and „performance” did not make any reference to aspects of language use in social interaction and issues concerning appropriateness of an utterance in a particular situation. Therefore, he introduced the term „communicative competence”, which included not only Chomsky’s grammatical competence but also the rules of language use in
social context and the sociolinguistic norms or appropriacy. In this context, he
generalized four sectors as the framework for communicative competence. The
four sectors are as follows:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible.
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible.
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate.
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is done.

2.9.3 Canale and Swain’s Model of Communicative Competence

Canale and Swain’s (1980, 1983) version of communicative competence
presented an integrative theoretical framework consisting of four main
competencies: grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse
competence. Grammatical competence, the first component of the model,
refers to the knowledge of the language code. It includes knowledge of
vocabulary, rules of pronunciation and spelling, word formation and sentence
structure. Socio-linguistic competence refers to the knowledge of the socio-
cultural rules of use in a particular context. Strategic competence involves the
knowledge of how to use verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to
handle breakdowns in communication. Discourse competence, the last
component of the model, is concerned with the knowledge of achieving
coherence and cohesion in a spoken or written text. According to the authors,
learners’ knowledge of these four components is essential to prepare them to
face their communicative needs in the second language.

Canale and Swain also gave much importance to Hymes’ appropriateness
element in their model. They claimed that a communicative approach in
language teaching must integrate all the four types of knowledge mentioned above to facilitate learners’ overall oral communication proficiency.

2.9.4 Savignon’s Model of Communicative Competence

Savignon (1983) in her model, included the same four competencies already mentioned by Canale and Swain but adopted the shape of an inverted pyramid to show how an increase in only one component produces an increase in the overall level of communicative competence since all components are interrelated to each other. This assumption is supported by the fact that a measure of both sociolinguistic and strategic competencies, without enough grammatical competence, can contribute to increasing someone’s communicative competence.

2.9.5 Bachman’s Model of Communicative Competence

Bachman’s model (1987) is the extension of Canale and Swain’s model. He proposed the framework of “communicative language ability” (CLA), which includes three components such as language competence, strategic competence, and psychomotor skills. He proposed that in order to achieve a communicative goal, language competence is the implement which is utilized in the channel and mode offered by psycho-physiological mechanisms. Language competence is, in turn, divided into two components, organizational and pragmatic competence. On the one hand, organizational competence consists of grammatical competence and textual competence, which are comparable to Canale’s (1983) and Savignon’s (1983) concepts of grammatical and discourse competencies respectively. On the other hand, pragmatic competence is further divided into two subcomponents, namely
ilocutionary competence, which refers to the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, and sociolinguistic competence, which deals with the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context.

2.9.6 Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell’s Model of Communicative Competence

Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell (1995) proposed a model which was the mixture of all the previous models of competence but also was an extension of them. In this model of competence they presented a detailed model of communicative competence in which the authors not only incorporated pragmatic competence under the name of „actional competence“ and the receptive and productive skills within discourse competence but also highlighted the connection existing among these components together with the linguistic, socio-cultural and strategic competencies that go to make up such a model. They described that „discourse competence“, concerns the selection and sequencing of sentences to achieve a unified text, whether it is spoken or written. They explained the „linguistic competence“, which entails the basic elements of communication, such as sentence patterns, morphological inflections, phonological and orthographic systems, as well as lexical resources (i.e., formulaic constructions, collocations or phrases related to conversational structure). They described „socio-cultural competence“ as the speaker’s knowledge of how to express appropriate messages within the social and cultural context of communication in which they are produced.
According to them, the „actional competence”, involves the understanding of the speakers’ communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech act sets. All the four components are influenced by the last one, „strategic competence”, which is concerned with the knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them.

All the above models of communicative competence very clearly indicate that there are three stages of development in communicative competence that includes the „initiation”, the „complementing”, and the „application”.

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain’s (2000) Model of Communicative Competence

![Figure 3: Schematic representation of the proposed framework of communicative competence integrating the four language skills](image-url)
To achieve communicative competence, language is the prime medium which has to be practiced regularly as a skill by its learners in meaningful contexts which involves all the various components of communicative competence rather than being taught as a content subject.

2.10 Language as Skill

Right from the period of schooling, every child should learn and practice all the four language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing. By practicing the four language skills together, one gets command over the language in due course of time. This means that practicing a language is practicing the skill. In connection with this idea, many researchers have expressed their notions earlier.

Mohanraj et al. (2001, p:3) state that language has some similarities with living beings. It takes birth, grows, changes, and even dies and all human communication under normal conditions takes place through language.

Johnson, K. (1996, p.31) says that “Skills have a large perceptual motor component like playing tennis, driving a car, operating a lathe. Skills like these are relevant to higher level skills in general, of which language may be one”.

Welford (1968) claims:

“All skilled performance is mental in the sense that perception, decision, knowledge, and judgment are required; there are thus many features common to both sensory-motor and mental skills. Similarly, many skills which we may think of cognitive also have perceptual motor component. Language is a case in point because of all the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and
Writing entails motor actions (involving ears, lips tongues, glottises, eyes, hands, and various other parts of the body).” (Cited in Johnson 1996, p: 32).

Bygate (1987, p.3) states that “language is considered as a skill learning rather than knowing a theory. He further compares language learning with learning the driving of a car” and he continues that learning a language is in a way like doing a job.

The above references prove that language is nothing but a skill like many other human skills like driving a car, swimming, playing tennis or climbing a tree.

2.11 Language Skills (L S R W): An Overview

As stated in the previous section of this chapter, language must be treated as a skill subject but not as a content subject like most other subjects in the curriculum such as Physics, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology, and History etc. Any language learning means learning the four macro skills that are Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. Each skill is very important for its learners for having command over it. Among these four skills, listening and reading are called receptive/passive skills. It means that one receives messages through listening and reading. Speaking and writing skills are called productive/active skills in the sense that we produce the language to express our views, ideas, feelings, emotions, and needs etc. in two ways, in spoken mode and written mode.

2.11.1 Listening Skill

The ability to listen implies anticipating or grasping or receiving a speaker’s utterance by hearing. It is a stepping stone to reading ability in many ways. Both of these are called receptive skills. According to Doff (1988, p.99) and A.
L. Kohli (1999, p.171) listening can be divided into five different types. They are as follows:

1. Casual/passive listening
2. Comprehensive listening
3. Appreciative listening
4. Critical listening
5. Empathic listening

Besides these 5 types of it, listening skill is also divided into many sub-skills.

2.11.2 Reading Skill

Reading is also one of the receptive skills and is an essential component of language learning. One cannot consider him/herself fluent in a language unless he/she is able to read effectively in that language. Reading like other skills can only be developed through practice. The more one reads, the better he/she becomes as a reader. Reading helps to understand the ideas that the writer is trying to convey to his readers through words. There are different kinds of reading, based on the type of text and the readers” purpose. The different types of reading are as follows:

1. Intensive reading
2. Extensive reading
3. Silent reading
4. Loud reading
5. Skimming
6. Scanning
In addition to the types of it, reading skill is also divided into several sub-skills.

### 2.11.3 Writing Skill

Writing skill is the ability to express ideas in clear and grammatically correct English, using appropriate punctuation and cohesion devices, or in simple words organizing and presenting ideas coherently, by introducing, developing and concluding a topic or producing a clear and complete composition. Writing requires correct spelling of words with grammatical sentences put together or paragraphs coherently linked together. Speaking and writing are similar in the sense that we can express our ideas/views in two ways, through the spoken and written mode. Hence these two skills are called productive skills. Both these skills can be developed together in a programme of teaching.

There are different kinds of writing such as the following:

1. Descriptive writing
2. Narrative writing
3. Expository writing
4. Argumentative writing
5. Reflective writing
6. Persuasive writing
7. Interpretative writing

### 2.11.4 Speaking Skill

A learner is believed to „know” a language when she or he can successfully understand and communicate in that language. Languages have a written form and a spoken form. In the case of English, many of us get adequate exposure to the written form because of the textbooks we use, or the magazines or
newspapers we read or through the internet when we search for something or read about it. We also need to write answers to examination questions, or write letters or prepare reports, and get adequate practice in writing. However, many learners do not have adequate opportunities to speak the language they are learning. As a result, they may use the language suitable for writing, rather than for speaking. Spoken language is different from written language and learners should try to be equally comfortable in using both spoken and written varieties.

2.12 Significance of Speaking Skill

We need to speak for different purposes according to our needs in our daily life. We use the skill of speaking for the following purposes: (1) communicating with others, (2) expressing our ideas/views, (3) solving problems, (4) getting a good job, (5) facing an interview, (6) giving lectures/talks, and (7) giving presentations.

Throughout the world today and especially in developing countries, there is a great need for people to speak English well. In many countries, secondary and higher education is taught in English only. Companies and organizations want staff who can speak English in order to communicate in the international market. Students who can speak English well may have a greater chance of further education, of finding employment and gaining promotion. So, it is important for students to learn to speak English well and for teachers to know how to teach speaking well. Many teachers worldwide have to teach mainly vocabulary and grammar because these aspects of the language are tested in examinations. This means that speaking is a neglected language skill in many
classrooms. However, organizing lessons to practise the speaking skill of English can be a big challenge for both teachers and students. In spite of the importance given to speaking now, the teaching of the speaking skill has been neglected in the syllabus and English teachers have never given enough importance to the speaking skill in accordance with the needs of the students. This neglect of speaking skill is resulting in a situation where many students are passing out from colleges and universities every year without possessing the required amount of the oral communication skills. Students are proficient enough in reading and writing skills of the language only because of the continuous practice and exposure to them but not proficient enough in listening and speaking skills. It is evident that in today’s globalized world, students need oral communication skills for many different purposes in addition to possessing written communication skills to be successful in every walk of life. In addition to the qualifications required for most of the jobs either in public or private sector today, oral communication skills have become very necessary to face interviews and it has also become the preliminary aspect of that process.

Oral communication skills are not only essential for the interviews but they are also required to conduct seminars, group discussions, and presentations to further one’s career. This awareness and the present day requirements have increased the responsibility of the language teachers in developing the students’ oral communication skills. Students should get proper training and practice in speaking skills and then only they can express themselves and learn how to follow the social and cultural norms of the society in various contexts. Hence, teachers of English should create a classroom environment where
students have real-life simulated communication, meaningful situations, authentic activities and also a student-friendly atmosphere that promotes speaking skill in a non-threatening atmosphere. At this juncture, most of the students especially from the regional medium background are unable to speak or communicate in English because of lack of opportunities, lack of environment, and lack of practice etc. Therefore, those who are studying in the regional medium (Telugu), need regular practice for developing their speaking skills.

2.13 Spoken Language and Written Language

A common notion about the speech is that it is less systematic or structured and less organized than writing. Because of its apparent „formlessness”, it is tended to be seen as less open to description than the written language. Halliday (1985) argues that both modes of communication are structured and organized but in different ways. Speech is not formless, but by its very nature, is “low in content”, (p.77). Due to being unplanned and spontaneous spoken English contains non-fluency features e.g. pause fillers such as „ah”, „um”, and „er”, utterances those have no meaning by themselves but are used to fill pauses in the conversation or discussion. While written language is complex in terms of lexical density, speech is complex in the sense that clauses are generally woven together often by conjunctions that link one clause with another. In written language, complex (main clause + subordinate clause/s) and compound (multiple main clauses, which are combined together with conjunctions) sentences are common. Written sentences also tend to be longer but in spoken language, sentences are usually simple and shorter. Standard
grammar is usually used in written English but in spoken English, non-standard grammar is often used: irregular subject-verb agreement, ellipsis of the auxiliary, fragmented sentences; slips of tongue are very common in speaking. Written English usually uses more jargon, while spoken English uses more slang. This is because written English is more formal than spoken. In spoken communication, besides the words, context cues, gestures, tone, eye contact and body language play a vital role but written English lacks all these aspects.

Repetition and self-correction are very common in spoken English. Overlaps and interruption are also common, as speech is usually in dialogue form. The combination of loosely organized syntax, the use of interactive expressions like „and”, „well”, „oh”, „uhuh”, the number of non-specific words and phrases contribute to the general impression that information is packed very much less densely in spoken language. We get clues while speaking but in writing, it does not happen.

Brown and Yule (1983, p.7) mentioned a major difference between spoken language and written language, which is the density of packing of information by using heavily premodified noun phrases with accompanying post-modification and complex subordinating syntax. They further added that simpler style is the characteristic of spoken language which packs in less dense information and less highly structured information. There are several reasons to suppose that such language is a great deal easier to understand in the spoken mode than in the written mode.

Halliday (1989) (cited in Goh and Burns 2012), explained: “Speech describes things that are going on in the world as they happen and so relies on words to
do with action processes; writing gives language a “sort of metaphorical quality” by using a process of nominalization, or turning verbs into nouns.

Having observed more closely at the linguistic features of speech and writing, Goh and Burns (2012, p.86) mentioned some noticeable differences between spoken language and written language as presented in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spoken language</th>
<th>Written language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The lower number of content words/higher number of function words.</td>
<td>A higher number of content words/lower number of function words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clauses linked by conjunctions (and, but, so, etc).</td>
<td>Clauses linked by subordination (who, which, when, etc).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High use of personal pronouns (I, you, we)</td>
<td>Low use of personal pronouns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit references to the surrounding context (over there, it, etc).</td>
<td>Explicit references within the context (in the corner, the desk, etc).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship aspects emphasized (interpersonal foregrounded).</td>
<td>Content aspects emphasized (information foregrounded).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relies more on verbs to carry meaning.</td>
<td>Relies more on nouns to carry meaning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1: Differences between Spoken language and Written language
2.14 Speaking as a Concept

Speaking is a productive skill like writing. It involves ‘expressing ideas through meaningful spoken utterances’. The mastery of speaking skills in English is the main concern for many second and foreign language learners. Learners often evaluate their success in language learning on the basis of their spoken fluency because the speaking ability gives a quick impression of a person whether s/he is a competent user of English or not. The need for mastery of speaking skill in English has also been dramatically increased due to its strengthening position as an international language. The ability to speak in English has also become inevitable for learners who want to secure better employment globally and to pursue higher education.

According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), speaking skill is the most complex of the four language skills. They also consider speaking skill as the most challenging of the four skills because it involves a complex process. In fact, speaking is a multifaceted construct. Thornbury and Slade (2006, p.5) point out that “this complexity derives from speaking being so ubiquitous in our daily language usage”. In other words, “speaking is so intertwined with daily interactions that it is difficult to define because of its complex nature”.

The act of speaking involves one’s consciousness of the grammatical, lexical and cultural aspects of the language. Many language experts and researchers across the world have expressed different opinions regarding speaking skill. Therefore, it becomes harder to compile a concise yet comprehensive definition of speaking. The best way to define speaking is by its features, its functions, and its conditions.
Thornbury and Slade (2006, p.17) have observed that viewing from its features, speaking could be defined as “a social, multi-sensory speech event, whose topic is unpredictable. Speaking is social in the sense that it establishes rapport and mutual agreement, maintains and modifies social identity, and involves interpersonal skills”. This social element is expressed through feelings, attitudes, wishes, opinions, and judgments.

“Speaking is also a multi-sensory activity because it involves paralinguistic features such as eye-contact, facial expressions, body language, tempo, pauses, voice quality, and pitch variation which affect conversational flow” (Thornbury, 2005, p.9). It seems that culture plays an integral part in how speaking is constructed, which has implications for how English speaking is taught and learned.

Nunan (1999, p.228), offered other definition of speaking based on its function: speaking is “a way to verbally communicate for mostly interpersonal and somewhat transactional purposes”. Transactional language is for service encounters like ordering for things, booking travel tickets etc. So, the distinction between interaction and transactional language seems to be used for language learning awareness.

Speaking is also defined based on its condition: “Speaking usually happens when people engage in face-to-face interaction which makes it highly interactional and social” (Van Lier, 1989, p.492). Thornbury and Slade (2006, p.23) point out that “computer-mediated communication shares many conversational characteristics where face-to-face may not be the only way to have a conversation”.
The following are some of the popular definitions of speaking from various sources:

In Oxford Advanced Dictionary, the definition of speaking is “to express or communicate opinions, feelings, ideas, to state views etc, by talking. It involves the speaker in two stages - psychological (articulation) and physical (acoustic)”.

Noah Webster’s New Twentieth Century Dictionary presents a different meaning of speaking:

a. To tell, to say, to make known, to declare, to announce
b. To proclaim, to celebrate
c. To use or to be able to use a given language in speaking
d. To address.

Anderson quotes the definition of Ram:

“Speaking is the blending of ... thought-mental process: Language the moulding of thoughts, and feeling into words; voice carrying thoughts and words through vocal sounds to someone else; action bodily bearing and respond and listening. Speech is designed to transmit belief, emotion or attitude on the part of the speaker and our chief reason for speaking is to arouse corresponding ideas, meanings, and action in others. Spoken language consists of short, fragmentary utterances, in a range of pronunciations. There it is sometimes called a code; ...” is often a great deal of repetition and overlap between one speaker and another and speakers tend to use non-specific references like “thing” and “this” and fillers like “well” “oh” and “uhuh”. These help to make speech less dense conceptually than expository prose. (Revathy, 1992, p: 95).
Ur (1996, p.120) defines speaking as the most important skill since people who know a language are referred to as “the speakers” of that language. In addition, speaking is the ability that includes all other kinds of knowing. Speaking, “the ethnography speaking” refers to the use of language in its entire mode and including those manifestations and derivations of language for which speaking can be a surrogate term (Hymes, 1974, p.45). According to Chaney (1998, p.13), speaking is “the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts”. Speaking is the most natural way to express one’s own ideas, thoughts, feelings, emotions, and insights. According to Burns & Joyce (1997), “Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information”. Theodore Huebner (1960, p.5) claims that “language is essentially speech, and speech is basically communication by sounds”. According to him, speaking is a skill used by someone in daily life communication whether at school or outside. This skill is acquired much by repetition, is primarily a neuromuscular process and not an intellectual process. It consists of competence in sending and receiving messages.

From the above definition, it can be understood that speaking is to express ideas, opinions, or feelings to others by using words or sounds of articulation in order to inform, to persuade, and entertain and can be learned by using some teaching-learning methodologies.

Wells (1981, p.24) points out that “interactional skills can successfully be developed through interaction itself, even if one lacks linguistic maturity”. Bygate (1987) also explains the interactional nature of spoken English. He
draws a useful distinction between „motor-perceptive skills” and „interactional skills”. According to him, the motor-perceptive skills are those which are concerned with correctly using the sounds and structures of the language. By the later, he refers to the skills which involve the use of motor-perceptive skills. Some activities develop motor-perceptive skills. These activities are model dialogues, pattern practice, and oral drills. He goes on to say that “learners need to develop skills in the management of interaction and also in the negotiation of meaning. He points out that the management of interaction “involves such things as knowing when and how to take the floor, when to introduce a topic or change the subject, how to invite someone else to speak, how to keep a conversation going, when and how to terminate the conversation and so on. Negotiation of meaning refers to the skill of making the person you are speaking to has correctly understood you and that you and that you have correctly understood them ...” (cited in Nunan, 1991, p.30).

Nunan (1991, p.32) also applies to speaking the „the bottom-up” and the „top-down” distinction. The bottom-up approach starts with the smallest units of language such as individual sounds, and proceed to a higher level of the words, sentences, and discourse. The top-down approach starts with the larger chunks of language. He further suggests what successful oral communication involves developing the following points:

- the ability to articulate phonological features for the language comprehensibly;
- mastery of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns;
- an acceptable degree of fluency;
- transactional and interpersonal skills;
- skills in the management of interaction;
• skills in the negotiation of meaning;
• conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers);
• skills in knowing about and negotiating purposes for conversations; and
• using appropriate conversational formulae and fillers.

According to Kumaravadivelu (2006), a successful communication needs grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence and he cites the acronym used on „SPEAKING” by Hymes. This gives a clear idea about what actually the speaking skill is and what are its requirements. Each letter in SPEAKING refers to the following:

**Setting** refers to the place and time in which the communicative event takes place.

**Participants** refer to speakers and hearers and their role relationships.

**Ends** refer to the stated or unstated objective the participants wish to accomplish.

**Act sequence** refers to the form, content, and sequence of utterances.

**Key** refers to the manner and tone (serious, sarcastic, etc.) of the utterances.

**Instrumentalities** refer to the channel (oral or written) and the code (formal or informal).

**Norms** refer to the convention of interaction and interpretation based on shared knowledge.

**Genre** refers to categories of communication such as lecture, report, essay, poem, and so forth.
2.14.1 Sub-Skills of Speaking

The sub-skills of speaking are many and like there are different definitions and opinions on speaking skills, there are also several different opinions on sub-skills of speaking according to linguists and language experts. Nagarajan (2008) has listed out the sub-skills of speaking. They are the following:

- Producing meaningful sounds
- Producing sounds in meaningful chunks
- Producing language in syntactically acceptable patterns forms
- Producing language using proper stress, rhythm, and intonation
- Conveying information and
- Formulating appropriate response

The definitions of speaking are taken from different sources, and its complete list of sub-skills is not mentioned clearly by anyone till date. However, there are many language experts, linguists, and researchers who have mentioned them differently according to their point of view and research in the language. Moreover, the list covers more than 20 sub-skills of speaking.

As mentioned earlier that speaking is a complex skill comparing with the other language skills, it is very important for the speaker to know all the sub-skills. Then only it will be comfortable for the speaker of that particular language to communicate effectively. It needs much attention and comprehension on the part of the speaker.

Douglas Brown (2000, p.271) asserts that “in teaching oral communication, we do not limit students” attention to the whole picture, even though that whole picture is important. We also help students to see pieces – right down to the small parts of the language that make up the whole. Just as you would instruct
a novice artist in composition, the effects of colour hues, shading, and brushing stroke techniques, so language students need to be shown the details of how to convey and negotiate the ever elusive meanings of language”.

According to Fulcher (2003), “the comprehensive skill of speaking is organization or involvement of smaller sub-skills”. A concrete grip on the sub-skills or micro-skills is necessary in order to achieve mastery over speaking a language.

According to Brown (2004), there are some other skills in addition to the speaking skill and the sub-skills which are stated as macro skills and micro skills of speaking. Brown (2002, p.272) lists 16 items for macro and micro skills of oral communication.

2.14.2 Macro Skills of Speaking

Macro skills of speaking in English seem to be more complex than the Micro Skills. Some of the macro skills are listed below:

1. Appropriate accomplishing of communicative function according to situations, participants, and goals.

2. Using appropriate styles, registers, implicatures, redundancies, pragmatic conventions and convention of rules, floor-keeping and yielding, interrupting, and other sociolinguistic features in face-to-face conversation.

3. Conveying links and connection between events communicate such relations as focal and peripheral ideas, events and feeling, supporting ideas, new information and given information, generalization, and exemplification.

4. Using facial information, kinesis, body language and other non-verbal cues along with verbal language to convey meanings.
5. Develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, providing context for interpreting the meaning words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well one’s interlocutors is understanding other participant in conversation.

2.14.3 Micro Skills of Speaking

1. Producing chunks of language of different lengths.

2. Orally producing difference among the English phonemes and allophonic variants.

3. Producing English stress pattern, words in stressed and unstressed position, rhythmic structure, and intonation contours.

4. Producing reduced forms of words and phrases.

5. Using an adequate number of lexical units (words) in order to accomplish pragmatic purposes.

6. Producing fluent speech at different rates of delivery.

7. Monitoring one’s own oral production and using various strategies, devices, pauses, fillers, self-correction and back-tracking to enhance the clarity of the message.

8. Using grammatical word classes (noun, verb etc.), the system (e.g. tense agreement, pluralization), word order, pattern, rules, and elliptical forms.

9. Producing speech in natural constituents in appropriate phrases, pause groups, breath groups, and sentences.

10. Expressing a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.

From the above list, it can be concluded that sub-skills of speaking include the following aspects:

- Fluency
- Accuracy (Grammatical correctness, vocabulary)
- Ability to produce chunks of language
- Appropriateness
- Understanding elliptical forms
- Use of cohesive devices
- Strategies

Learning a skill is not merely learning the sub-skills linearly, but learning it as a whole which includes all its major components. Above all, to learn any skill, one should know its purpose beforehand. It gives a comprehensive idea to its learners what should be learned first and followed later. It also gives an idea about the effective methods/techniques to learn it.

Given the complexity of the skill of speaking, there are many activities/techniques proposed by many researchers that help the learners to develop their speaking skills. Some of the activities that promote speaking are discussed in the following sections.

To sum up, speaking is a specific spoken discourse that is primarily social and engaged in for social purposes and in social contexts. It entails three areas of knowledge (Burnkart, 1998). First, the mechanical elements of language (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary), which allow the speaker to use the right words in the correct sequence and appropriate pronunciation. Second, the speaking functions (transaction and interaction), which enable the speaker to
know when the clarity of the message is needed (as in carrying out the transaction or in exchanging of information) and when a deep understanding is not necessary (as in the development of relations). Third, the socio-cultural norms (such as turn-taking, the rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants) which enable an individual to realize the conversational situation, who he is talking to, and what the purpose of speaking is. By understanding these elements, an individual will know when he takes a turn to speak and when to listen, how quickly he should speak, and how long he should maintain pause.

2.15 Techniques to Promote Speaking Skill

Communicative language teaching is mainly based on real-life situations that involve the students to take part and to practice oral skills. Interaction is the key role in developing the communication skills. Therefore teachers have to provide opportunities to the learners to interact among themselves in meaningful contexts. To provide opportunities to the learners, teachers should use the activities that promote speaking. These techniques are presented by Kayi (2006). The activities that promote speaking are discussed briefly in the following.

Some of the techniques Kayi mentioned in the article are Discussions, Information Gap, Brainstorming, Story Telling, Interviews, Story Completion, Simulations, Reporting, Playing Cards, Picture Narrating, Picture Describing, Finding the Difference, and Role Playing. The activities that promote speaking are discussed each separately in the following section.
2.15.1 Discussion

A discussion can be held for various reasons. The students may aim to arrive at a conclusion, share ideas about an event, or find solutions in their discussion groups. Before the discussion, it is essential that the purpose of the discussion activity is set by the teacher. In this way, the discussion points are relevant to this purpose, so that students do not spend their time chatting with each other about irrelevant things. For this purpose, the teacher has to form groups of students, preferably four or five in each group and provide a debatable issue. Then each group works on their topic for a given time period and presents their opinions to the class. It is essential that the opportunities for speaking should be equally given among group members. In the end, the class decides on the winning group who defended the idea in the best way. This activity fosters critical thinking and quick decision making, and students learn how to express and justify themselves in polite ways while discussing with others. For efficient group discussions, it is always better not to form large groups, because shy students may avoid contributing to large groups. The group members can be either assigned by the teacher or the students may determine it by themselves, but groups should be rearranged in every discussion activity so that students can work with various people and learn to be open to different ideas. Lastly, in class or group discussions, whatever the aim is, the students should always be encouraged to ask questions, paraphrase ideas, express support, check for clarification, and so on.

2.15.2 Information Gap

In this activity, students are supposed to be working in pairs. One student will have the information that other partner does not have and the partners will
share their information. Information gap activities serve many purposes such as solving a problem or collecting information. Also, each partner plays an important role because the task cannot be completed if the partners do not provide the information the others need. These activities are effective because everybody has the opportunity to talk extensively in the target language.

2.15.3 Brainstorming
On a given topic, students can produce ideas in a limited time. Depending on the context, either individual or group, brainstorming is effective and learners generate ideas quickly and freely. The good characteristic of brainstorming is that the students are not criticized for their ideas and so students will be open to sharing new ideas.

2.15.4 Storytelling
Students can briefly summarize a tale or story they heard from somebody beforehand, or they may create their own stories to tell their classmates. Storytelling fosters creative thinking. It also helps students express ideas in the format of beginning, development, and ending, including the characters and setting. Students also can tell riddles or jokes. For instance, at the very beginning of each class session, the teacher may call a few students to tell short riddles or jokes as an opening. In this way, not only will the teacher address students’ speaking ability, but also the attention of the class.
2.15.5 Interviews

Students can conduct interviews on selected topics with various people. It is a good idea that the teacher provides a rubric to students so that they know what type of questions they can ask or what path to follow, but students should prepare their own interview questions. Conducting interviews with people give students a chance to practice their speaking ability not only in class but also outside and helps them becoming socialized. After the interviews, each student can present his or her study to the class. Moreover, students can interview each other and introduce his or her partner to the class.

2.15.6 Story Completion

This is a very enjoyable, whole-class, free-speaking activity, for which students sit in a circle. For this activity, a teacher starts to tell a story, but after a few sentences, he or she stops narrating. Then, each student starts to narrate from the point where the previous one stopped. Each student is supposed to add from four to ten sentences. Students can add new characters, events, descriptions and so on.

2.15.7 Simulations

Simulations are very similar to role-plays but what makes simulations different than role plays is that they are more elaborate. In simulations, students can bring items to the class to create a realistic environment. For instance, if a student is acting as a singer, s/he brings a microphone to sing and so on. These are very interesting and entertaining and motivate the students.
2.15.8 Reporting

In this activity, students are asked to read a newspaper or magazine before coming to the class and they report to their friends what they find as the most interesting news. Students can also talk about whether they have experienced anything worth telling their friends in their daily lives before class.

2.15.9 Playing Cards

In this game, students should form groups of four. Each group will represent a topic. For instance:

- **Diamonds:** Earning money
- **Hearts:** Love and relationships
- **Spades:** An unforgettable memory
- **Clubs:** Best teacher

Each student in a group will choose a card. Then, each student will write 4-5 questions about that topic to ask the other people in the group. For example:

If the topic “Diamonds: Earning Money” is selected, here are some possible questions:

- Is money important in your life? Why?
- What is the easiest way of earning money?
- What do you think about the lottery?

However, the teacher should state at the very beginning of the activity that students are not allowed to prepare yes-no questions, because by saying yes or no students get little practice in spoken language production. Rather, students ask open-ended questions to each other so that they reply in complete sentences.
2.15.10 Picture Narrating

This activity is based on several sequential pictures. Students are asked to tell the story taking place in the sequential pictures by paying attention to the criteria provided by the teacher as a rubric. Rubrics can include the vocabulary or structures they need to use while narrating.

2.15.11 Picture Describing

Another way to make use of pictures in a speaking activity is to give students just one picture and having them describe what it is in the picture. For this activity, students can form groups and each group is given a different picture. Students discuss the picture with their groups, and then a spokesperson for each group describes the picture to the whole class. This activity fosters the creativity and imagination of the learners as well as their public speaking skills.

2.15.12 Find the Difference

For this activity, students can work in pairs and each couple is given two different pictures, for example, a picture of boys playing football and another picture of girls playing tennis. Students in pairs discuss the similarities and/or differences in the pictures.

2.15.13 Role Playing

One other way of getting students to speak is role-playing. Students pretend they are in various social contexts and have a variety of social roles. In role-play activities, the teacher gives information to the learners such as who they
are and what they think or feel. Thus, the teacher can tell the student that “You are David, you go to the doctor and tell him what happened last night, and get medicine for your illness”. For this activity, the teacher has to form pairs or groups for enacting the given roles.

These are the various techniques that promote speaking skill.

As mentioned earlier that the study adopts the oral corrective feedback to promote the speaking skill, which is a very effective one among the others. A detailed description is given of the oral corrective feedback in the following section.

2.16 Importance of Spoken English

It is known that language is primarily speech. Spoken English enables us to express our views, ideas and our needs with others for obtaining information and for solving many problems. In our day to day life, we need to know many things especially information regarding many things. Today we live in a world that is highly developed technically and scientifically, so we need much knowledge and have better communication skills to conduct our life successfully. No one can live his/her own life in this world without the support of the others. So, we need the support of the society/or people who live around us. It is evident for all the humans that it is essential to communicate for all the needs. Hence, we need a language to communicate effectively and it must be intelligible to all. Everyone has known the mother tongue but it is insufficient to communicate globally. Then we need a second language that will help us to get anything we need. In this case, English is the only language which can serve all our needs such as transport, education, entertainment, business,
tourism, international relations among the countries and science and technology etc., as it has acquired the position of the global language. Not only is English required for the above things, but also for securing better employment and better opportunities. English has become compulsory for education and employment in the current world. It is perhaps not possible to have a successful life in every respect without learning to communicate in English. This need for communicating in English is felt all the more when students reach the tertiary level in their education.

2.17 Why Teaching Speaking?

It is observed and believed that a great deal of speaking is done in many different situations in the classroom and the activities provide opportunities for learners to talk but very little teaching of speaking skills is taking place. In most of the learning situations, the teaching of speaking is neglected altogether because the examinations focus only on written language. Teachers should know that they should help their learners develop their speaking abilities and therefore, they should be keen to know how they can teach speaking better. Goh and Burns (2012) observed some common responses in relation to why speaking skills should be taught:

- All language learners should be able to converse well with other speakers of the language.
- Students can read and write well in English, but they are poor at speaking and listening.
- Learners, who memorize words from their dictionaries, cannot speak or listen in English.
• Students do not like talking to their classmates because they cannot correct each other’s mistake; they want the teacher to point out their mistakes to them.
• Many students speak a non-standard form of the language and cannot communicate in formal situations.
• Many students say that they practice a lot on their own (by listening recordings they hear), but when they have to speak to native speakers, they fail terribly.
• Some students are poor speakers.
• Many of the students are too afraid to talk in class. They are shy and lack confidence.
• Some students sound very “bookish” when they speak – it is as if they are reading from a book.
• Many students love to speak English, but they make a lot of grammatical mistakes.
• Students speak a colloquial and non-standard type of English. The teacher needs to teach them how to speak Standard English for formal communication.
• While students are quite competent in grammar and vocabulary, one glaring gap remains in their general ability to present or communicate well. (p. 1-2).

2.18 Theoretical Foundations for the Study

The present study is rooted in some of the second language theories such as Interaction Hypothesis, Input Hypothesis, Output Hypothesis and Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

2.19 History of Interaction Hypothesis

The first studies on interaction approach started in the late 1970’s and early 1980’s by two distinguished researchers such as Evelyn Hatch and Michael
Long. Hatch (1978, p: 63) stated that „language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations, out of learning how to communicate”.

Long (198) (Cited in Mackey, 2012:5) hypothesized that „participation in conversation with native speakers, made possible through modification of interaction, is the necessary and sufficient condition for second language acquisition”.

2.19.1 Interaction Hypothesis

Interaction research gained momentum at the beginning of the 20th century especially in the field of SLA. Further, the research was widened into a framework for understanding a wide variety of interactional factors and processes in developing the second language (L2). According to Long (1996), „interaction hypothesis is a theory of SLA which states the development of language proficiency and is promoted by face-to-face interaction and communication”. This framework includes the well-known constructs which were associated with this approach, such as input, output, and corrective feedback in the social context of learning. Ramirez, (2005, p: 293) opined that this is „the model that dominates current SLA research and Jordan (2005, p: 220) viewed it as „an originally well-formulated hypothesis that is upgraded in the light of criticism and developments in the field”. Byrnes (2005:296) referred to this model as „the dominant interactionist paradigm” (Cited in Mackey 2012, p: 3). Many researchers (Lyster and Saito, 2010; Mackey and Goo, 2007; Russell and Spada, 2006) claim that interaction hypothesis facilitates L2 learning.
Mackey (2012, p: 3) examined with more than 100 empirical studies and five comprehensive data-analyses the validity of the interaction approach (Keck, Iberri-Shea, Tracy Ventura and Wa-Mbaleka 2006; Li 2010; Lyster and Saito 2010; Mackey and Goo 2007, Russell and Spada 2006). He found that there is a solid foundation of support for claims that conversational interactions and specific interactional processes benefit L2 learning.

2.19.2 Zone of Proximal Development

„Zone of Proximal Development” (ZPD) was a concept in the field of second language acquisition developed by Vygotsky during the late 1920s. In the book „Mind in Society“ (1978), Vygotsky defined the ZPD as:

“... the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peer...” (p: 86).

The definition clearly indicates that an individual’s development in learning a language would be more profitable to a learner when it is under the supervision of an adult or a peer who has more knowledge than him in a particular subject or topic. Children try to solve the problems they encounter in learning something but face difficulty to solve such problems independently as they do not have adequate maturity or knowledge but would solve the problem with the assistance of someone who may be an adult or a peer with supplementary knowledge in that particular subject. In Robert and Aaron’s (1987, p: 4) view, it can be understood that learning can be transferred from a more expert teacher to a less expert learner. Further, Langford (2005) explains
the strong argument of Vygotsky was that “teaching needs to be delivered to
the ZPD for every child, to be maximally effective” (p: 133).

With regard to the present study, the principle of ZPD is relatively close where
students with less knowledge in a particular aspect, would be guided by the
teacher with expertise, who will assist them to solve their problems. The
main aim of the present study is to help the learners who are poor in speaking
skills by offering oral corrective feedback from the teacher-researcher. In this
context, the principle of ZPD is directly employed in this study to teach the
speaking skills to the learners under the guidance of the researcher.

2.19.3 Input Hypothesis

In the field of second language acquisition, the input is considered as an
essential basic component in the process of language learning. It is often
characterized as the indispensable, or essential or \textit{sine qua non} of language
acquisition. (Mackey 2012, p: 9).

Krashen (1985) defined comprehensible input as that “bit of language that is
heard or read and that is slightly ahead of a learner’s current state of
grammatical knowledge ",i” and the next state as ",i+1” (p.2). In Krashen’s view,
the input hypothesis is central to all of the acquisition and also has
implications for the classroom:

(a) Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause. Speech cannot be taught
directly but “emerges” on its own as a result of building competence via
comprehensible input.

(b) If input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is
automatically provided. The language teacher need not attempt deliberately to
teach the next structure along the natural order – it will be provided in just the right quantities and automatically reviewed if the student receives a sufficient amount of comprehensive input. (p.2).

Therefore, the role of the teacher is to ensure that students receive comprehensible input.

According to Mackey, A (2012, p: 9) “Input refers to the language that is available to a learner through any medium”. He further explains that in all approaches to SLA, the input is recognized as an essential basic component in the learning process. It is often characterized as the *sine qua non* of language acquisition. Within the interaction approach, researchers have sought to characterize the input to which learners are exposed and have found that utterances directed at individuals who are less competent in a given language may involve adjustments in all areas, including phonological, syntactic, and lexical choices. (p: 9).

Krashen’s (1978) the Input Hypothesis recommended that SLA was facilitated by the exposure to the adequate amount of comprehensible input. Further, many studies examined the interactional modification between NS and NNS (native speakers and non-native speakers). Long (1983a), (in Mackey, 2012:6) pointed out a variety of conversational adjustments to avoid breakdowns in communication and repair discourse when necessary, such as accepting unintentional topic switches, checking comprehension, requesting clarification, tolerating ambiguity, using a slow pace, stressing key words, and repeating utterances.

Meanwhile, some studies (Swain, 1985; R. Ellis, 1995 Shehadeh, 2002; Izumi, 2002; McDonough, and Mackey, 2006) have opined that in spite of its
requirement in second language acquisition, the comprehensible input is considered insufficient. At this juncture, Swain’s (1985) “output hypothesis” has gained more attention.

2.19.4 Output Hypothesis

Based on the data collected from a Canadian French immersion program, Swain (1985) introduced the „Comprehensible Output Hypothesis“ as a parallel theory to Krashen’s „Input Hypothesis“. Swain (1985) found that learners who exhibited near-native-like L2 comprehension did not exhibit near-native-like L2 production. These findings further led Swain to propose the „comprehensible output“. Swain suggests that learners need to know their errors in their language production after receiving the comprehensible input in order to advance second language development. According to Swain (1985, p: 249), comprehensible output refers to the need for a learner to be “pushed towards the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but it is conveyed precisely, coherently, and appropriately”. This clearly indicates that the learners should be conveyed their linguistic errors after they produce language for development of language learning.

According to Gass (2003, p: 326), output has generally been seen not as a way of creating knowledge but as a way of practicing already existing knowledge. In other words, output has traditionally been viewed as a way of practicing what has previously been learned. Swain (1985) argued that learners’ production of modified output is necessary for second language mastery and may result from ample of opportunities for output and the provision of consistent feedback from teachers and peers (p.131). Pica (1988), Holliday,
Lewis, and Morgenthaler (1989) found that such modified output occurred most often when native speakers signaled an explicit need for clarification rather than provided a recast for confirmation. Some of the earliest research works on error treatment led researchers such as Allwright (1975), Corder (1967), Hendrickson (1978) and Vigil and Oller (1976) to propose that pushing learners in their output, rather than providing them with correct forms, could benefit their interlanguage development. Swain (1995, p: 128) offered a further clarification of the concept. She claimed that “output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, non-deterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. The output thus would seem to have a potentially significant role in the development of syntax and morphology.

Gass and Selinker (2008, p: 327-328) consider four possible ways that output may provide learners with important language-learning functions:

(a) receiving crucial feedback for the verifications of these hypotheses
(b) testing hypotheses about the structures and meanings of the target language
(c) developing automaticity in interlanguage production and
(d) forcing a shift from more meaning-based processing of the second language to a more syntactic mode.

In this regard, some of the prominent research studies (Mackey and Goo, 23007; Tracy-Ventura and Wa-Mbalaka, 2006; Izumi and Bigelow, 2000; Bigelow, Fuziwara and Fearnow, 1999) have found output to be beneficial on second language acquisition. Though output is considered for successful
second language learning, it is also necessary to make a distinction between the notions of „modified output” and „comprehensible output”.

In the 1970’s some of the researchers (Hatch 1978; Wagner –Gough 1975) began to probe from a different dimension of language learning beyond the input and output hypotheses. They expressed a doubt that conversations may impact language learning. This idea has propelled many researchers to find out the possibility of language learning through conversations. Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975) (cited in Mackey, 2012) suggested that “we should not neglect the relationship between the language and conversation in the learning process”. Further, they proposed that „conversational interaction provided opportunities for learners to hear input and produce output (p: 297). The main objective of their proposal was that learners should practice the linguistic form in conversation as the interactive nature of communication. And since there is much scope for many breakdowns in communication, there is the need for negotiation of meaning. Long (1996) pursues this idea when he explains in his work the negotiation of meaning as,

„the process in which, in an effort to communicate, learners and competent speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor’s comprehension, thus provoking adjustments to their linguistic form, conversational structure, message content, or all three, until an acceptable level of understanding is achieved”(p: 418).

In many current research works, negotiation of meaning includes a broad range of discourse, including comprehension checks, confirmation checks, clarification requests, modified output, and interactional feedback (cited in Mackey, 2012). These studies clearly inform that language learning involves
the interaction and interaction further involves many components. Gass (2003, p: 224) explains: “Interaction involves a number of components including negotiation, recasts, and feedback”. The recent studies on feedback are characteristic to its theoretical and pedagogical significance.

2.20 Feedback

Feedback has a prominent place in most theories of second language acquisition and language pedagogy. In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning, feedback is seen as contributing to language learning (Ellis, 2009). Ellis further states that in both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy. In contrast with Ellis’ notion, some researchers (Foster 1998; Chun, Day, Chenoweth, Luppescu, 1982 and Choudron, 1977) have suggested that corrective feedback was far more common in the laboratory than in the classroom. But the Interaction Hypothesis revolves around the significance of feedback for inter-language development. Long (1996) has stated that “a focus on meaning is insufficient for development in the second language, but focus on meaning is necessary to acquire grammatical accuracy in the second language. He further continued that along with interaction, feedback is one of the ways that focus on form can be achieved (cited in Mackey, 2012).

2.21 Corrective Feedback (CF)

Corrective feedback has been one of the most disputed topics over the past two decades. Truscott and Hsu (2008) believe that it is not effective in bringing
about long-term learning, while those supporting its use (Bruton, 2010; Russel and Spada, 2006; Lyster et al. 1999) believe that it has an important role in the development of interlanguage. According to Vygotsky (1986), learning occurs between individuals and contextualized social environment through mediation processes. In these processes, the language plays a central role. Therefore, in the context of teaching and learning, the interaction between the teacher and learners in the classroom has its due weight. One of the most important aspects of this interaction between the teacher and learners is offering teacher’s oral feedback.

Feedback (FB) is an indispensable part of teaching and learning contexts and in training programs across the world. It mainly helps the learners to exploit their potential to a great extent in different stages of learning. It raises the awareness among the learners about their strengths and weaknesses in learning and helps to take necessary actions to overcome their weaknesses. Ramsden (1992, p: 193) pointed out two types of feedback: “informal feedback” (e.g. between peers or colleagues) and “formal feedback” (e.g. as part of educational or clinical analyses). Feedback is a part of the overall interaction between teacher and learner but it is not a one-way communication.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) define feedback as “information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one’s performance or understanding”. (p: 81). The agent may be a teacher or parent and can provide correct information; a peer can suggest an alternate strategy, and the learner can look up the answer to evaluate the correctness of a response. Therefore, feedback is a “consequence” of a performance (p. 81). Black and William (1998) stated that “the quality of the feedback is a key
feature in any procedure of formative assessment”. Sadler (1989) explained feedback as “information that is given or is being given on how an action is being developed in terms of its quality for success.

Long (1996) believed that corrective feedback is among the techniques which are believed to facilitate L2 development by providing learners with both positive and negative evidence. Positive evidence provides learners with the correct and target-like structure or what is acceptable in L2, while negative evidence warns the learners of what is unacceptable in L2 (cited in Ehsan, 2010). Sheen (2007) states corrective feedback as „a teacher’s move that invites a learner to attend to the grammatical accuracy of the utterance which is produced by the learner“. Li (2013) offers a significant definition for corrective feedback which refers to „teacher and peer responses to learners’ erroneous second language production”. Ellis (2006) defines it simply as „responses to learner’s utterances containing an error (p: 28). Corrective feedback is divided into two branches as oral corrective feedback and written corrective feedback.

2.22 Types of Corrective Feedback

Several studies have investigated the effects of corrective feedback in second language classrooms (Burke & Pieterick, 2010; Ellis, R. 2009; Lyster, 2004; Sheen, 2004 Lyster & Ranta, 1997). However, these classifications differ from each other in the core. Burke and Pieterick’s (2010) feedback model observes the writing performances of the learners with the aim of assigning a score on their past performance or with the aim of improving the quality of the learners’ written piece respectively. Ellis” (2009) feedback classification includes six
major categories, namely, direct, indirect, metalinguistic, focused/unfocused, electronic, and reformulation (in Reza, 2014).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six types of corrective strategies. Thus, one can respond to the erroneous utterance „He has dog” by the following ways:

- reformulating it (recast): „a dog”
- alerting the learner to the error and providing the correct form (explicit correction): „No, you should say “a dog”
- asking for clarification (clarification request): „Sorry?”
- making a metalinguistic comment (metalinguistic feedback): „You need an indefinite article”
- eliciting the correct form (elicitation): „He has …?”; or
- repeating the wrong sentence (repetition): „He has dog?” (cited in Li, 2013)

These six categories they subsequently divided into two categories such as „reformulations” and „prompts”. Reformulations include recasts and explicit correction whereas prompts include the remaining four categories as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition.

Some research studies proved that among all the six corrective feedback types, „recasts” are the most frequently used type in the classroom (Oliver, 1995; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Braidi, 2002; Sheen, 2004). Long (1996) in his analysis of the interaction hypothesis, supported that recasts are effective in promoting L2 development because they usually occur during meaning-focused activities. Ellis (1994) stated that recasts create the optimal condition for cognitive comparison because they are assumed to promote noticing of form while a focus on the meaning or message is maintained. Parallel to these
notions, Leeman (2003) and Schmidt (2001) consider that recasts provide learners with both comprehensible input and focus on form.

2.23 Conclusion

This chapter presented the significance of speaking skill, various models on communicative competence, the theories related to the present study, the definitions of speaking skill, sub-skills of speaking skill, and current research on corrective feedback in detail. The following chapter will present the research design adopted for this study.