

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English



**Examining the Role of Teacher's Oral Corrective Feedback in Enhancing EFL
Students' Writing Performance**

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilments of the Requirements for a Master Degree in
English Didactics

Submitted by:

Sawssen Laribi
Sara Boulfous

Supervised by:

Ilham Melit

Board of Examiners

Supervisor: Ilham Mellit

Jijel University

Chairperson: Hiba Tiouane

Jijel University

Examiner: Mohammed Boukezzoula

Jijel University

Academic Year: 2019-2020

Dedication

This humble work is dedicated:

To my wonderful parents

To my sisters and brothers

*To my fiancé **Adel***

To whoever happens to read this dissertation.

Sarah

Dedication

*To my dear **parents***

*To my beloved brother **Loukman***

*To the rest of my beloved family: **Hadjer, Houssam, and Choaibe.***

Sawssen

Acknowledgements

Our infinite gratitude go to our supervisor **Miss Melit Ilham** for her sincere commitment, and encouragements through the development of this work.

Special thanks go to all the members of the jury: **Dr. Boukezzoula Mohamed, Miss Tiouane Hiba**, for accepting to read and assess this humble work.

We also grateful to all the written expression teachers who respond to the questionnaire. Moreover, our special thanks for **Miss Boukhdana** and **Soukou** for facilitating the process of conducting the writing test.

Last but not least, we would like to thank **Miss Assia Zeraoulia** for providing us with precious instructions and guidance.

Abstract

The current study has examined the impact of oral corrective feedback on enhancing students' writing. Theoretically, it is mainly focused on the relationship between teachers' oral corrective feedback and students' writing. It aims at investigating the teachers' perceptions of oral corrective feedback as a relevant tool for enhancing students' writing. In addition, it seeks to explore the effects of oral corrective feedback on students' paragraph writing. In order to accomplish these aims, a teachers' questionnaire and a pre-experiment were implemented with a sample of 7 written expression teachers at the department of English at Mohamed Sedik ben Yahia university-Jijel, and second year students of English from the same university. The findings showed that teachers consider oral corrective feedback as a powerful tool for improving students' writing and its absence would effect negatively on students' level in writing. Furthermore, there a strong positive correlation between teachers oral corrective feedback and students' writing errors especially those errors related to the form of the language. However, writing's errors related to the content were not highly improved.

Key Words: Oral Corrective Feedback, The Writing Skill, Error Correction, Recast

List of Abbreviations

EFL English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

SL: Second Language

Vs: Versus

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

CF: Corrective Feedback

List of Tables

Table 1 Teachers' Qualifications.....	44
Table 2 Teachers' Experience at University.....	45
Table 3 Teachers' Experience in Teaching Written Expression.....	46
Table 4 Qualities of Effective Writing.....	47
Table 5 Students' Difficulties in Writing.....	48
Table 6 Teachers' Evaluation for their Students' Writing Skill.....	49
Table 7 Teachers' Perceptions of te Difficulty/Easiness of the Writing Skill.....	50
Table 8 Teachers' Focus in Writing Assessment.....	51
Table 9 Teachers' Use of Feedback During the Writing Process.....	52
Table 10 Teachers' Choice of Type of Feedback for Writing.....	53
Table 11 Errors' Treatments.....	54
Table 12 Frequency of Responding to Oral Feedback.....	55
Table 13 Feedback' s Focus.....	56
Table 14 Frequency of Providing Oral Feedback.....	57
Table 15 Feedback' s Timing.....	58
Table 16 Teachers' Attitude Towards the difficulty of Implementing Oral Feedback on Writing.....	59
Table 17 Types of Oral Correction.....	60

Table 18 Teachers' Preferences for the Source of Feedback.....61

Table 19 Teachers' Attitudes Towards Students' Preferences in Writing.....62

Lists of Figures

Figure 1: A Sequence of Ideas.....	11
Figure 2: Categorization of Teachers' Oral Feedback.....	68
Figure 3: Students' Response to Feedback.....	72
Figure 4: Proportion of Oral Comments in First Drafts.....	72
Figure 5: Proportion of Oral Comments Across Drafts.....	73

Table of Contents

Dedication

Acknowledgements

Abstract

List of Abbreviations

List of Tables

List of Figures

Table of Contents

General Introduction.....	1 .
1. Statement of the Problem	1
2. Research Hypothesis.....	2
3. Research Questions.....	2
4. Aim of the study.....	2

5. Methodology of the Research.....3

6. Structure of the Study 3

Chapter One: The Writing Skill

Introduction

1.1. Definition of Writing.....	5
1.2. The Significance of Writing for EFL Learners.....	6
1.3. Elements of Effective Writing.....	8
1.3.1. The Purpose.....	8
1.3.2. The Audience.....	9
1.3.3. Organization.....	9
1.3.4. Clarity.....	10
1.3.5. Word Choice.....	10
1.3.6. Coherence.....	11
1.3.7. Mechanics.....	12
1.4. Sources of Errors in L2 Writing.....	12
1.5. Writing's Assessment.....	13
1.5.1. Improving Students' Writing.....	14
1.5.1.1 Writing Strategies.....	16
1.5.1.2. Summarization.....	16
1.5.1.3. Collaborative Writing.....	17
1.5.1.4. Specific Product Goals.....	17

1.5.1.5 Word Processing.....	17
1.5.1.6. Sentence Combining.....	17
1.5.1.7. Prewriting.....	17
1.5.1.8. Inquiry Activities.....	17
1.5.1.9. Process Writing Approach.....	18
1.5.1.10. Study of models.....	18
1.5.1.11. Writing for Content Area Learning.....	18
Conclusion.....	18

Chapter Two: Oral Corrective Feedback

Introduction.....	19
2.1. Definition of Feedback, Corrective Feedback, and Oral Feedback.....	19
2.2. The Role of Corrective Feedback in Second language learning.....	20
2.3. The Debate about Corrective Feedback.....	22
2.4. Students' Uptake.....	23
2.5. Strategies of Oral Corrective Feedback.....	25
2.5.1. Explicit Feedback.....	25
2.5.2. Recast.....	26
2.5.3. Clarification Request.....	26
2.5.4. Elicitation.....	27

2.5.5. Repetition.....	27
2.5.6. Meta-Linguistic Feedback.....	27
2.6. The Focus of Feedback: Form Focus VS Content Focus.....	28
2.7. Sources of Feedback.....	29
2.7.1. Teachers Feedback.....	29
2.7.2. Peer Feedback.....	30
2.7.3. Conferencing.....	30
2.7.4. Self Feedback.....	31
2.7.5. Electronic Feedback.....	32
2.8. Amount of Feedback.....	32
2.9. Qualities of Effective Corrective Feedback.....	34
2.10. Timing of Oral Corrective Feedback.....	35
2.11. Teachers VS Students Preferences for Corrective Feedback.....	37
2.12. The Impact of Oral Corrective Feedback on Students' Writing.....	39
Conclusion.....	40

Chapter Three: Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Discussion

Introduction.....	42
3.1.1. Research Design.....	42
3.1.2. Sample.....	42

3.1.3. Data Collection Tool.....	43
3.1.4. The Administration of the Questionnaire.....	43
3.1.5. Description of the Questionnaire.....	43
3.1.6. Presentation and Analysis of the Questionnaire.....	44
3.1.7. Overall Discussion of the Results.....	64
3.2. The Pre-Experiment.....	66
3.2.1. Sample-Participants in the Pre-Experiment.....	66
3.2.2. Description and Administration of the Pre-Experiment.....	66
3.2.3. Presentation and Analysis of the Pre-Experiment.....	67
3.2.4. Overall Discussion and Interpretation of the Results of the Pre-Experiment.....	69
Conclusion.....	73
3.3. The limitations of the study.....	74
3.4. Recommendations.....	74
General conclusion.....	75
References.....	76
Appendices.....	88
Résumé.....	96
ملخص.....	97

General Introduction

Writing is a highly-demanding and complex skill for both native and non-native speakers of English. It is a basic skill which includes not only the graphic representation of speech, but also the expression and the arrangement of ideas according to the conventions of language (Harmer, 2001). It is generally agreed that writing is a valued and crucial skill that ease the learning process. However, it is considered as one of the most difficult skills for EFL learners. Underscoring this view, Richard and Renandya (2002) claimed that “there is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for EFL students to master” (p. 303). Likewise, Nunan (2000) pointed out that it is a great challenge to produce a coherent, fluent, and extended piece of writing. Thus, the fact that improving the writing skill is not an easy process lead to a surge interest among researchers in how to best use feedback to develop the writing skill. Therefore, many researchers advocated the significance of feedback on enhancing the writing skill (Hyland (2003); Ferris (2003) & Harmer (2004); Hyland and Hyland (2006)). Indeed, the researchers have examined the impact of written feedback on the writing skill. However, the current study is an attempt to discover the aspects of the language that seemed to be improved through implementing oral corrective feedback on students' paragraphs writing.

1. The Statement of the Problem

Writing has always been one of the most challenging skills for almost all the learners. In other words, what makes writing a problematic task is the fact that learners are required to master all the mechanics related to the process of writing which includes content, vocabulary, language use, spelling, organization, capitalization, and punctuation. Due to the complexity of the writing skill, the plurality of EFL learners produces unacceptable written composition. Precisely, the deteriorating level of students' writing mainly in Algeria is not a secret. Therefore, successful teachers select the appropriate type of feedback to help student in

improving their writing level. Principally, teachers use written comments as the main strategy to correct students' writing. In this line, as master two students of English at Mohamed Sedik ben Yahia university-in Jijel, we have observed that teachers mainly use written feedback to proofread students' written composition and oral feedback is rarely used because it consumes time and the students not all time fully consontrated with the teachers' talk. As a result, we decided to discover the effects of oral corrective feedback on the form and the content of students' paragraphs writing.

2. Research Hypotheses

Based on what has been mentioned we hypothesize that teachers' use of corrective feedback in general and oral corrective feedback in particular in second language writing will enhance students writing capacities.

3. Research Questions

The study specifically aims to find answers to the following research questions

- ✓ What are the teachers attitudes towards the role of oral corrective feedback in enhancing EFL students writing performance?
- ✓ What are the effects of oral corrective feedback on EFL students' paragraph writing?

4. The Aim of the Study

The present study is set out specifically to explore written expression teachers' attitudes and perceptions toward using oral corrective feedback as a relevant tool for

enhancing their students' writing. Additionally, it seeks to examine the effects of oral corrective feedback on students' paragraph writing.

5. The Methodology of The Research

The study will take place at university level with second year students of English. Therefore, to obtain information we will deal with two samples.

- Teachers of written expression at the department of English (7 teachers)
- Second year students of English (40 students)

For the sake of understanding the impact of teachers' oral correction on enhancing students' writing, two research instruments will be used: a questionnaire will be directed to written expression teachers at the department of English to collect their points of view concerning the impact of oral corrective feedback. Furthermore, the pre-experiment of second year students of English meant to analyse students' paragraph writing before and after the implementation of oral feedback. Eventually, the study will be descriptive in nature and statistical measures will be used to reach adequate results.

6. The Structure of The Study

This dissertation is organized around three main chapters: the first two chapters compose the literature review while the third chapter is devoted to the practical part. The first chapter is an overview about the writing skill; it includes the significance of the writing skill and the difficulties faced by EFL learners while writing, further it spots light on elements of effective writing. The second chapter is concerned with oral corrective feedback and its impact on the writing of students. The last chapter deals with data analysis. It contains a detailed analysis of teachers' questionnaire and the pre-experiment as well as the results generated by the previous two research instruments.

Chapter One: The Writing Skill

General Introduction

Writing has a significant role in the process of learning. It is considered as one of the four basic skills of the English language. A skill that facilitates the process of language learning, enlarges the scope of critical thinking, and enables students to communicate. Writing in a second or foreign language is one of the most challenging aspects of language learning. The latter requires considerable practice and formal instruction, for this reason, the writing skill receives a great interest from many researchers in the field.

This chapter will present the writing skill in general, including the different definitions given by many researchers, the significance of this skill for EFL learners, and the various elements of effective composition. The chapter will also introduce some difficulties encountered by EFL learners during the writing process. Furthermore, this part will clearly make the close relationship between reading and writing, and finally, it will demonstrate what writing assessment is and the various ways to enhance students writing.

1.1. Definition of Writing

Drawing upon the abundance of literature on the topic, different views towards the definition of writing could be reviewed according to various researchers and linguists. Some researchers considered writing as translating one's thoughts via the use of graphic symbols. For example, Byrne (1979) argued that writing is the act of forming graphic symbols. It, therefore, includes the conventional arrangement of letters into words, and words into sentences that need to flow smoothly to build a coherent whole that is text. This view is supported by Rivers (1968) who stated that “in its simplest form writing can be the act of putting down in conventional graphic form something which has been spoken” (p. 242).

Widdowson (1978) in his turn defined writing as the act of producing accurate sentences and conveying them visually as marks on paper. This involves mainly the use of

graphic language. Following Widdowson's definition, Troyka (1987) asserted that writing requires more than taking a pen and expecting words to flow perfectly on paper. This indicates how sophisticated writing is. It is not just a matter of correlating graphic symbols together so as to generate words and sentences; rather it is a demanding process that requires many factors (as cited in Aliouchouche, 2017, p. 7). Nunan (1987) supported Troyka's claim saying that: "writing is an extremely complex, cognitive activity for all which the writer is required to demonstrate the control of several variables simultaneously" (p. 36). This implied that writers should demonstrate the ability to use correct sentences, consistent content, adequate vocabulary, good punctuation, and spelling. Consequently, producing a piece of writing involves a given competence in a number of connected spheres.

From those definitions above, we can conclude that writing is a complex process. The latter involves many activities to produce written forms. In doing so, the writer uses certain conventions of variables related to linguistic aspects such as: word spelling, sentence structure, punctuation, coherence, etc. This is in order to express ideas, thoughts, opinions, and feelings so that readers can understand.

1.2. The Significance of Writing for EFL Learners

The importance of writing in EFL learning is embodied in the ways in which the writing skill promotes the development of language proficiency. Recent studies imply that there is a relationship between writing and cognition. Many of them have shown that writing for second and foreign language learners is a tool for learning; writing to learn is just as important as learning to write. According to Spivey (1997), students use a meaning making process which involves selecting, organizing and integrating ideas then, following a logical manner using cohesion markers which make connection within and across the essay in order to communicate their ideas effectively while writing (as cited in Hosseini, Taghizadeh, Zainolabedin & Naseri, 2013, p. 3)

In this vein, Raimes appended that when writing, students are involved in manipulating and practicing various elements of the target language and direct interaction with the text. Great effort is made, hence, in expressing ideas; they use the eyes, the hands, and the brain in a collaborative constant way. It involves intellectual processing in that students think about finding the right sentence, the right words, the utilization of current knowledge that is obtained from educational instruction, and already accumulated knowledge. Thus, all that is mentioned strengthen language learning (Raimes, 1983).

According to Harmer (2007), writing gives the students more time to think than in spontaneous conversation. This gives them more chance in language processing; that is thinking about the language. Moreover, he also made a difference between the two main reasons for teaching writing. These are writing for learning, and writing for writing. In the former, writing is a tool to apply language; it helps students use the previous knowledge, and to give reinforcement to students. The latter aims to create good writers by improving the students' writing skills. So, here the language itself is not the main focus of attention.

Another area of the writing's significance for language learning is explained by Bjork and Raisanen. Bjork and Raisanen (1997) highlighted the importance of writing in all university curricula; they consider writing as a thinking tool. It is a tool for language development, for critical thinking, and for learning in all disciplines. Greenberg and Rath (1985, p. 12) illustrated more the value of this skill for EFL students:

Writing is a powerful instrument of thinking because it provides students with a way of gaining control over their thoughts. Writing shapes their perceptions of themselves and the world. It aids in their personal growth and their affecting change on the environment. Students are often unaware of the power of the written word. Yet, the written word enables the writer perhaps for the first time to sense the power of language to affect another. Through selecting and rejecting,

arranging and rearranging language, the student comes to understand how language is used. (Greenberg & Rath, 1985, p. 12)

Moreover, writing has an essential role in the EFL learning process. It helps in maintaining the already grasped knowledge. According to Chastain (1976), this skill incorporates in the solidification of students' intake of language vocabulary and structures and supplements the other language skills.

Based on already existing research and theory in the field of EFL writing, one may assert that this skill has a reinforcing role for EFL learners. It is also a language development tool, a learning style, and a skill just as the three remaining skills that EFL learners must acquire. Therefore, it seems judicious to highlight the Main writing difficulties encountered by EFL learners.

1.3. Elements of Effective Writing

Concerning the process of producing an effective piece of writing, learners are required to integrate multiple physical and mental processes to convey information and ideas. According to Starkey (2004), an effective piece of writing is the one that is organized, clear, and coherent, with an accurate language and effective word choice. The previous definition suggested by Starkey explains that writing in English within an academic context requires various aspects which are: the purpose, the audience, organization, clarity, coherence, word choice, and mechanics.

1.3.1 The Purpose

This element of good writing involves the reasons that lead the writer to write about a specific topic. Indeed, the writer would understand the excitement that they attempt to accomplish for specific needs; the purpose of writing the text and the reader's purpose of reading it will help decisions about content, coverage, and tone.

1.3.2 The Audience

Effective writing is to keep our audience in mind when we write. Thus, before starting the process of writing, we should know who the readers are to write something relevant. Writers do not write for themselves but, they write for different audiences. Underscoring this view, Walker (2010) pointed out that the writers have to keep their reader connected with every single sentence in the written composition. Therefore, the writers take into account the use of formal language in writing to present their awareness of the conditions of effective language.

1.3.3 Organization

The organization is an important element in any kind of writing. It is referred to as the process of organizing ideas and thoughts before beginning the physical act of writing. In fact, the organization is usually tackled through using some techniques and methods including mainly free writing and brainstorming. The use of pre-writing techniques helps in making a useful plan that ensures the arrangement of the written composition because a plan is made after reading, gathering, and classifying the information from the pre-writing activity. Brainstorming and free writing are two major strategies used by writers during the pre-writing process in which, “brainstorming is a way to come up with ideas either alone or in a group” (Galko, 2002, p. 20). The main principle behind brainstorming is to let your ideas flow without judging them. Galko (2002) also defined free writing like the following: “it is writing down your thoughts as they come to you” (p. 21). Usually, when we free-write we do not think about whether the ideas are appropriate or the grammar is perfect. According to Chelsa (2006), Crème and Lea (2008), free writing and brainstorming are important for shaping the learner's ideas permitting time to make the connection between the topic and what comes to the mind of the writer. The main purpose of the organization is to help the reader see the flow

of ideas and how they are organized in a specific way to convey a particular idea. Starkey (2004) claimed that: by following an organized method of writing, you will guide your reader from the first to the last sentence. He or she will be able to see how the various points you make in your piece of writing work together and how they support your thesis. The main advantage of the organization is to help the reader believe what you are saying, and follow your lead.

1.3.4 Clarity

The learner's goal when writing in an academic context is to convey information, including the fact that he can write well (Starkey, 2004). In other words, the writers make the reader recognizes as clearly as possible what is written down. Clarity includes explaining the different points of view using descriptive words and explication devices without any ambiguity to facilitate the reading process. Murray and Hughes (2008) emphasized the significance of clarity in making one's writing readable and accessible. The key to achieve clarity is the use of short sentences and straightforward vocabulary. Furthermore, there are many guidelines that help in achieving clarity in writing. According to Starkey (2004), the learner should eliminate ambiguity through avoiding sophisticated words and sentences which have different meaning. In addition, the learner uses precise modifiers in combination with avoiding the repetition of ideas and information.

1.3.5 Word Choice

Writers have to choose suitable words to accurately convey their ideas and thoughts. Word choice is one of the essential elements in producing effective writing in which we ensure that the audience understands what the writer is writing. Starkey (2004) and Kane (2000) argued that there are two aspects writers should consider while choosing the items which are: denotation, and connotation. Denotation is the use of the literal meaning of the

word. While, the connotation is defined as: “a word's implied meaning which involves emotions, cultural assumption, and suggestion” (Starkey, 2004, p. 21). Considering connotation, the learner must think beyond the dictionary meaning. Both denotative and connotative meanings must be considered while choosing the relevant word to help understand the real meaning and avoid ambiguity in writing.

1.3.6 Coherence

Coherence has a great role in making an effective piece of writing. Murray and Hughes (2008) said that “coherence is perhaps the single most important element in any kind of writing” (p. 45). That is to say, the success and failure of the writer depend, upon how clearly he or she managed to communicate his/her ideas with the reader. It particularly has to do with arranging ideas in a way that make them more easily and understood by the reader. The process occurs through the use of some features which include the use of transitional words and phrases, and the use of the right tense to show chronological order. Murray and Hughes (2008) also stated that a good writer is the one “who sticks his ideas together as links in a chain, each link connecting the one before it with the one after. If any links are missing, the connections become unclear and the argument structure breaks down” (p. 45).

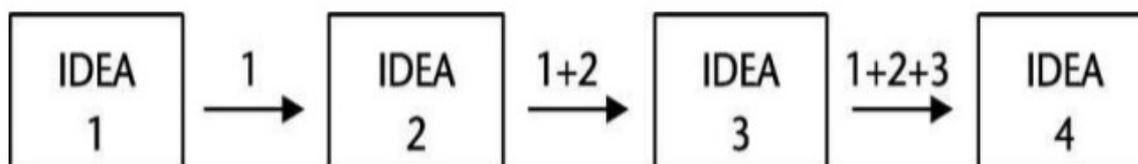


Figure1: A Sequence of Ideas (Murray & Hughes, 2008, p. 46)

In any piece of writing, as shown in the figure, the reader understands what he is reading at any particular point through making links or connection with the previous ideas that precede the point.

1.3.7 Mechanics

In writing composition, mechanics refers to the appearance of words and how they are spelled, and arranged on papers. The fact that the first word of a paragraph is usually indented is a matter of mechanics (Kane, 2000). The rules gathered under the mechanics try to make the process of writing consistent and clear. For example, a sentence should begin with a capital letter and end with full stop punctuation (period, question mark...). The rules of mechanics are complex. In fact, they sometimes confuse even professional writers (Starkey, 2004). In other words, Starkey declaimed mechanics in terms of grammar, punctuation, and capitalization. Grammar means the rules which structure our language (Kane, 2000). For example, the knowledge of parts of speech and their use in the process of writing. Indeed, capitalization and punctuation are two essential elements in writing which indicate pauses and sentence boundaries to help in eliminating ambiguity in writing.

1.4. Sources of Errors in L2 Writing

Student writing in the second language involves texts that comprise various types of grammatical, lexical, and rhetorical errors. In fact, the most common errors are committed by writers who have a lot of ideas and information but they do not have the language to express what they want to say in a relevant way. Thus, when the content is rich and the writer has a sense of creativity this would increase the number of errors in the writing composition. Usually, errors in L2 composition are associated with the learner's competence in L2 writing. In which behaviourists focus on the error itself or the product on the other hand, the constructive perspective emphasizes the underlying process or why the errors are made. Researchers have attempted to find the sources of errors in L2 writing and they found that the first source is the interference of the mother tongue; learners may translate from the L1 mentally and the two languages have totally different structures which lead them to different errors. In addition, learners are often uncertain of what they want to express which causes

them to make errors.

Writers in L2 might lack the familiarity with the new rhetorical structures and organization (Grodén, 1993; Kaplan, 1987). A student may not be familiar with English rhetoric which leads him/her to writing that seems inappropriate or incoherent to native speakers. In addition, the issue of fossilization is an important source of errors in which learners repeat previous errors and these errors become like a bad habit in the learner's repertoire. Broadly speaking, the most sophisticated about fossilization is the fact that errors will reappear despite the correction and the feedback. Oldin (1994, p. 13) stated that fossilization occurs when “learner inter language competence diverge in more or less permanent way from the target language grammar”. The errors of fossilization are common among the immigrants who learned the language from the street in which the focus is on fluency not on linguistics correctness.

1.5. Writing' Assessment

When we talk about the teaching of writing, assessment is a major concern. Assessing students' writing is the process by which instructors can measure the degree at which their students are progressing. Assessment in SL writing is defined as “The process of collecting, analysing and recording information about students' progress towards achievement of syllabus outcomes” (writing and spelling strategies, 2007, p. 17).

According to Hyland (2003), writing's assessment is the way by which we can gather information on the learner's progress towards language ability and achievements. This term is used to refer to written texts, essays, project reports, portfolios or standardized examinations. Therefore, assessment is a crucial stage in the development of students' writings for learners as well as for teachers; the former rely on assessment to correct their mistakes, learn and overcome obstacles in writing, the latter benefits from assessment in checking students' knowledge to teach and reteach ungrasped elements and to discover deficiencies within the

teaching process itself. In this respect, Overmeyer (2009) reported that Assessment when used correctly in a formative way, can improve students' and teachers' abilities. Not only to improve, but also to believe in themselves as writers and teachers of writing. And once students believe they are writers, and teachers believe they are teachers of writing, any barrier no matter how imposing, begins to crumble.

However, it is worthwhile to mention here that the assessment of writing is not only concerned with language rules and respecting stages of writing, but also with the content being included in the piece of writing. Harmer (2004) supported that saying "When responding to our students' work we are not only concerned with the accuracy of their performance but also and this is crucial with the content and design of their writing" (p. 108). Assessing students' writing and performance in the class should occur at different stages throughout the course. It could take different forms, which vary according to the level of students, the topic of writing and the objectives set behind the given task.

We can say that the assessment of students' writing is a critical process. In the sense that the teacher is supposed to specify the main assessment's goals and objectives taking into consideration both process and content of students' written productions. This is in order to reach what assessment is set for, that is; enhancing students' writing ability.

1.5.1. Improving Students' Writing

In L1 and L2 contexts, writing effectively involves the incorporation of different sectors of language knowledge and skills. This includes the ability to produce appropriate content, compose correct sentences in terms of structure and arranging that content coherently using a wide range of vocabulary and syntactic patterns. The latter aims to allow one to express a variety of concepts (Caudery, 1998).

Over the last 40 years, there has been a great interest in the teaching of writing that resulted in many changes in policies and practices in the teaching of L2 writing. Researchers

in the field attempted to provide information about effective writing instruction, among them Raimes. Raimes (1983) pointed out that the main concern of any teacher of writing is to follow effective classroom teaching procedures in order to enhance the students' writings. The teaching techniques provided by textbooks and training courses today need to be more specified according to students' level, class, and teaching's curriculum. These techniques must be examined by teachers with some basic questions in mind that will help to give suitable instruction in writing classrooms.

The seven questions listed below are suggested by Raimes (1983, p. 12-13) to help teachers make suitable decisions in the writing class:

- ✓ How can writing help my students learn their second language better?
- ✓ How can I find enough topics?
- ✓ How can I help to make the subject matter meaningful?
- ✓ How will I lead my students write?
- ✓ How are the students going to work together in the classroom?
- ✓ How much time should I give my students for their writing?
- ✓ What do I do about errors? (Raimes, 1983, pp. 12-13)

Raimes (1983) also proposed the use of picture teaching technique. He argued that pictures are a valuable source in the class that supports students to produce a good piece of writing. Delrose (2011) declared that nowadays visual organizers are incorporated widely in writing classes and proved to be very effective in providing learners with concrete information that guide learners in writing a composition. These organizers keep learners' focus on key ideas and the relation between them rather than the apparently isolated facts. This view is shared by Lee (2004) and Raimes (1983).

Steve and Dolores (2011) are also two researchers who are interested in teaching writing and in their turn, they tried to provide some techniques as an attempt to improve the

EFL learner's writing ability. They presented eleven key elements of effective writing , these are; writing strategies, summarization, collaborative writing, specific product goal, word processing, sentence combining, prewriting, inquiry activities, process writing approach, study of models, and the writing for content learning. According to Steve and Dolores (2011), a teacher should incorporate all the eleven elements in his class, because they are interrelated, and mixing them will result in better achievements.

1.5.1.1. Writing Strategies

This includes teaching students the three strategies; planning, revising and editing when writing a composition. According to Graham (2000), strategy instruction requires both explicit and systematic steps in teaching that are necessary for planning, revising and/or editing pieces of writing (as cited in Steve & Dolores, 2007 p. 15). These strategies of brainstorming or collaboration for peer revising proved to be very effective in improving students' writing especially for those who have difficulty in writing.

1.5.1.2. Summarization

Teaching students how to summarize texts is a writing instruction that can lead them to write better summaries. This can be done either by teaching them summarization techniques or by giving them models of good summaries.

1.5.1.3. Collaborative Writing

This involves arranging students in groups to write collaboratively together to plan, draft, and edit each others' compositions. It is very effective in enhancing writing quality as mentioned by Yarrow and Topping (2001): “Collaborative writing involves peers writing as a team. In one approach, a higher achieving student is assigned to be the helper (tutor) and a lower achieving student is assigned to be the writer (tutee)” (as cited in Steve & Dolores, 2007, p. 16)

1.5.1.4. Specific Product Goals

Such technique is done by giving students specific and clear goals for their writings. This means identifying the aim of the assignment and the features of their final work. Ferreti, Mac Arthur, and Dowdy (2000) identified this element saying that “setting specific product goals provides students objectives to focus on particular aspects of their writing, for example, students may be instructed to take a position and write a persuasive letter designed to lead an audience to agree with them” (as cited in Steve & Dolores, 2007, p. 17).

1.5.1.5. Word Processing

Via the use of computers, word processing instruction enhances the quality of texts produced by students, especially low achieving writers. In this kind of instruction, students type their composition on laptops and this equipment allows them to add, delete, and move the text easily as it may include spelling checkers as well.

1.5.1.6. Sentence Combining

Sentence combining as a writing strategy involves teaching students to construct complex sentences. The latter can be done by giving those activities in which they are supposed to combine two or more sentences in a single one.

1.5.1.7. Prewriting

This instruction is done by giving students some tasks and exercises in order to help them have more ideas about the topic. Learners are supposed to write before starting to write. This can be through reading, group discussions in which you ask them to have a plan before writing...

1.5.1.8. Inquiry Activities

“Inquiry means engaging students in activities that help them develop ideas and content for a particular writing task by analysing immediate concrete data.” (Steve & Dolores, 2007, p. 19). This aims at developing students' inquiry skills.

1.5.1.9.Process Writing Approach

This approach includes many activities that give students many opportunities to write for real audiences. Activities of self reflection, personalized instruction, goals, and cycles of planning, translating and reviewing.

1.5.1.10. Study of Models

This kind of instruction requires giving students good models and examples for each type of writing they are supposed to complete. Ask them to analyse these models and by doing so students will discover the critical side of these examples using their writing.

1.5.1.11.Writing for Content Area Learning

Writing is proved as an effective way of learning the content of any subject matter. This instruction is called writing to learn activities. For example writing to learn a language is very helpful in enhancing students' language proficiency and in turn enhances students' quality of writing.

Conclusion

From what has been said before, we can say that writing is a difficult and complex skill that involves more than simply collecting sentences and putting them together in a specific sequence. Rather, it requires mastering organizational devices and conventional mechanics to produce an effective piece of writing. EFL learners need to be aware of the significance of writing skills and their relationship with other language skills. Indeed, they need to know the various elements of effective writing and the difficulties experienced by language learners while writing in order to overcome them and produce effective writing. One way to achieve this is to look at writing as a process that contains different stages rather than just a product. In the following chapter, we will examine the impact of oral correcting feedback on enhancing students' writing.

Chapter two: Oral Corrective Feedback

Introduction

Feedback plays an important role in the learning process in general and in the development of the writing skill in particular. It has been a lasting concern for researchers as well as for teachers of writing. Thus providing feedback is often seen as the most challenging task for teachers. This is because responding to students' writing is probably an important aspect of writing in EFL context. This response has a powerful impact on students' writing ability; the present chapter seeks to examine this impact.

2.1. Definition of Feedback, Corrective Feedback, and Oral Feedback

A few years ago, as a result of its increasing importance in EFL learning through classroom interaction, Teachers' feedback has become a highly controversial issue be it in its oral or written form and both in oral and written discourses. In EFL classrooms, feedback could be defined as the teachers' response to student' oral or written performance either by spoken or written comments as an attempt to improve their linguistic productions. Hattie and Timperely (2007) gave a general definition for the term: "information provided by an agent regarding some aspects of one's performance or understanding" (p. 81).

Another definition is for Duly, Bust, and Krashen (1982), for them feedback is the receiver's as a listener or reader reply on the student's written or oral productions. This means that feedback is the information given to learners about their performance. The same view is shared by Moss and Bookhart (2009); "a teacher's response to student work with the intention of furthering learning" (p. 44).

However, corrective feedback (CF), on the other hand, is defined earlier by Chaudron (1977), who considered it as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of, the learner's utterance" (p. 31). Lightbown and Spades (1999) in their turn indicated that CF is an indication from the teacher

to the learner that his or her performance in the target language is erroneous and it may take many responses. CF then can be explicit (for example, “No”, you should say “goes”, not “go”) or implicit (for example “yes, he goes to school every day”) as it may or may not include metalinguistic information (for example, “don’t forget to make the verb agree with the subject”). (pp. 172-173). In the same vein, Ellis (2009) differentiated between feedback and corrective feedback saying that CF constitutes one part of the negative feedback.

Moreover, teachers’ feedback in writing classes receives considerable attention from many researchers. Two of them were Hamp Lyons and Ben Heasley (1987), they argued that feedback that students receive on their written production has a significant role, first as a motivator for further learning and as an insurer that the teacher’s texts are understandable (as cited in Ouskourt, 2008, p. 110). In addition, Solhi and Eginli (2020) offered another definition for CF in writing classes; they declared that CF refers to inference explanations and responses on the consistency and correctness given as a response to students' writings, with the aim of improving their writing ability towards efficacy.

For Frey and Fisher (2011) oral feedback is the type of feedback that comes mainly through the spoken form. The latter requires well timing and interaction. Therefore, the setting, the structure, and the tone are of major concern when providing students with oral feedback.

2.2. The Role of Corrective Feedback in Second Language Learning

Corrective feedback has been an important and controversial topic in the concept of second language learning. There are several theories regarding the role of corrective feedback in second language learning. Some theories considers that corrective feedback is harmful to second language learning and should be ruled out while others regard corrective feedback as a crucial motivator for second language development.

Universal Grammar Theory sees corrective feedback as the origin of negative

testimony. In this regard, Chomsky (1975) argued that what helps in learning a language is universal grammar (UG) not the corrective feedback of the teacher in which he has defined universal grammar as: “the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements of properties of all human languages” (p. 29). This means that the naïvetest theory objects any contribution for corrective feedback in the learning of linguistics competence because learning a language is entirely related to positive evidence (Scawartz, 1993). Oppositely, the innatist theory believes that humans are born with a biological propensity to learn the language and it encourages corrective feedback to interfere in the development of second language knowledge. Furthermore, the interactional cognitive theories regard corrective feedback as a fundamental contribution to the learning of both implicit and explicit second language knowledge. Intrinsically, the major interactional cognitive trends which support corrective feedback are the interactional hypothesis (Long, 1996), the output hypothesis (Swain, 1985), and the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1994). Accordingly, this approach explicates language learning through input, output, and feedback in which they all occur during interaction (Grass & Mackey, 2006; Long, 1996).

Corrective feedback is blazingly studied in the interactional cognitive theories. As a matter of fact, the concept of communication takes an important place. Interaction research auscultates the relationship between communication and acquisition (Grass, 2003); this means that feedback is a result of communication. Likewise, Ellis (2008) stated that corrective feedback helps learning when learners focus on meaning in the context of communication. Generally, interactional cognitive theories explain the universal features of corrective feedback.

To conclude, the sociocultural theory which mainly based on the work of Vygotsky declaimed corrective feedback from different points of view. It believed that language learning is mediated through social interaction between learners and more capable peers. In

which the process of learning takes place in the learner's zone of proximal development. Thus, sociocultural theory considers that the impact of corrective feedback on second language learning is connected with the learner's zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978).

2.3. The Debate about Corrective Feedback

Martinez (2006) argued that the issue of error treatment or corrective feedback is a debatable topic. Some researchers and theories support the role of corrective feedback in second language learning and especially in enhancing the writing of student. However, some scholars disagree and ignore its effectiveness. Accordingly, The antagonists said that it is unnecessary for the learning process.

The behaviourist theory is considered as an excellent support for corrective feedback. Waston et al (as cited in Martinez, 2006, p. 4) stated that the learning process occurs through error correction; when students make mistakes, the teacher should correct them immediately and start the process of repetition of the correct forms to help the rest of the class learn them. Additionally, an experiment conducted by Levine (1975) is another prop to the positive impact that corrective feedback has in which he mentioned the major disadvantages of non-correction of an erroneous form. In this line, if an error is not corrected, the speaker and the rest of the class will consider it as right. As a result, they will use it in the future. Substantially, he proves in his experiment that teacher's correction of student's errors is crucial and it is a significant part of the learning process.

As it has been mentioned before, in second language learning some researchers are for corrective feedback while others are against the use of corrective feedback. Some theories reject entirely the role of corrective feedback. As a result, they claimed that learners go through different systematic stages to reach a stage in which they stop making errors. It is worth mentioning that there is no need for corrective feedback. Another evidence against

corrective feedback is that exaggeration in using corrective feedback can inhibit hesitant students to be engaged in the learning process (Edge, 1989, as cited in Martinez, 2006, p. 3). In a similar vein, Truscott (1996) rejected the correction of grammar errors in his review essay in which he said that “that correction is harmful rather than simply ineffective...(and) that no valid reasons have been offered for containing the practice despite these overwhelming problems...thus, for the foreseeable future, any conclusion stands: grammar correction has no place in writing classes and should be abandoned” (pp. 360-367). In other words, Truscott's influential review claimed that corrective feedback has no effect on students' learning and should be abandoned. Moreover, Lee (2009) mentioned some drawbacks of corrective feedback. Among these drawbacks we have the fact that corrective feedback does not ensure the improvement in students' writing. Eventually, it might push students to rely on their teachers.

2.4. Students' Uptake

Uptake by definition is the learner' s immediate response that follows the teachers' corrective feedback on learner's writing. Allwright (1984) defined the term uptake as “what learners claim to have learned from a particular lesson” (as cited in Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). In fact, students' reaction to teachers' feedback indicates whether the teacher's feedback is effective and useful or not, so when learners learn something new or change something in their written performance we can say that teacher' feedback is effective. Therefore, Ferris (1995) listed some ways as students responses to feedback provided by teachers and the main ones are:

- ✓ Error corrected
- ✓ Incorrect Change
- ✓ Deleted text
- ✓ Substitution, correct, when the learner replaces the error by a correct form.

- ✓ Substitution, incorrect, when the learner replaces the error by an incorrect form.
- ✓ Teacher induced error, when the learner commits mistakes. (Ferris, 1995, as cited in Bouraya, 2012, p. 43).

Cohen (1987) claimed that students have restricted techniques through which they react to teacher's feedback. Some students reported that they just noted mentally teacher's comments on their work, taking notes referring to other papers, looking over comments, and doing nothing. He added that learners pay great attention to teacher's feedback on grammar and mechanics (as cited in Ouskourt, 2008, p. 127). Accordingly, Hyland (2003, p. 179) determined three possible ways in which students may react to teacher's feedback on their writings, students may:

- ✓ Follow a comment closely in their revision (general corrections of Grammar errors)
- ✓ Use the teacher's comment as an initial stimulus which triggers several revisions (such as feedback on tone or style)
- ✓ Avoid issues that receive feedback by deleting the problematic text (Hyland, 2003, p. 179).

Hyland also asserted that after receiving feedback students revise their work but without understanding the reason behind feedback and that's why students generally delete things instead of rephrasing or correcting them. In another research, Erlam, Ellis, and Batstone(2013) maintained that uptake is the move that follows CF in which the learner reacts to the feedback move of the teacher. Thus it can constitute "repair" (i.e., the learner respond by producing the correct form) or "no-repair" (i.e., the learner simply knows the teacher's feedback or fails to correct the error). Up to this point, we can restate saying that students react to teachers' feedback differently. Either positively by repair or negatively by no repair. And only according to students' uptake that we can declare whether the feedback is effective or not.

2.5. Strategies of Oral Corrective Feedback

Presently, oral corrective feedback is considered as an important part of the learning process. It refers to the information provided by the teacher or the instructor to his students when there is a misuse of the target language. Some research has been conducted in the field of second language learning and they found that there are various strategies employed by instructors to apply oral corrective feedback. However, according to Ellis (2009), there is no specific research that includes all the different strategies and classifications of oral corrective feedback.

Oral corrective feedback is generally divided into implicit and explicit. Some researchers prefer explicit feedback, while others prioritize implicit. And still others prefer a combination of both of them. The following are the six strategies mainly used by teachers to implement oral corrective feedback with some examples.

2.5.1. Explicit Feedback

The first strategy of oral corrective feedback is an explicit correction. It occurs when the teacher indicates the student's error and tries to correct it immediately. This strategy is useful and at the same time detrimental because it helps the student to learn the nature of error. Simultaneously, it makes him aware that he has produced an incorrect concept. For example, a student may say: "Sara and Sawssen has bought new cars." The teacher may say "no, it is incorrect sentence." you should say "Sara and Sawssen have bought new cars." Teachers use this strategy with low- level students because they cannot find the right answer alone. To shed more light on the explicit correction we have the following quotation:

In providing the target like reformulation explicit error correction reduces the need for the learner to produce a modified response. Thus, explicit error correction [...] facilitates one type of processing, the noticing of an interlanguage

target language difference but reduces another type of processing the modified production of an interlanguage form to a more target-like form (Razei et al., 2001, p. 23).

2.5.2. Recast

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), “recast is a teacher' reformulation of all or part of student utterances, mimes the error without directly indicating that the student's utterances was incorrect, the teacher implicitly reformulate the student's error or provides the correction.” (p. 46). From the previous quote, we can say that recast refers to the process of reformulating the students' wrong utterances into the correct form. For example, when a student says “he has car.” The teacher replies “Oh, he has a car”. Generally, this strategy is mainly useful with shy and hesitant students to make them more comfortable and less anxious.

2.5.3. Clarification Request

This strategy is less frequent compared to others because it does not seem very efficient. It occurs when the teacher requests clarification from the student when they produce something wrong or in other words they make a mistake. Teachers use terms like “excuse me?” Or “I do not understand” to denote that the message was unclear. The main purpose of teachers behind using such terms is to point that “the message has not been understood or the student utterances contained some kind of mistake and that a repetition or reformulation is required.” (Tedick & Gloria, 1998, p. 3). For example, a student says “I would like to share you about how is applying job” the teacher responds “excuse me,” so the student will try to correct the sentence and says “I would like to share you about how to apply the job.” However, the correct form is “I would...share with you...apply for”.

2.5.4. Elicitation

Elicitation is a technique that prompts learners to self-correct (Panova & Lyster, 2002); teachers try to elicit the correct form by asking the question. For example, “how do we say that in English?” or making pauses to help the student in completing sentences. For instance, the teacher may say “she has...?” or pushing students to reformulate the sentence like saying “can you say that again?”.

2.5.5. Repetition

Repetition means that the teacher repeats the incorrect form of the student in which he uses rise tones or emphatic stress to indicate for the student the location of the error. For example, the student says “I goed to the circus yesterday” the teacher would repeat the sentence with a specific focus on the word goed “you goed to the circus yesterday?” In this case, the teacher is trying to raise the student's attention to the fact that the verb is not conjugated in the right way in order to correct it alone without the help of the teacher.

2.5.6. Meta- Linguistic Feedback

Meta-linguistic cues are information provided by the teacher about an erroneous form without explicitly correcting it. They can be either comments, information, or question-related to the incorrect utterance. For example, the student says “he has car” and the teacher replies “he has car” you need the indefinite article “a.” Furthermore, teachers should use simplified forms of meta-linguistic cues to help the student in understanding the concept addressed. To conclude, metalinguistic feedback is seldom as memorable as other teaching options (Silvia, 2006).

2.6.The Focus of Feedback: Form Focus VS Content Focus

Theoretically speaking, approaches which prioritize fluency over grammatical accuracy are against focusing on form when providing feedback. Truscott (1996) for example was against grammar correction. He argued that feedback on form is ineffective, time absorbing and potentially harmful because it diverts attention from organization; the logical development of ideas, demotivate students, make writers fearful of the red pen and encourages the writer to rely only on simpler, more safe sentence structures.

However, Ferris (1999) criticized Truscott. The former claimed that Truscott did not take into consideration the huge research findings that support some kind of grammar correction and claimed that Truscott in deducing his conclusions relied on limited, incomplete, and unconvincing data. In his study, Ferris (1995) concluded that students' that were asked to submit a single draft in writing classes prefer receiving feedback that focuses more on form, whereas students that were required to submit many drafts of their piece of writing valued content focused feedback.

Similar to that of Ferris, The findings of Hedgcock and Leftkowitz (1994; 1996) asserted that EFL learners in process oriented classrooms where students are asked to submit various drafts value both meaning and form feedback. While EFL learners in product oriented classes, where students are required to submit only one final draft, prefer form focused feedback.

Fazio (2001) in another research investigated the effects of three different types of feedback (form focused, content focused, a combination of form and content feedback) on grammatical accuracy. He cited that all types of feedback provided fail in making any significant change in the number of errors made by participants. Moreover, Ferris and other researchers believed that feedback focus should go beyond form or content (Ferris, Pezone, Tade & Tniti, 1997). They added that the timing of feedback (when to provide feedback on

form and when to provide it on content) that should be a matter of discussion. For example, Zamel (1985) argued that form and content feedback should be used simultaneously because students cannot distinguish which one requires more attention.

As a conclusion, we can say that teachers are encouraged to provide feedback on both levels. They should focus on content first and at the same time they are required to note and save comments concerning the form for subsequent drafts when students are polishing their work before submission. This is in order to insure students' improvement on both levels.

2.7.Sources of Feedback

There are different ways for providing feedback on writing and the teacher is not the only source of it. We can distinguish many types of feedback according to who provides it and how. Therefore, teacher, peer, conferencing, self correction, and electronic correction constitute the common sources of feedback.

2.7.1. Teacher's Feedback

Teachers have been the main source of feedback both in oral and written classes. A survey conducted on students' preferences regarding feedback by Waishing (2000) indicated that EFL students prefer teachers' written feedback and consider it the best form of feedback compared to alternative forms such as peer feedback. Ferris (2003) mentioned some of teachers' comments advantages saying "this type of feedback may represent the single biggest investment of time by instructors, and it is certainly clear that students highly value and appreciate it" (p. 41). However, despite students' positive view regarding teachers' feedback, its significance in developing students' writing ability is still debatable. Addressing this issue Ferris (1997) found that teachers' comments on student's drafts in many cases made matters worse.

2.7.2. Peer Feedback: Peer evaluation, peer editing, and peer responses refer to the kind of feedback in which students co-operate, and each one of them reads his peer' paper and responds to it (Li Waishing, 2000). In EFL classes peer feedback becomes an important alternative to teachers' feedback. Supporting the use of peer feedback, Hyland (2003) claimed: "collaborative peer review helps learners engage in a community of equals who respond to each others' work and together create an authentic social context for interaction and learning" (p. 198). In addition to Hyland's claims, Mendonca and Johnson (1994) stated that peer feedback develops student' critical reading and analysis skills. One more benefit of peer feedback is that students receive immediate feedback from their peers rather than waiting for days and weeks later.

Despite its potential advantages, following such technique in providing feedback students may not be qualified enough to respond to each others' work. In this vein, Hyland (2003) asserted that students prefer teachers' feedback, and they did not trust the feedback they receive from their peers; "students themselves are rather ambivalent about the quality of their peer suggestions and may both mistrust them and fear ridicule due to their poor proficiency, generally preferring feedback from teachers." (Hyland, 2003, p. 199). Urza (1987) supported Hyland' claim and added that in taking the role of responding to each other's work students may not be able to make comments of contrastive nature and generally they tend to address surface errors rather than those of meaning.

2.7.3. Conferencing

Conferencing or face to face feedback is another way of responding to students' writings in which a conversation between teacher and students takes place. When discussing the errors made by students Hyland and Hyland (2006) defined teacher – students' conferencing as "an approach lauded by L1 researchers as a dialogue in which meaning and

interpretation are constantly being negotiated by participants and as a method that provides both teaching and learning benefits”(p. 5). For Hyland (2003) this way of providing feedback gives students opportunities to negotiate meanings and clarify ambiguities. Zamel (1985) also advocated the use of conferences in favour of written comments and argued that conferencing provides students with more focused and useable comments unlike written comments which are generally vague, confusing and are only “one way communication.”

However there are several disadvantages of this feedback’ source. Hyland and Hyland (2006) for example stated that some students may not be able to talk to their teachers face to face because of the psychological pressure like anxiety, as they may not have the required speaking skills that enable them to discuss freely in oral conferences. Such conferences require a considerable amount of time to deal with each piece of writing individually. Finally, Ferris (2003) claimed that conferencing is a possible rather than a required technique of providing feedback.

2.7.4. Self Feedback

Self feedback or self correction/evaluation is a process by which students reflect on, respond to, and evaluate the quality of their work and their learning. They can also judge the extent to which they reached the stated goals or follow a given criteria and identify strengths and weaknesses of their work and then revise it accordingly (Andrade & Du, 2007). Bitchner, Young and Cameron (2005) stated that self correction is an indirect mode of feedback where the teacher is supposed to provide students with choices that allow them to discern the correct form by themselves.

Self mode of feedback has also its advantages as declared by Bannister and Baker (2000), self feedback promotes students' critical thinking, independence, and autonomy. It also proved to have positive effects on students’ productions such as the reduction of the

number of errors made by learners. Other studies concluded that self correction is more effective than teacher correction and recasts like that of Ganji (2009).

As for the limitations of this kind of feedback, researchers agreed on that it is difficult to seek mistakes in writing without being helped by other people. Objective point views of others are really required in writing. They can provide information that the writer possibly cannot find in his writing relying on his subjective point of view.

2.7.5. Electronic Feedback

Computer mediated feedback or electronic feedback is a new approach that emerged in L1 and L2 writing many years ago. There has been a great interest in integrating technology into the teaching of writing and benefit from automated feedback. This mode of providing feedback is generated by special software that is programmed to read and respond to students' pieces of writing (Ware & Warchaure, 2006). The programs provide feedback on grammar issues and the use of language, like Grammarly.

As for the benefits of electronic feedback, Chen (1997) found that this technology can save teachers time and gain more to concentrate on other aspects of writing rather than focussing on correction. Yet, a question that first comes to mind is whether the feedback produced by an automated computer is better than teachers written comments? Hearst (2000) determined that this issue is still questionable and there is no definite answer yet. Thus further research is needed to address this issue. However, those who developed this technology recommend that the use of automated feedback should be supplemental and cannot replace the teacher. The teacher can also rely on computers and e-mail students with their feedback especially when students are so far, on holidays for example.

2.8. Amount of Feedback

Investigating EFL learners' preferences regarding feedback proved that students prefer regular feedback on their writing, but some researchers agreed that too much feedback at once

might be demotivating. According to Bitchener and Ferris (2012), great and careful attention should be devoted to specifying the amount of feedback that learners should be provided with. The research conducted to investigate the amount of feedback that we should provide on students' writings arrive at the fact that too much feedback may have negative effects on learners because learners when overwhelmed with feedback may not read it at all. Supporting this view, Akhter (2007) declared that some teachers avoid correcting their students each time because they know that lot of correction gives students a negative notion about error correction. As a teacher, to decide how much and how many points of feedback should be corrected Brookhart (2008) stated that a deep knowledge of the following points should be taken into consideration:

- ✓ The topic in general and the learning target or targets in particular.
- ✓ Typical developmental learning progressions for those topics or targets.
- ✓ The student himself (Brookhart, 2008, p. 12)

This means that in order to know how much feedback should be provided a teacher should consider the topic and the objectives of his lesson. For example, if the lesson is about past tense, students may make some pronunciation mistakes. He finds, for example, some incorrect patterns spelled by students. Here it is wise for teachers to correct the spelling errors and ignore pronunciation ones, because it is really important to get the primary attention in order to minimize correction. It is also important to know what should come next relying on the teaching experience with those topics or objectives so that a teacher can specify how much correction is needed for example, as a teachers should know points that students should master to be able to operate in next lessons and thus, correction should tackle those points. The student is also an important aspect to consider when deciding on the amount of feedback, for example, advanced learners are more likely to have great attention ability than lower proficiency learners and so they are more likely to cope with greater amount of feedback.

2.9. Qualities of Effective Corrective Feedback

According to Terrell (1977) “Theories on correction are very diverse and at the same time very confusing. The teacher should make as little fuss as possible as far as correction is concerned” (p. 85). Whether the corrective feedback is directed to evaluate the written work or the oral one, giving effective feedback agreed to be a very complex task to accomplish as agreed by Kluger and DeNisi (1996). Naturally, the ways of providing students with feedback influence the learning outcomes. Generally, there are many common strategies of providing effective feedback that tend to support the learning process, for example, Ellis (2009) proposed some guidelines to correct learners’ errors which according to her constitute a set of principles that teachers can rely on when providing classroom feedback:

- ✓ A teacher should know his students' attitudes towards receiving CF and explain the importance of CF.
- ✓ CF is effective both for oral and written works hence the teacher should engage in the process and correct students’ errors both that are related to fluency and accuracy.
- ✓ Teachers should specify specific linguistic aspects that are to be corrected in each lesson.
- ✓ Teachers should make sure that learners are aware that they are being corrected
- ✓ Teachers should use and mix different strategies (e.g., explicit, implicit...), and adopt each strategy according to the learner being corrected.
- ✓ Oral CF can be both immediate and delayed written CF is almost delayed, hence teachers must experiment with the time of CF.
- ✓ Teachers should give learners the chance to respond to correction, and teachers should not oblige learners to respond correctly.

- ✓ Teacher should adopt Cf in accordance with the cognitive and affective needs of each individual learner.
- ✓ Teachers should keep correcting every single error several times to enable the learner to grasp and maintain the correction.
- ✓ Teachers should adopt the strategies they use in providing feedback to ensure that anxiety facilitates rather than debilitates (Ellis, 2009, p. 14).

Providing effective feedback is not an easy task. It requires considerable attention from teachers as well as from learners; each task has to be treated specifically. According to Hattie and Timperly (2007), feedback should focus on students' performance in relation to the task, and should answer three questions for learners: where am I going? (described as "feed up"), how am I going? (described as "feedback") and where to next? (described as "feed forward"). This means that feedback should provide information about current performance and the next steps. Moreover, Van den Berg, Ros, and Beijaard (2014) declared that effective feedback should be constructive and specify aspects that need improvement with information to help students achieve preselected goals.

2.10. Timing of Oral Corrective feedback

Oral corrective feedback delivery timing refers to when to give feedback and how often will it be given. In this regard, teachers are encountered with the option of either correcting erroneous forms immediately after the error or delaying the correction until a later point of time according to the situation. In other words, there are two conflicting points of view relating to the timing of oral feedback. Some researchers support immediate feedback as an effective means that inhibits errors being encoded into memory; whereas, others have argued for delayed feedback.

Many studies reviewed leading performance when feedback was given immediately among them: the meta-analysis studies which have been conducted by Kulik and Kulik

(1988), in which 53 separate studies with different methodologies variation reported that immediate feedback gets preferable outcomes compared to delayed feedback. They added that the classroom is also important, according to them, laboratories are appropriate for delayed feedback. Another supporter for immediate feedback is Brookhart (2008), for her, immediate feedback is the best choice because the main aim of feedback is to keep students active and trying to learn the target language. Accordingly, the process occurs while students are observant. She also added that bad timing is when we delay the feedback until the end. Furthermore, Hedge (2000) stated that accuracy- oriented activities should be conducted immediately and he listed a number of strategies that can be used in delayed feedback. For example, recording activity and then asking the students to identify and correct their own errors.

Doughty (2001), also said that effective feedback is immediate feedback. On the opposite, some researchers present arguments for delayed feedback. For example, Kulhavy and Anderson (1971) discovered that delayed feedback is better than immediate feedback. This perspective was the result of the 11 experiments they have conducted. Additionally, Cornell and Furn (2007) on their vocabulary research found that the outcomes of delayed feedback are superior to those of immediate feedback. Basically, it is not possible to reach any conclusion about the impact of immediate and delayed feedback because some research like the study conducted by Asari (2003), reported that there is such an important impact between delayed and immediate recasts; there is no impact of timing for learners. Besides, Mathan and Koedinger (2003) conducted various researches on the timing of feedback and they arrive at the following conclusion. The latter includes that the impact of feedback depends not only on timing of feedback but also depends on the nature of the task, and the ability of the students.

2.11. Teachers versus Student Preferences for Corrective Feedback

Most of the research studies discussed so far shed light on the teachers' and students' preferences for oral corrective feedback. Understanding these preferences is of substantial importance in the teaching and the learning processes. Significantly, if the teachers and students grasp the aim behind using specific oral corrective feedback strategies and agree on their use, oral corrective feedback will be productive. However, if teachers and students have different perspectives toward oral corrective feedback strategies, it leads to ineffective feedback. Subsequently, teachers should be aware of the students' preferences to facilitate the process of interaction in the class.

Truscott (1996) pointed out that teacher decisions should be based only on students' preferences. Nevertheless, teachers need to take into consideration students' voices not because they will follow their points of view but because they need to comprehend their expectations from the class. Accordingly, both teachers and students accept that oral corrective feedback as a significant tool to encourage students and increase their self-esteem (interview by Anna, 2013). According to Anna (2013) teachers prefer using praising and asking questions as two main techniques to create a positive atmosphere. Furthermore, she stated that oral corrective feedback is a complement to written feedback. In addition, explicit corrective feedback discourages the student to talking and leads them to focus on the linguistic aspects of the language and ignore meaning and communication (Long, 1996). However, Malin's (2013) thinking was totally the opposite in which she expressed her desire to provide the student with various types of oral corrective feedback. In her claim, a variation of oral corrective feedback strategies especially recast will help student and encourage them to learn more. Clearly, these were teachers' preferences and expectations.

Moving to students' preferences, these preferences are of crucial importance since they

can influence learning behaviours (Lyster et al., 2013). Learners tend to prefer corrective feedback in most contexts however; feedback should include factors such as learner's cultural background, previous and current language experiences, and proficiency level (Lyster et al., 2013). Malin and Anna (2013), in their interview, asked the students about the type of oral corrective feedback they prefer to receive, the majority preferred recasts, but they do not want recast in combination with praising because this would confuse them. Waring and Wong (2009), also stated that praising should be consistent to help the student in understanding what the teacher is praising them for. In this case, praising together with recasts will confuse students since they do not comprehend whether they are corrected or praised.

Moreover, Spada (2011) mentioned that age and memory component are paramount factors which influence the way student to perceive oral corrective feedback; older students perceive explicit oral feedback better because their aptitude and analytic abilities are developed. In addition, a study carried out by Preston and Tood-Mancillias (1985) gave prevision into the student's view regarding effective oral feedback in which students were asked about the aspects of feedback they found useful and if there is a specific aspect of oral feedback that increased or reduced self- esteem. Students consider directed feedback which focuses on certain aspects of speech more helpful. The researcher also stated that the instructor should use both negative and positive feedback. In other words, critical feedback or constructive feedback is helpful and positive feedback reinforces good self- esteem. To sum up, there is a difference between teachers' opinion about oral feedback and students' preferences on oral feedback. Teacher and student should find a type of oral feedback which can benefit both of them and facilitate the process of interaction in the class.

2.12. The Impact of Oral Corrective Feedback on Students' Writing

Writing is a complex process that involves planning, drafting, revising, and editing. In the revising stage, feedback is needed by a student to proofread their mistakes because errors should not appear in the student's final writing composition. According to Kroll (2003), second language writers avail and make the most development, when teachers interfere using some classroom strategies. Generally one of these interventions strategies is providing oral corrective feedback to students' writing in order to help the student analyse and correct their own mistakes. The term oral feedback refers to “the input from a reader to a writer with the effect of providing information to the writer for revision” (Keh, 1990, p. 294). The teacher proposes some changes that help in making the written text easier for the audience. At the same time, assist the writer of any piece of writing to be aware of the perspective of the reader to identify the confusion that exists in the text.

As mentioned by Keh (1990), in the following quote “the learners learn where he or she has misled or confused the reader but not supplying enough information, illogical organization, lack of development of ideas, or something like inappropriate word-choice or tense” (p. 295). In oral feedback, teachers provide comments in the form of questions, imperatives, praise, and suggestions. The effectiveness of oral corrective for improving students' writing is still uncertain (Hayland & Hyland, 2006). However, there are several studies which examined the impact of oral corrective feedback on students' writing. According to Brown (2000, p. 340) “we are still exploring ways to offer optional feedback to student writing”. Since writing is of crucial importance in the academic world, there are various researches that have been conducted to examine the impact of oral feedback on writing. For example, Hyland (2003) stated that conferencing is useful when a student is actively engaged, asking questions, explaining the meaning, and arguing instead of being calm and accepting advice provided by the teacher.

Johnson (1993, as cited in Gulley, 2012, p. 13) did a study that came with the following outcome: “the question, a tool often used by teachers and tutors during a writing conference, can be ineffective in eliciting a meaningful response from the student”. In the opposite, Carnicelli (1980 as cited in Shvidko, 2018, p. 20) in his research among English-major students at the University of Hampshire, reviewed that conferencing is preferable in-class teaching. In addition, Marefat (2005) examined the impact of oral corrective feedback on the writing of 17 male and female Iranian EFL learners. She found that males can write paragraphs better than females, whereas females overcome males in the writing of essays. She ended with the fact that students produce a piece of writing with a perfect quality without taking into consideration feedback strategies and techniques.

On the other hand, the teacher may ask about the students' goals and their attitude, and their perception of what they learned through writing a particular piece of writing. Moreover, Irons (2008) reported that in order for the teacher to provide good oral corrective feedback, the teacher should reinforce the clarity of feedback, especially when feedback is related to the way that helps learners improve their writing skill. To conclude, much of the research on the virtue of oral corrective feedback over students' writing concluded with the fact that oral feedback has a paramount impact on enhancing the writing of the student. However, we can say that feedback could be more effective if oral feedback is combined with written feedback for greater performance.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we defined oral corrective feedback on writing, and we explored its theoretical standpoints and controversies. In addition, we tried to give an overview of the strategies, types, sources, amount, and timing of oral corrective feedback. Eventually, we shed more light on the impact of oral corrective feedback on enhancing the writing process for EFL

learners.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Discussion

Introduction

While the two previous chapters have reviewed the basic literature of the research topic, this chapter is devoted to the practical framework of the overall study. In the first section, we will deal with the teachers' questionnaire and in the second section of the same chapter, we will analyze the pre-experiment. The collected data and the obtained results will help us to diagnose the impact of oral corrective feedback on enhancing students' writing. The chapter ends up with mentioning the limitations of the research study along with suggesting some pedagogical recommendations for future research.

3.1.1. Research Design

In an attempt to explore the impact of oral corrective feedback on enhancing students' writing, we have opted for the teachers' questionnaire as one of the main tools. This research instrument adhered to the quantitative approach of data analysis. In the current study, data is gathered using a quantitative paradigm to have convenient answers to the research questions. Dörnyei (2007) said that “all the various quantitative methods are aimed at identifying the relationship between variables by measuring them or manipulating them.” (p. 33)

3.1.2. The Sample

The participants in this study were seven written expression teachers in the department of English at Mohamed Sedik ben Yahia university-Jijel. The teachers' questionnaire was anonymous and respondents were asked about their work experience and educational level. The participants were chosen in accordance to their level and the module they teach to help us in accomplishing the aims of the study.

3.1.3. Data Collection Tool

To test our research hypotheses and ensure the answers to the research questions, a questionnaire was designed for written expression teachers. Brown (2000) defined questionnaire as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from existing answers.” (as cited in Dörnyei, 2003, p. 3). Through using questionnaire, the teachers' opinions and practices concerning the impact of oral corrective feedback on writing could be easily identified.

3.1.4. The Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was delivered online to 7 teachers of “written expression” in the department of English at Mohamed Sedik ben Yahia university-Jijel. On the 22nd of September at 9:00, all the participants (7 teachers), were asked to answer questionnaire. The teachers were very collaborative in that they returned back the answered online copies in less than one week. After gathering all the questionnaires, the answers of the participants converted into excel spread sheet form and analyzed. Unfortunately, we could not use a hard-copy questionnaire because the circumstances (Covid19).

3.1.5. The Description of the Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire consist of 22 questions grouped into three main sections. It incorporates a combination of close-ended questions, open-ended questions, and multiple choice questions. The first section encompasses three questions (Q1, Q2, Q3), it provides general information about teachers' experience in teaching and the teaching of “written expression” module. The second section is concerned with the writing skill, it is made up of five questions (Q4, Q5, Q6, Q7, Q8). It seeks at knowing the elements of effective writing and the complexities faced by students during the process of writing. Further, it attempts at

finding out the teachers' focus while evaluating the writing of students. The third section is about oral corrective feedback and its impact on students writing. This section is composed of fourteen questions (Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12, Q13, Q14, Q15, Q16, Q17, Q18, Q19, Q20, Q21, and Q22), these questions are fundamentally seeking information about the types of feedback mainly used by teachers and how often do students react to the oral feedback. Additionally, the remaining questions were asked in order to have a clear image about the timing of feedback, the preferences of student concerning feedback, and the teachers' views about the role of corrective feedback and if the absence of feedback would make any difference for the level of students in the writing module. Mainly, in the third section, close-ended questions were utilized because they are simpler for respondents to reply and also easy to be analyzed. Close-ended questions are the kind of questions where the respondents have to select one response from the already provided ones. They could be presented in a form of multiple choice questions or yes or no questions. The main features of this type of questions are that they can be simply numerically coded and they are more objective.

3.1.6. Presentation and Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire

Section One: General Information

Q 1: What is your degree?

Table 1

Teachers' Qualifications

Options	N	%
BA Licence	0	0
MA Master/Magister	4	57.1
Ph.D. (Doctorate)	3	42.9
Total	7	100

The finding presented in the above table shows that there are 4 teachers (57.1%) who have a MA (Master/Magister) degree, the other 3 teachers (42.9%) have a Ph.D. (Doctorate) whereas no one of the participants have a BA Licence. From the obtained results, it can be noticed that our Research sample is a variation of participants with MA degree and Ph.D. degree.

Q2: How long have you been teaching at the university?

Table 2

Teachers' Experience at University

Years	N	%
1-4	2	28.6
7-10	5	71.4
Total	7	100

The results presented in table 2 shows that 2 teachers (28.6%) have been teaching at university between 1-4 years, while 5 teachers have been teaching at university between 7-10 years. This implied that the acquired experience is to some extent reliable to rely on as far as the analysis of the designed questionnaire is concerned.

Q3: For how many years have you been teaching written expression?

Table 3

Teachers' Experience in Teaching Written Expression

Years	N	%
1-5	6	85.7
5-10	1	14.3
More than 10	0	0
Total	7	100

According to the findings shown above, The table 3 illustrates that the majority of participants (85.7%) have been teaching written expression between 1-5 years, whereas only one teacher have been teaching written expression between 5-10 years and non of the participants have been teaching written expression for more than 10 years. Compared with the years of English teaching at university, we can say that those teachers are not always interested in teaching the written expression module.

Section Two: The Writing Skill

Q 4: Effective writing is...

- a- Correct Grammar
- b- Good Ideas
- c- Precise Vocabulary
- d- Cohesive Writing
- e- Correct Spelling

Table 4*Qualities of Effective Writing*

Aspects	N	%
A	7	100
B	5	71.4
C	6	85.7
D	7	100
E	7	100
Total	7	100

As it is revealed in table 4, 100% of the teachers (7 teachers) see that effective writing is correct grammar, cohesive writing, and correct spelling. 71.4% of the teachers (5 teachers) see that effective writing is good ideas and 85.7% of them (6 teachers) believe that effective writing is precise vocabulary.

These results indicated that effective writing is mainly the correct use of grammar, following cohesive writing and using correct spelling. This can be traced back to the fact that

drafting a piece of writing is based on making a balance between all the previously mentioned aspects, since one cannot ignore the crucial role of each aspect both in relation to the other ones or in isolation .

Q 5: What are the most frequent difficulties faced by students in written expression?

- a- Spelling errors
- b- Misuse of grammar rules
- c- Punctuation mistakes
- d- First language interference
- e- Lack of organization

Table 5

Students' Difficulties in Writing

Options	N	%
A	5	71.4
B	6	85.7
C	5	71.4
D	3	42.9
E	4	57.1
Total	7	100

As table 5 represents, the majority of participants (85.7%) indicated that the most frequent writing difficulties for students is the misuse of grammar rules. 5 teachers (71.4%) believed that spelling errors and punctuation mistakes are the most frequent difficulties students face in writing. 57.1% of the teachers indicated that the lack of organization is among the most frequent difficulties for students while writing and only 42.9% of the participants (3 teachers) indicated that first language interference is one of the most frequent difficulties students face while writing.

The results implied that the most frequent difficulties that students face while writing are: the misuse of grammar rules, punctuation mistakes, and spelling errors. This can be related to the fact that students pay more attention to the content at the expense of form when they write something.

Q6: How do you evaluate your students' writing skill compared to other skills?

Table 6

Teachers' Evaluation for their Students' Writing Skill

Options	N	%
Good	0	0
Satisfactory	1	14.3
Unsatisfactory	6	85.7
Poor	0	0
Total	7	100

According to the table 6, the teachers' evaluation to their students shows that the majority of teachers 85.7% (6 teachers) said that their students' writing skill is unsatisfactory. Only one teacher claimed that his students' writing skill is satisfactory and none of the teachers could evaluate his students' writing skill as good or poor.

These responses maintained that students' writing ability is unsatisfactory compared to other language skill, this can be linked to the fact that students speak more than they write and they pay more attention to fluency at the expense of accuracy.

Q7: How would you describe the writing skill?

Table 7

Teachers' perceptions of the Difficulty/Easiness of the Writing Skill

Options	N	%
Very difficult	1	14.3
Difficult	5	71.4
Easy	1	14.3
Very Easy	0	0
Total	7	100

As table 7 displays, only one teacher finds writing as an easy skill, and one other teacher finds it very difficult, the others (5 teachers) who represent the majority of participants (71.4%) opt for difficult. These results may suggest that writing is a difficult skill,

since students are required to stick to certain rules and structures in polishing a piece of writing.

Q8: When assessing students’ writing do you give more attention to

- a- Process
- b- Content

Table 8
Teachers’ Focus in Writing Assessment

Options	N	%
Process	3	42.9
Content	4	57.1
Total	7	100

The table above reveals that 57.1% of participants focus on content when they assess their students’ pieces of writing, while 42.9% of them focus on process when assessing students’ writing. This clarified that some teachers give more attention to content and some of them focus more on process during the assessment of students’ writing. Those who opted for process believe that assessing the procedures that students follow when writing is of paramount importance for the development of this skill. However, those who opted for content believe that the assessment of students’ final product will give students a clear idea about their major problems in writing.

Section Three: Teachers' Oral Corrective Feedback

Q9: Do you use feedback in the writing process?

Table 9

Teachers' Use of Feedback During the Writing Process

Options	N	%
Yes	7	100
No	0	0
Total	7	100

Table 9 indicates that all teachers (7 teachers) use feedback during the writing process. From the analysis of this question, it is remarkable that teachers of written expression tend to use feedback during writing classes, perhaps because it facilitates the process of teaching writing.

Q 10: What kind of feedback do you use for your students during the writing process?

Table 10

Teachers' Choice of the Type of Feedback for Writing

Options	N	%
Oral	0	0
Written	0	0
Both	7	100
Total	7	100

As shown in table 10, all the participants opted for the option both; which means they use both oral and written feedback in writing. From the results obtained, it can be noticed that teachers of written expression are using both oral and written feedback in response to students' written work. Mainly because they believe that some aspects of writing require oral correction while others require written commentaries.

Q11: You think that errors should be...

- a- Neglected
- b- Carefully treated

Table 11*Errors' Treatments*

Options	N	%
Neglected	0	0
Carefully treated	7	100
Total	7	100

All the informants believe that errors should be carefully treated. This showed that teachers are aware of the importance of treating errors for improving the writing skill.

Q 12: How often do your students respond to your oral feedback?

Table 12

Frequency of Responding to Oral Feedback

Options	N	%
Often	3	42.9
Sometimes	3	42.9
Rarely	1	14.3
Never	0	0
Total	7	100

From the analysis of the results presented in table 12, we find that 3 teachers reported that their students often respond to their oral feedback on writing, another 3 teachers reported that sometimes their students respond to oral feedback. Only one teacher stated that his students rarely respond to oral feedback. We notice from the obtained data that students tend to respond to oral feedback frequently, Perhaps because it is more memorable for students than the written one.

Q 13: What do you consider when giving oral feedback?

- a- Form
- b- Content

Table 13*Feedback' Focus*

Options	N	%
Form	0	0
Content	0	0
Both	7	100
Total	7	100

The answers generated from this question show that all the teachers (100%) take into consideration both form and content while providing oral feedback. This implied that both form and content are important in producing a comprehensible piece of writing.

Q 14: How often do you provide oral feedback?

Table 14

Frequency of Providing Oral Feedback

Options	N	%
Often	5	71.4
Sometimes	2	28.6
Rarely	0	0
Never	0	0
Total	7	100

As table 14 outlines, 5 teachers (71.4%) said they often provide oral feedback, while the others, 2 teachers (28.6%) said they sometimes do. This can be due to the fact that oral feedback unlike the written one, is less time consuming and addressed to all students not only the one who commit the mistake.

Q 15: When do you correct?

- a- While the students' are writing
- b- Correct the final draft

Table 15

Feedback' Timing

Options	N	%
A	2	28.6
B	5	71.4
Total	7	100

As shown in table 15, 71.4% of teachers (5 teachers) seem to favour correcting the final draft of students' pieces of writing, and only 28.6% of them prefer giving oral feedback while the students' are writing. From these results we can conclude that teachers tend to correct the final drafts of students instead of providing feedback during the writing process. This is because teachers believe that students must concentrate when writing and correcting their errors will confuse them.

Q 16: Do you face any difficulties while implementing oral feedback in writing classes?

Table 16

Teachers' Attitudes Towards the Difficulty of Implementing Oral Feedback on Writing.

Options	N	%
Yes	5	71.4
No	2	28.6
Total	7	100

The table 16 indicates that more than half of the participants (71.4%) face difficulties in giving oral feedback on writing, and only (28.6%) of them reported that they did not face any difficulties during the process. This revealed that the majority of written expression teachers find difficulties in implementing oral feedback on writing.

Q 17: If yes please mention some.

This question is a clarification for the difficulties that teachers face while providing oral feedback on written work. Their responses were as follow:

- ✓ Cannot cover all the errors committed by the learners
- ✓ Class size/students' fear of teacher or peer evaluation...
- ✓ Time limits, great number of students and errors
- ✓ Generally, I do not face difficulties when implementing feedback in classroom
- ✓ lack of time, effort and strategy to reach the big number of students in each class

Their answers are nearly the same, they agreed on that time' limits, great number of students in the class, and great number of errors represents the major difficulties that teachers face when giving oral feedback.

Q 18: What kind of error' correction do you provide for your students' writing errors?

- a- Explicit feedback
- b- Recasts
- c- Clarification requests
- d- Metalinguistic
- e- Elicitation
- f- Repetition

Table 17

Types of Oral Correction

Options	N	%
A	3	42.9
B	3	42.9
C	3	42.9
D	3	42.9
E	4	57.1
F	1	14.3
Total	7	100

The results of this question show that teachers use more than one type of oral feedback. More than the half of participants use elicitation (57.1%). 42.9% said they use recasts, explicit feedback, and metalinguistic clues, whereas only one teacher opted for repetition as a way of providing oral feedback. The results implied that teachers of written expression use a mixture of techniques of oral feedback. This can be traced back to the fact that each type of errors required certain feedback's strategies.

Q 19: As a way of providing oral feedback in the class do you prefer...

- a- Teachers' feedback
- b- Peer feedback
- c- Conferencing
- d- Self feedback
- e- Electronic feedback

Table 18

Teachers' Preferences for the Source of Feedback

Options	N	%
A	2	28.6
B	4	57.1
C	1	14.3
D	0	0
E	0	0
Total	7	100

According to the above table, we can say that more than half of teachers (57.1%) reported that they prefer peer feedback in writing classes, and two teachers (28.6%) reported that they rely more on teachers' feedback, whereas only one teacher prefer making conferences to provide his students with feedback, still none of the participants opted for self feedback or electronic one. Based on this analysis, we can notice that peer feedback is the kind of feedback mostly used by teachers of written expression. This is due to the fact that this kind of feedback is the most welcomed one by students; students feel more comfortable when receiving feedback from their peers.

Q 20: Do you respect students' preferences concerning writing?

Table 19

Teachers' Attitudes Towards Students' Preferences in Writing.

Options	N	%
Yes	7	100
No	0	0
Total	7	100

According the findings presented in table 20, all the participants stated that they respect students' preferences in writing and according to their preferences that they give them written tasks. This implied that written expression teachers are aware of the importance of following students' preferences in writing. They believe that students will be more motivated when they write according to their preferences.

Q 21: What are the positive/negative effects of your feedback on your students?

Positive aspects

- ✓ They become more attentive to common errors.
- ✓ More efforts to write a better version
- ✓ To raise their awareness about their writing problems and pay more attention to them
- ✓ It helps them develop self correction and proofreading while writing.
- ✓ They become motivated to write. They learn from their errors.
- ✓ Teachers' feedback allows students to recognize their mistake and correct them.
- ✓ It raises their awareness to the need of monitoring writing and exploiting the formal properties in producing their compositions

From teachers' answers above, we notice that they all agree on the same ideas about the positive aspects of their feedback on learners. This includes: making students more aware about their writing errors, motivate them to write better, and learn from their errors. Concerning the negative aspects, none of the teachers mentions something about.

Q 22: In your opinion, would the absence of teachers' oral corrective feedback make any difference for the level of students in the writing module? Please explain how.

Teachers' Answers

- ✓ Yes, it would. Oral corrective feedback is meant for all the students while written corrective feedback is meant for only one student.
- ✓ Yes/If no oral corrective feedback, students will not learn from their mistakes. The opposite is quite true: students will work harder so as not to make the same mistakes and will write even better.
- ✓ Yes of course. If the students are not told where their weaknesses are , they will go on doing the same errors.

- ✓ Oral feedback is more memorised by students and its constant use leads them to be conscious writers
- ✓ Not very much. It helps but is not that important.
- ✓ Yes, of course. The absence of oral corrective feedback accounts for the absence of sharing knowledge between the teacher and his students and maintaining a motivating atmosphere in classroom that involves active participation of all students.
- ✓ Feedback by the teacher or feedback by peers or classroom discussion of common errors is essentially directed and managed by the teacher. So, the teacher is the one who guides the process of oral correction. Based on my experience, I see it as fundamental especially when it is done in a systematic manner, regularly and in a manner that makes the student accountable for the final product.

From these answers, we remarked that the absence of the teachers' oral corrective feedback will contribute to worsen students' level or at least keep it where it is without improvement. This is because oral feedback helps in maintaining active motivating atmosphere, It is also more memorized by students than other forms of feedback, and it is meant for all students not only the one who made the error.

3.1.7. Overall Discussion of the Results

The analysis of teachers' questionnaire reveals that there is an assent among teachers about the importance of oral corrective feedback on enhancing the writing of students. Almost all teachers agree that oral corrective feedback is a key factor for learners to improve their writing skill. In the first section which is concerned with general information, the findings show that the majority of teachers (85.7%) have been teaching written expression for 1 to 5 years. This indicates that their teaching experience would help us for conducting our research's aims.

The results obtained from the analysis of the second section of the questionnaire which is concerned with the writing skill, clearly show that the majority of teachers see that effective writing is the correct use of grammar, following cohesive writing and correct spelling. The results also revealed that the most common difficulties faced by students while writing are the misuse of grammar rules. Concerning the teachers' evaluation of students' writing skill, most of teachers thinks that the writing ability of student is unsatisfactory compared to other language skills. In addition, the teachers consider the writing skill as difficult and they report that they focus on content (57.1% of respondents) when they assess their students' writing.

The analysis of the last section which is related to oral corrective feedback, clearly demonstrates that all the teachers use feedback in the writing process and they make use of both oral and written feedback. Furthermore, all the teachers are aware of the significance of error treatments. As for the frequency of responding to oral feedback, students respond to oral feedback frequently. Most of the teachers agree that both form and content should be considered while delivering oral corrective feedback. Generally, most of the teachers prefer correcting the final draft of their student instead of correcting while students are writing. As for the difficulties faced by teachers while implementing oral feedback, teachers agree on time's limits and the massive number of students. As far as the teachers' preferences for the source of feedback, most of them prefer peer feedback and they said that they respect students' preferences for oral corrective feedback.

Eventually, the majority of teachers assert that oral corrective feedback has a great impact on enhancing students' writing and its absence would affect negatively on the writing level of the students. In brief, from the analysis of data obtained, it can be concluded that written expression teachers are highly aware of the importance of oral corrective feedback on improving students' writing. They further suggest that using a combination of oral and written feedback could be more effective and help students for great performance.

3.2. The Pre-experiment

3.2.1. Sample-Participants in the Pre-experiment

Khan (2010) claimed that participants present the people who are contributed in the study. Thus, our population is 2nd year EFL students at the university of Mohamed Sedik ben Yahia-Jijel, faculty of literature and languages, department of English. Factually, our sample consists of two groups (G4+G5) of 52 students, but only 40 attended their classes evenly. The participants were chosen in accordance to the content they are studying in written expression (paragraphs' writing

3.2.2. The Administration and the Description of the Pre-experiment

The writing test purposed to examine the use of oral corrective feedback as a main strategy to help students in improving their writing skill. On the 21st of March 2020 at 8: 00, all the participants (40 students), were asked to write a short paragraph in 90 minute time. Concerning the topic, the first group (G4) wrote about “their dream travel destination.” while the second group (G5) wrote about “unforgettable experience.” After the students finished their first drafts, these were gathered and then proofread by the teacher and the researchers. Then, the researchers classified and analyzed the students' errors and submitted the first draft to the teacher. One hour later, the teacher was requested by the researchers to provide the students by oral corrective feedback. In the same time, the researchers recorded teachers' oral corrective feedback and the students were not allowed to see the first draft's written correction. After receiving oral corrective feedback, the students asked to improve their first drafts. Subsequently, the paragraphs that were rewritten (the final drafts), were collected and corrected. After that, the researchers selected 20 papers to receive a detailed analysis of the changes made by students, to investigate any development in students' final drafts as a result of the oral corrective feedback provided by the teacher. To achieve randomization in the

selection of the sample papers, all the participants' names were written on a sheet of papers, then, an oral expression teachers was asked to select 20 papers; the stub were discarded.

3.2.3. Presentation and Analysis of the Pre- Experiment

The present pre-experiment is devoted to explore whether students take into consideration their teachers' oral corrective feedback on their pieces of writing. In this study the oral feedback is said to be integrated by students instead of being neglected if they produce genuine changes and actual progress in their last drafts compared with initial ones. Therefore, the importance of such feedback for students is determined by the number of teachers' oral comments that appeared in final drafts (after receiving feedback) as contrasted with first drafts (the ones commented on).

The oral feedback given by the teacher on the initial drafts addressed both form and content-level aspects of writing. The first category comprises teachers' comments on mistakes of grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics. The other category includes comments on content-level issues such as: strong/weak topic sentence, good/poor content, organization of ideas, cohesion, coherence ..., It is worth mentioning however that the comments analysed in this study are limited to comments on writing shortcomings. Surface and meaning- level comments are further explained in the following table:

Written comments categories	Sub categories	Description of the category
Form-level comments	Grammar mistakes	-Verb tense, subject-verb agreement, use of articles, plural formation, adjective/adverb formation. -Sentence structure: word order, run on sentences, fragments, very long sentences.
	Vocabulary	-Word choice, missing words, unnecessary words, spelling.
	Mechanics	-Punctuation and capitalization
Content-level comments	Content	-Poor argumentation, lack of supporting details and examples, contradictory ideas, overall treatment of text...

Figure 2: Categorization of Teachers' Oral comments

Regarding the process of Commenting on students' performance, teachers' feedback provision practice went in line with the findings explored by the analyses of the previous questionnaire (Q 18). She did not use one feedback strategy, rather her comments took one of the different feedback techniques exemplified as follows:

- ✓ **Explicit feedback:** when the teacher clearly indicates that what the students writes is incorrect and corrected it directly.

e.g. **d**istination is misspelled it should be written with **e** not **i**

- ✓ **Clarification request:** when the teacher gives a question indicating that the sentence is ill formed and that a repetition or reformulation is required.

e.g. you will be amazed by **the quantity** of shops in South Korea.

Comment: I did not understand what do you mean?

- ✓ **Recasts:** the teacher reformulates the sentence minus the error.

e.g. for the **day coming**

Comment: for the coming day.

- ✓ **Metalinguistic cues:** when the teacher provides information about the erroneous form without explicitly correcting it especially concerning ideas.

Comment: your paragraph lacks supporting examples.

3.2.4. Overall Discussion and Interpretation of the Results of the Pre-experiment

As mentioned previously, feedback incorporation and effectiveness in this study is determined by the proportion of comments on final drafts as opposed to initial ones. In addition the analysis and comparison of students' first and last compositions revealed some interesting conclusions that are worth mentioning.

Concerning first drafts, all the participants followed the same obstructive path; almost all of them had major grammatical problems (with subject-verb agreement, tenses, use of articles, sentence structure ...), vocabulary (errors of word choice and spelling), and mechanics (punctuation and capitalization are disregarded by students). Content, however, was not as problematic as form. Students committed few errors at this level and the teacher

provided less comments. Accordingly the oral comments provided on students initial drafts were mainly surface-level ones.

As for the final drafts, i.e. after the teacher identified and commented on the mistakes committed in first attempts. Students' writing skill has significantly improved. In the last drafts, lesser errors were identified, consequently fewer oral comments were provided.

All in all, there was a significant improvement in writing and a considerable incorporation of teachers' oral comments in the post feedback drafts. The majority of students exhibited progress in their final drafts as they manifest better usage of grammar including, the use of more English like structures and fewer mistakes on agreement, tenses, and article use. It was also remarkable that the students paid more attention to punctuation and capitalization. Moreover, it is remarkable that the students integrated their teachers' suggestions concerning word choice and spelling. However, there remained some aspects of feedback that were neglected by the participants and that were perhaps a result of students' lack of concentration.

The analysis of the pre-experiment as far as content is concerned, concluded that teachers' oral comments on content were not highly integrated as was the case with form-level comments. This can be ascribed to the fact that comments made on form were given mainly through explicit correction and recasts and this ease the process of correction for students and things become clearer. In contrast, comments that addressed meaning-level aspects of writing were provided through metalinguistic cues by giving directions instead of direct correction, this way of correcting leaves some kind of ambiguity and results in less improvement. All the aforementioned observations are exemplified using extracts from students' first and final drafts in the following table:

Comments categories	First drafts	Second drafts
Grammar	-Last summer I have experienced	Last summer I experienced
	-It have started...	-It has started...
	-One of those dreams are...	-One of those dreams is...
	-An problem, Modern cities...	-A problem, Modern cities
	-The main different between	-The main difference
	-We started the preparations before two months.	-... two months before.
Vocabulary	-A month stilled for exams...	-A month left for exams...
	-I have many interesting to do...	-I have many interesting things to do...
	-The best place for me to be in there is...	-The best place for me to be in is...
	-Expencive, beleive, foriegne...	Expensive, believe,
		Foreign

mechanics	-Turkey and Japan are two destinations that I dream to visit; those two countries...	-Turkey and Japan are two destinations that I dream to visit, those two countries...
	-asia, london...	-Asia, London...
Content	-Weak topic sentence	-Strong topic sentence
	-Absence of coherence	More connected paragraph

Figure 3: Students' Response to Feedback

The statistical data analysis concluded that in the total of students' initial drafts (20 paragraphs), there were 206 comments, on average, there were about 10 comments per paragraph. The lowest number of comments was 4, the highest was 23. The proportion of comments in the students' initial compositions is shown in the following figure:

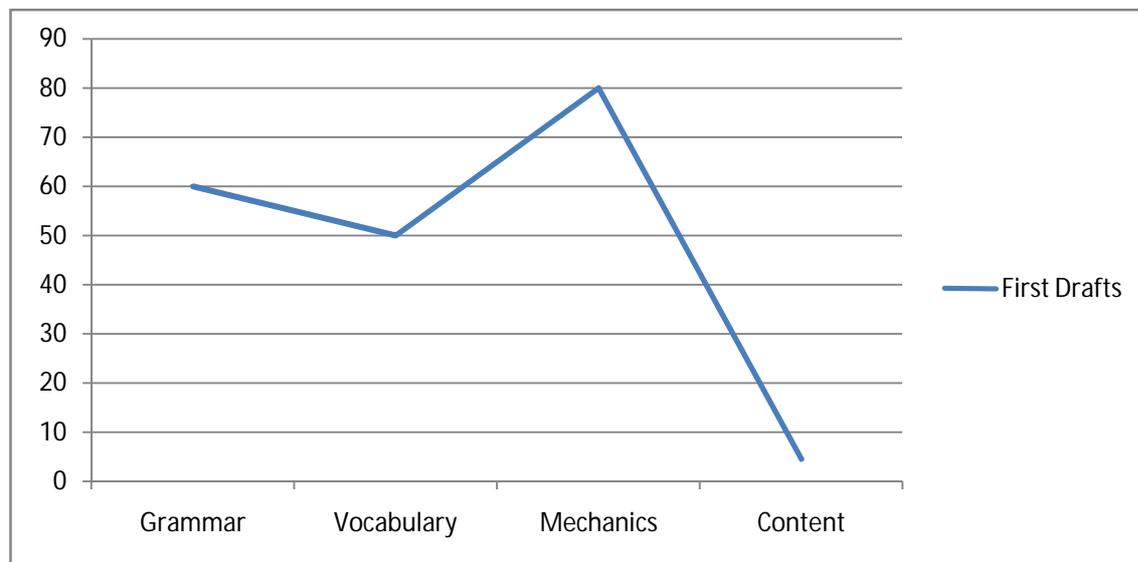


Figure 4: Proportion of Oral Comments in first Drafts

However after the teacher extracts the mistakes and gives suggestions for students to improve their writing compositions. The initial statistics shifted significantly. The number of

comments on final drafts decreased to 116. On average, there were about 5 comments per paragraph, the lowest number was 2, and the highest was 13. In other words a considerable amount of oral comments that had been received on first drafts were taken into account by participants when writing their final drafts. About 56% of oral comments were responded to by students and 44% were overlooked. The analysis of the pre-experiment implies that the teachers' oral feedback results in a significant improvement in students writing. Figure 5 clearly illustrates the situation.

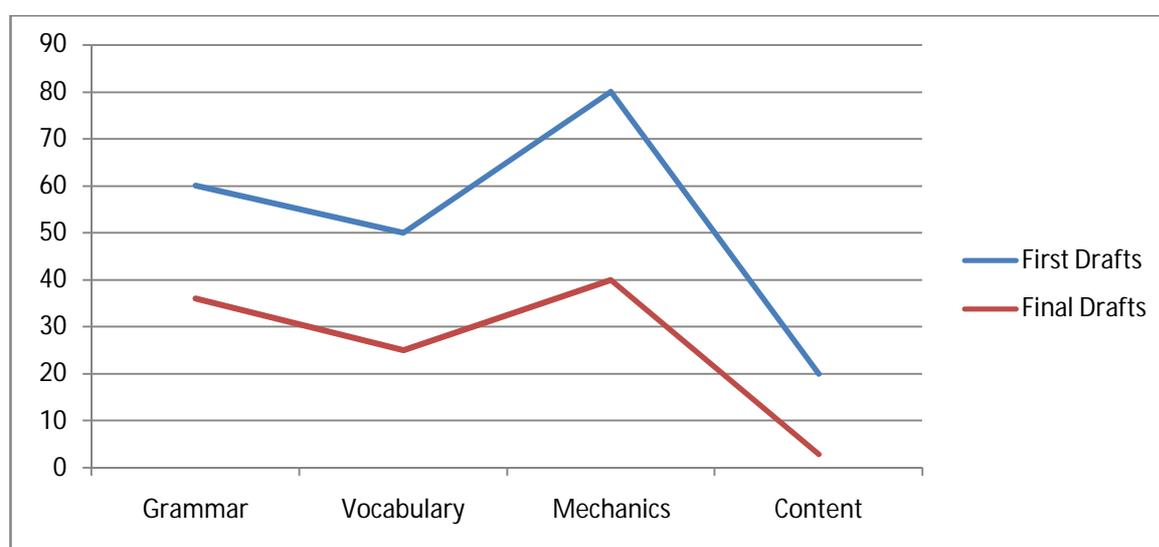


Figure 5: proportion of Oral Comments Across Drafts.

Conclusion

The chapter is practical in nature; it has presented the findings yielded by two research instruments used in the present study. Throughout it, light has been shed on teachers' perception about the importance of oral corrective feedback on enhancing students writing. There has also been an investigation of students' reaction to oral corrective feedback that happens before the final drafts. Based on comparing the results of the teachers' questionnaire and the pre-experiment, we could say that there is a strong connection between variables; our hypotheses have been confirmed.

3.3. The Limitations of the Study

The present study was carried out at the university of Mohamed Sedik ben Yahia-Jijel. We have conducted a research on “the impact of oral corrective feedback on enhancing students' writing.” Hence, we have confronted many obstacles such as: the results obtained cannot be generalized to all learners because we were not able to include a large sample of students from various levels. In addition, the small group of participants teachers. However, the participation of seven written expression teachers compared with the whole number of teachers at the department of English is considerable. Yet, this research tried all the possible ways to end up with valid and reliable results.

3.4. Recommendations

The current research attempted to provide a deeper understanding of the impact of oral corrective feedback on enhancing students' writing. Indeed, after analyzing the teachers' questionnaire and the pre-experiment, we would like to suggest and provide some recommendations for further research:

Teachers have to inform students about the significant role of the writing skill, and they should motivate them to write more.

Teachers should make students aware of the great value of oral corrective feedback and that by listing the benefits of this strategy to enhance students' writing.

Teachers should focus on the right timing for delivering oral corrective feedback; otherwise, the benefits of oral corrective feedback could not be obtained.

Teachers should focus on explicit feedback that is related to content-level errors because these types of errors did not seem to be improved through implementing oral corrective feedback.

General Conclusion

The current investigation examined the role of teachers' oral corrective feedback in enhancing EFL students writing performance. It is fundamentally aimed at exploring the written expression teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards using oral corrective feedback as a relevant strategy for developing their students writing performance. By the same token, it sought to explore the effects of oral corrective feedback on students' paragraphs writing. The overall research consisted of three main chapters, two chapters are the theoretical part concerning the literature review and the last chapter is practical. The practical part contained a detailed analysis of the teachers' questionnaire and the pre-experiment that have been used to accomplish the aims of the study.

The teachers' questionnaire and the pre-experiment were used with a sample of 7 written expression teachers at the department of English at Mohamed Sedik ben Yahia university-Jijel, and second year EFL students in the same university. The findings show that teachers have a positive standpoints concerning the use of oral corrective feedback for developing EFL learners writing performance. In addition, the analysis of the pre-experiment concluded that teachers' oral corrective feedback on form-level errors were highly effective. However, teachers' oral corrective feedback on content-level errors were not highly integrated. This means that oral corrective feedback seemed to improve writings' errors related to the form of the language while errors related to the content of the language were not highly improved. The findings of teachers' questionnaire and the pre-experiment confirmed our hypotheses that if teachers use oral corrective feedback, this will reflect positively on students' writing performance. This research attempted to provide students with an influential way to develop their writing proficiency and provide teachers with effective strategies for delivering oral corrective feedback.

References

- Abi Samra, N. (2003). An analysis of errors in Arabic speakers' English writings. American university of Beirut. Retrieved from <http://abiasamra03.tripod.com/nada/languageacq-erroranalysis.html>.
- Akhter, T. (2007). *Giving Feedback and Correcting Errors in EFL Classroom*. BRAC University.
- Aliouchouche, F. (2017) *Developing the writing skills through reading and writing workshop strategy: The case of firstyear LMD students at the university of Bejaia* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Mohamed Lamine Debaghine, Sétif 2, Algeria.
- Anderson, R. C., & Kulhavy, R. W. (1971). Feedback procedures in programmed instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 62, 148-156. doi:10.1037/h0030766
- Andrade, H., & Du, Y. (2007). Student responses to criteria-referenced self assessment. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 32(2), 159-181. doi: 10.1080/02602930600801928
- Anna, F., & Malin, A. (September 20, 2013). Oral feedback in the EFL classroom. personal interview.
- Banister, P., & Baker, I. (2000). *Self Assessment*. Newcastle. University of Northumbria. Retrieved from <http://english.heacademy.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/self.pdf>
- Bell, J., & Burnaby, B. (1984). *A handbook for ESL literacy*. Toronto: OISE.
- Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing*. New York: Routledge.
- Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14(3), 191-205. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2005.08.001

- Bjork, L., & Raisanen, C. (1997). *Academic Writing : A university writing course* (2nd ed). Copenhagen Business School Press.
- Bouraya, W. (2012). *The role of teacher's feedback in improving EFL learners oral production case study: Second year LMD students at Biskra* (Unpublished Master Thesis). University of Mohammed Kheider Biskra, Algeria.
- Brookhart, S. M. (2008). *How to give effective feedback to your students*. USA. ASCD.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). White Plains, NJ: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Byrne, D. (1988). *Teaching writing skills*. (New ed.). longman
- Caudery, T. (1998). *Increasing students' awareness of genre through text transformation exercises: An old classroom activity revisited*. Retrieved February 25, 2020, from <http://www.latrobe.edu.au/education/celia/tesl-ej/ej11/a2.html>
- Chastain, K. (1976). Developing second language skills. *Theory to Practise*, 33(4), 565-566. [doi:10.3138/cmlr.33.4.565b](https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.33.4.565b)
- Chaudron, C. (1977). A descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners errors. *Language Learning*, 27(1), 29-46.
- Chelsa, E. (2006). *Write better essays in just 20 minutes a day*. New York: Learning Express.
- Chen, J. (1997). Computer generated error feedback and writing process: A link. *TESL-EJ*, 2(3). Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ579782>
- Chomsky, N. (1975). *Reflection on language*. New York: Pantheon.
- Coe, N., Rycroft, R., & Ernest, P. (1983). *A problem-solving approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge

University Press.

Crème, P., & M. R. Lea. (2008). *Writing at university a guide for students*. UK: McGraw-Hill Education.

Daris, D., & Ching, K. (2009). Common errors in written English essays of form one Chinese student: A case study. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 10 (2), 242-253.

Delrose, L. N. (2011). *Investigating the use of graphic organizers for writing* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation), Louisiana State University.

Dörnyei, Z. (2002). *Questionnaire in second language research: Construction, Administration, and Processing*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Doughty, C. (2001). Instructed SLA: Constraints, composition, and enhancement. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 256-310). New York: Blackwell.

Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, S. *Language Two*. New York: Oxford Press.

Eginli, I., & Solhi, M. (2020). Perceived social self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety among undergraduated English teacher candidates: The case of Turkey. *Novitas- ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 14(1), 13-24.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*. 1(1), 3-18. Retrieved from http://epi.sc.edu/ar/AS_4_files/Ellis,%202009.pdf

Erlam, R., Ellis, R., & Batstone, R. (2013). Oral corrective feedback on L2 writing: Two approaches compared. *System*. 41(2), 257-268.

essing learners receptivity to teacher response in L2 composing. *Journal of Second language Writing*, 3(2), 141-163.

Fazio, L. (2001). The effect of corrections and commentaries on the journal writing accuracy of minority- and majority- language students. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10(4), 235-249.

Ferris, D. (2003). *Response to students writing: Implications for second language Students*. London: Lawerance Erlbum Association.

Ferris, D. R. (1995). Student reactions to teachers response in multiple-draft composition classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(1), 35-51.

Ferris, D. R. (1997). The influence of teacher commentary on student revision. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(3), 15-182.

Ferris, D. R. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of second language writing*, 8(1), 1-11.

Ferris, D. R. (2003). *Response to student writing : Implications for second language students*. London: Lawerance Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Ferris, D. R., Pezone, S., Tade, C. R., & Tinti, S. (1997). Teacher commentary on student writing: Descriptions and implications. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6(2), 155-182.

Frey, N., & Fisher, D. (2011). *The formative assessment action plan: Practical steps to more successful teaching and learning*. United States of America. Retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org/Publications/Books/Overview/The-Formative-Assessment-Action-Plan.aspx>

Galko, F. D. (2002). *Better writing right now using words to your advantage*. New York: Learning

Express.

- Ganji, M. (2009). Teacher-correction, peer-correction and self-correction: Their impacts on Iranian students' IELTS essay writing performance. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, 6, 117-139. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/268447879_Teacher-correction_Peer-correction_and_Self-correction_Their_Impacts_on_Iranian_Students'_IELTS_Essay_Writing_Performance
- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). A Students' s contribution to second language learning. Part2: *Affective Variable Langue Teaching Journal*, 26(1), January CUP.
- Graham, S., Harris, K., & Mason, L. (2005). Improving the writing performance, knowledge, and self-efficacy of struggling young writers: The effects of self- regulated strategy development. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*,30(2), 207-241. Retrieved from <http://asu.pure.elsevier.com/en/publications/improving-the-writing-performance-knowledge-and-self-efficacy-of->
- Grass, S. (2003). Input and interaction, In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 104-129). Oxford, Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Grass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2006). Input, interaction and output: An overview. *ALLA Review*, 19, 3-17. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/So261444806003399>.
- Greenberg, J., & Rath, C. (1985). Empowering students through writing. *Educational Leadership*, 42(5), 10-13.
- Gulley, B.B. (2012). Feedback of developemnt writing Students' first draftof . *Journal Development Education*,36(1), 16-23.Retrieved from <http://www.ncde.appstate.edu/publications.htm>
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching* (3rd ed.). UK: Pearson Education

Limited.

Harmer, J. (2004). *How to teach writing*. Edinburgh gate: Pearson Education Limited, Longman.

Harmer, J. (2007). *How to teach English*. England: Pearson Education Limited.

Harris, K. R. Schmidt, T., & Graham, S. (1997). Every child can write: Strategies for composition and self- regulation in the writing process. Retrieved from

<http://www.ldonline.org/article/6207>

Hattie, J., & Timperly, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 81-112. [doi:10.3102/003465430298487](https://doi.org/10.3102/003465430298487)

Hearst, M. (2000). The debate on automated essay grading. *Intelligence Systems*, 15(5), 22-37.

Heaton, J. B. (1975). *Writing English language test*. London: Longman.

Hedgcock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1996). Some input on input: Two analyses of student rseponse to expert feedback in L2 writing. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80 (2), 5-10.

Hedgcock, J., & Leftkowitz, N. (1994). Feedback on feedback: Ass

Hedgcock, J., & Leftkowitz, N. (1996). Some input on input :Two analysis of students response to expert feedback in L2 writing . *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(3), 287-308.

Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford University Press.

Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K., & F. Hyland. (2006). *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Irons, A. (2008). *Enhancing learning through formative essesement*, Routledge, London.

- Kane, T. S. (2000). *The oxford essential guide to writing*. New York: Berkley.
- Kaplan, R. (1967). "Contrastive rhetoric and the teaching of composition", *TEOSL Quarterly*, 1 (3), 10-16.
- Kasanga, L. (2002). Students' response to peer and teacher feedback in a first-year writing course. *Journal for Language Teaching*, 38 (1), 64-99. doi: 10.4314/jlt.v38i1.6028
- Keh, C. L. (1990). Feedback in the writing process: A model and methods for implementation. *ELT Journal*, 44(4), 294-304. doi: 10-1093/elt/44.4.294
- Khan, J. H. (2010). *Sample APA paper for students inserted in learning APA style 6 th edition*. Illinois State University.
- Kluger, A. N., & Denisi, A. (1996). The effects of feedback interventions on performance: A historical review, a meta-analysis and a preliminary feedback intervention theory. *Psychological Bulletin*, 119(2), 254-284. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/232458848_The_Effects_of_Feedback_Interventions_on_Performance_A_Historical_Review_a_Meta-Analysis_and_a_Preliminary_Feedback_Intervention_Theory
- Kroll, B. (2003). Considerations for teaching an EFL/ESL writing course. In M. Celce Muricia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (3rd ed.), pp. 219-232.
- Kulik, J. A., & Kulik, C-L. C. (1988). Timing of feedback and verbal learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 58, 79-97. doi:10.2370/1170349.
- Lee, I. (2009). Feedback revolution: Whats gets in the way? *ELTJournal*, 28, 1-2 LT.
- Levine, M. (1975). *A cognitive theory of learning: Research in hypothesis testing*. Hills dale, NJ: Lawerance Erlbum Association.

- Li Waishing, J. (2000). A process approach to feedback on writing. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 19(2), 47-64. Retrieved from <http://www.isetl.org/ijtlhe>
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Long, M. H. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de Bot, R. Ginsborg., & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language researching cross-cultural perspective* (pp. 39-52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W.C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). Academic Press, Sun Diego.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66.
- Lyster, R., Saito, K., & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Learning*, 46(1), 1-40.
- Mango, K., & Amarless, A. (2011). Teachers' practices in second language academic writing classrooms. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Assessment*, 6 (2), 91-196.
- Marefat, F. (2005). Oral feedback in an EFL writing context. *Pazhuhesh-e Zabanha-Ye Khereji*, 20, 101-118
- Martinez, S. (2006). Should we correct our students errors in L2 learning, *16*, 3-4.
- Mathan, S., & Koedinger, K.R. (2003). Recasting the feedback debate: Benefits of tutoring error detection and correction skills. In Hoppe, Verdejo & Kay (Eds.), *Artificial Intelligence in Education, Proceeding of AL-ED 2003* (pp. 13-18). Amsterdam, IOS Press.

- Mendonca, C., & Johnson, K. (1994). Peer review negotiations: Revision activities in ESL writing instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(4), 745-769. [doi:10.2307/3587558](https://doi.org/10.2307/3587558)
- Moss, C., & Brookhart, S. M. (2009). *Advancing formative assessment in every classroom: A guide for instructional leaders*. Alexandria Va: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- https://www.researchgate.net/publication/326677899_Advancing_Formative_Assessment_in_Every_Classroom_A_Guide_for_Instructional_Leaders
- Murray, N., & G. Hughes. (2008). *Writing up your university assignments and research prsoject: A practical hand book*. UK: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Myles, J. (2002). Second language writing and research: The writing process and error analysis in student texts//*TESL-EJ*, 6(2), 2-11.
- NSW Department of Education and Training. (2007). *Writing and spelling strategies*. Darlinghurst: NSW.
- Nunan, D. (1987). *Designing tasks for the communication classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (2000). *Language teaching Methodology: A text book for teachers*. Malysia: Longman.
- Oldin, T. (1994). *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Ouskourt, M. (2008). *Developing efficient writing strategies through the process approach and teacher's feedback a case study: Second year students in Setif university* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Mentouri University of Constantine, Algeria.
- Overmeyer, M. (2009). *What students writing teaches us: Formative assessment in the writing workshop*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse Publishers.

- Panova, I., & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 573-595.
- Preston, T. L., & Tood-Mancillias, W. R. (1985). *A grounded ethnographic inquiry into teacher oral feedback*. Denver/Colorado: US Department of Education.
- Rahmawati, E. D.(2017). *Students' oral and written feedbacks on students' written quality*(Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation),Lampung University, Indonesia.
- Raimes, A. (1983). *Techniques in teaching writing*. New York, Oxford University Press.
- Razei, S., Mozaffair, F., & Hatef, A. (2001). Corrective feedback in SLA: Classroom practice and future direction. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 1(1), 21-29.
- Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.). (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Rivers, W. M. (1968). *Teaching foreign language skills*. The University of Chicago and London.
- Saito, H. (1994). Teachers' practices and students' performance on second language writing: A case study of adult ESL learners//*TESL Canada/ revieve TESL Du Canada*, 11 (2), 1-2.
- Schmidt, R. (1994). Deconstructing conscioness in search of useful definition of applied linguistics. *ALLA Review 11*, 11-26.
- Schwartz, B. (1993). On explicit and negative data effecting comptence and linguistic behavior. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 147-163.
- Shvidko, E. (2018). Writing conference feedback as moment to-moment affiliation relationship building. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 127(2018), 20-35. doi:org/10.1016/J.pragma.2018.01.004
- Silvia, A. (2006). Deductive and inductive grammar teaching. Academia. Retrieved from

<http://www.academia.edu/2344319/Deductive-and-Inductive-Grammar-Teaching>.

Spada, N. (2011). Beyond form-focused instruction: Reflection on past, present and future research.

Language Teaching, 44(2), 225-236.

Spivey, N. (1997). *The constructivist metaphor: Reading, writing, and making of meaning*. San

Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Starkey, L. B. (2004). *How to write great essays*. New York: Learning Express.

Steve, G., & Dolores, P. (2007). *Writing next: Effective strategies to improve writing of adolescents*

in middle and high schools. New York: Alliance for Excellent Education. [https://production-](https://production-carnegie.s3.amazonaws.com/filer_public/3c/f5/3cf58727-34f4-4140-a014-723a00ac56f7/ccny_report_2007_writing.pdf)

[carnegie.s3.amazonaws.com/filer_public/3c/f5/3cf58727-34f4-4140-a014-](https://production-carnegie.s3.amazonaws.com/filer_public/3c/f5/3cf58727-34f4-4140-a014-723a00ac56f7/ccny_report_2007_writing.pdf)

[723a00ac56f7/ccny_report_2007_writing.pdf](https://production-carnegie.s3.amazonaws.com/filer_public/3c/f5/3cf58727-34f4-4140-a014-723a00ac56f7/ccny_report_2007_writing.pdf)

Swain, M. (1985). *Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and*

comprehensible output in its development. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Tangpermpoon, T. (2008). Integrated approaches to improve students writing skills for English major

students. *ABAC Journal*, 28(2), 1-9. Retrieved from

[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254366466-INTEGRATED-APPROACHES-TO-](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254366466-INTEGRATED-APPROACHES-TO-IMPROVE-STUDENTS-WRITING-SKILLS-FOR-ENGLISH-MAJOR-STUDENTS)

[IMPROVE-STUDENTS-WRITING-SKILLS-FOR-ENGLISH-MAJOR-STUDENTS](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254366466-INTEGRATED-APPROACHES-TO-IMPROVE-STUDENTS-WRITING-SKILLS-FOR-ENGLISH-MAJOR-STUDENTS)

Tedick, D. J., & Gloria, B. (1998). Research on error correction and implication for classroom teaching.

The Bridge: From Research to Practice, 1-4 Retrieved from

<http://carla.umn.edu/immersionacie/voll/Bridge1.3.pdf>

Terrel, D., T. (1977). A natural approach to second language acquisition and learning. *The modern*

Language Journal, 61(7), 325-336. Retrieved from

<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1977.tb05147.x>

Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 classes. *Language Learning*, 46(2), 327-69.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb01238.x

Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning*, 46(2), 269-327.

Urza, C. (1987). You stopped too soon: Second language children composing and revising . *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(2), 279-304.

Van den bergh, L., Ros, A., & Beijaard, D. (2014). Improving teacher feedback during active learning: Effects of a professional Development Program. *American Educational Research Journal*, 51(4), 772-809. Doi 10.3102/0002831214531322

Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. *Readings on The Development of Children*, 23(1), 34-41.

Walker, R. (2010). *Five elements of good writing*, from teaching portfolio. The writing process. Week2 Lesson11. Retrieved from <https://richardwalkerteachingportfolio.files.wordpress.com/2011/01/five-ele>.

Ware, P.d. & Warschawer, M. (2006). Electronic feedback and second language writing. In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in Second Language Writing: Contexts and Issues* (pp. 105-122). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Waring, H. Z., & Wong, J. (2009).“ Very good” as a teacher' response. *ELT Journal*, 36(31), 95-203

Weigle, S. C. (2002). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Widdowson, H. (1978). *Teaching language as communication*. London: Oxford University Press.

Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 79-101.

Appendices

Appendice 1: Teachers' Questionnaire

Appendice 2: students' pre and post paragraphs

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

You are kindly invited to answer the following questionnaire which is part of a research we are carrying out about the role of oral corrective feedback on enhancing students' writing.

Thanks in advance.

Your answers are very important for the validity of this research. Be sure that we are interested in your opinions since you represent the source of this inquiry.

Section One: General information

Q1- What is your degree?

- BA (License)

- MA (master/magister)

-PHD (doctorate)

Q3- For how many years have you been teaching written expression?

-1-5 years

-5-10 years

- More than 10 years

Section Two: the writing skill

Q4- Effective writing is (you can tick more than one box).

- Correct grammar
- Good ideas
- Precise vocabulary
- Cohesive writing
- Correct spelling
- Others: please specify.

Q5-What are the most frequent difficulties students face in written expression?

- a -Spelling errors
- b- Misuse of grammar rules
- c-Punctuation mistakes
- d-First language interference
- e-Lack of organization

If other please specify....

Q6-How do you evaluate your students' writing skill compared to other language skills?

- a-Good
- b-Satisfactory
- c-Unsatisfactory

d-Poor

Q7-How would you describe the writing skill?

a-Very difficult

b-Difficult

c-Easy

d-Very easy

Q8-When assessing students' writing do you give more attention to:

a-Process

b-Content

Section Three: Teacher's oral corrective feedback

Q9- Do you use feedback in the writing process?

Yes No

Q10- What kind of feedback do you use for your student during the writing process?

- Oral feedback

- Written feedback

- Both

Q11-You think that errors should be

a-Neglected

b-Carefully treated

Q12-How often do your students respond to your oral feedback?

a-Often

b-Sometimes

c-Rarely

d-Never

Q13-What do you consider when giving oral feedback ?

a-Form

b-Content

c-Both

Q14-How often do you provide oral feedback?

a-Often

b-Sometimes

c-Rarely

d-Never

Q15- When do you correct?

a- While the student are writing

b- Correct the final draft

Q16-Do you face any difficulties while implementing oral feedback in writing classes?

a-Yes

b-No

Q17 If yes please mention some.....

Q18-What kind of error correction do you provide for your students' writing errors?

a-Explicit feedback(you clearly indicate that what your students write is incorrect)

b-Recasts(you reformulate the sentence minuses the error)

c-Clarification requests(give a question indicating that the sentence is ill formed and that a repititon or reformulation is required

d-Metalinguistic(for example you write SP for spelling errors)

e-Elicitation(you lead the student to self correct e.g.you ask your students to rewrite the sentence)

f-Repitition(you repeat the erroneous sentence to show the student that there is an error)

Q19-As a way of providing feedback in the class do you prefer?

a-Teacher feedback

b-Peer feedback

c-Conferencing

d-Self feedback

e-Electronic feedback

Q20- Do you respect students' preferences concerning writing?

Yes No

Q21-What are the positive/negative effects of your feedback on your students?

.....

Q21- In your opinion, would the absence of the teachers' oral corrective feedback make any difference for the level of student in the writing module? Please explain how.

.....

Résumé

L'étude actuelle a examiné l'impact des commentaires correctifs oraux sur l'amélioration de l'écriture des élèves. Théoriquement, il est principalement axé sur la relation entre les commentaires correctifs oraux des enseignants et l'écriture des élèves. Il vise à étudier les perceptions des enseignants sur la rétroaction orale corrective en tant qu'outil pertinent pour améliorer l'écriture des élèves. En outre, il cherche à explorer les effets de la rétroaction orale corrective sur la rédaction des paragraphes des élèves. Afin d'atteindre ces objectifs, un questionnaire destiné aux enseignants et une pré-expérience ont été mis en œuvre auprès d'un échantillon de 7 professeurs d'expression écrite du département d'anglais de l'université Mohamed Sedik ben Yahia-Jijel, et des étudiants de deuxième année d'anglais de la même université. . Les résultats ont montré que les enseignants considèrent la rétroaction orale corrective comme un outil puissant pour améliorer l'écriture des élèves et son absence aurait un effet négatif sur le niveau d'écriture des élèves. En outre, il existe une forte corrélation positive entre les commentaires correctifs oraux des enseignants et les erreurs d'écriture des élèves, en particulier les erreurs liées à la forme de la langue. Cependant, les erreurs d'écriture liées au contenu n'ont pas été grandement améliorées.

ملخص

عالجت هذه الدراسة تأثير الملاحظات التصحيحية الشفوية على تحسين كتابة الطلاب. من الناحية النظرية ، فإنها تركز بشكل أساسي على العلاقة بين الملاحظات التصحيحية الشفوية للمعلمين وكتابة الطلاب. ويهدف إلى معرفة آراء المعلمين حول التصحيح الشفوي كأداة مناسبة لتعزيز كتابة الطلاب. بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، يسعى إلى استكشاف آثار الملاحظات التصحيحية الشفوية على كتابة فقرات الطلاب. ولتحقيق هذه الأهداف تم تنفيذ استبيان المعلمين وتجربة تمهيدية مع عينة من 7 مدرسين للتعبير الكتابي بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة محمد صديق بن يحيى- جيجل ، وطلاب السنة الثانية للغة الإنجليزية من نفس الجامعة. . وأظهرت النتائج أن المعلمين يعتبرون التصحيح الشفوي أداة قوية لتحسين كتابة الطلاب وأن غيابها سيؤثر سلبًا على مستوى الطلاب في الكتابة. علاوة على ذلك ، هناك علاقة إيجابية قوية بين الملاحظات التصحيحية الشفوية للمدرسين وأخطاء الطلاب الكتابية خاصة تلك الأخطاء المتعلقة بشكل اللغة. ومع ذلك، فإن أخطاء الكتابة المتعلقة بالمحتوى لم تتحسن بشكل كبير.