

**THE STUDENTS' PERCEPTION TOWARD ORAL  
CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN SPEAKING CLASS AT  
ENGLISH DEPARTMENT OF IAIN PALANGKA RAYA**

**THESIS**



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ENGLISH DEPARTMENT OF IAIN PALANGKA RAYA**

**Thesis**

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## MOTTO AND DEDICATION

Don't stop making any dua, nothing is impossible to Allah.  
With hardship comes ease, because Allah promised me ease,

Not once,

But twice,

“For indeed, with hardship [will be] ease”

“Indeed, with hardship [will be] ease”

(Q.S. Al-Inshirah : 6-7)

This Thesis is dedicated to:

My beloved parents Shodiqun. S.Ag and Hanim Mudmainah, also my siblings Roisa Sukma Muyashoha and Arja Amin Munashoha for every single prayer, sacrifice, patience, and endless support. My lovely best friend for support, help, and always there for me.



## DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

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Declare that:

1. This thesis has never been submitted to any other tertiary education institution for any other academic degree.
2. This thesis is to the sole work of author and has not been written in collaboration with any other person, nor does it include, with due acknowledgement, the work of any other person.
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Palangka Raya, October 2019  
Yours Faithfully



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## ABSTRACT

Muyashoha, Allafia Bakti. 2019. *The Students' Perception Toward Oral Corrective Feedback in Speaking Class at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya*. Thesis, Department of Language Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, State Islamic Institute of Palangka Raya. Advisors: (I) Sabarun, M.Pd., (II) Aris Sugianto, M.Pd.

**Keywords:** perception, oral error, corrective feedback, speaking.

Being interested in the process of teaching and learning a language, the researcher have attempted to describe the students' perception toward oral corrective feedback in teaching learning process because it has important role in enhancing students' linguistic accuracy. This study involved 64 students in public speaking class who has took basic speaking course. This research was conducted with these two key aims: (1) to find out the students' perception toward oral corrective feedback given in teaching speaking activity, and (2) to find out how is oral corrective feedback given to the students. The result indicated that the students' perception toward oral corrective feedback is positive. All of indicator show a good point that most students agree to receive oral corrective feedback from their lecturer. Additionally, it is obviously answered that used oral corrective feedback in speaking learning class is effective to improve the students' speaking ability. These findings could contribute to better understanding of how the lecturer should give oral corrective feedback when the students' make some errors in the classroom. As a conclusion, it will provide a better comprehension by relating and comparing the students' perception and the lecturers' perception of oral error corrective feedback for the further researchers.

## ABSTRAK

Muyashoha, Allafia Bakti. 2019. Persepsi Mahasiswa Terhadap Umpan Balik Korektif Lisan dalam Kelas Speaking di Departemen Bahasa Inggris IAIN Palangka Raya. Skripsi, Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa, Fakultas Tarbiyah dan Ilmu Keguruan, Institut Agama Islam Negeri Palangka Raya. Pembimbing: (I) Sabarun, M.Pd., (II) Aris Sugianto, M.Pd.

**Kata kunci:** persepsi, kesalahan lisan, umpan balik korektif, berbicara.

Karena ketertarikan pada proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa, peneliti telah mencoba untuk menggambarkan bagaimana persepsi siswa terhadap umpan balik korektif lisan dalam proses belajar mengajar karena memiliki peran penting dalam meningkatkan akurasi linguistic para siswa. Penelitian ini melibatkan 64 siswa di kelas Public Speaking yang telah mengambil mata kuliah basic Speaking. Penelitian ini dilakukan dengan dua tujuan utama: (1) untuk mengetahui persepsi siswa terhadap umpan balik korektif lisan yang diberikan dalam kegiatan mengajar Speaking, dan (2) untuk mengetahui bagaimana umpan balik korektif lisan diberikan kepada siswa. Hasilnya menunjukkan bahwa persepsi siswa terhadap umpan balik korektif lisan adalah positif. Semua indikator menunjukkan poin yang baik bahwa sebagian besar siswa setuju untuk menerima umpan balik korektif lisan dari dosen mereka. Selain itu, jelas dijawab bahwa umpan balik korektif lisan yang digunakan dalam kelas pembelajaran berbicara efektif untuk meningkatkan kemampuan berbicara siswa. Temuan ini dapat berkontribusi untuk pemahaman yang lebih baik tentang bagaimana dosen harus memberikan umpan balik korektif lisan ketika siswa yang membuat beberapa kesalahan di dalam ruang kelas. Sebagai kesimpulan, ini akan memberikan pemahaman yang lebih baik dengan menghubungkan dan membandingkan persepsi mahasiswa dan persepsi dosen tentang umpan balik perbaikan kesalahan lisan untuk peneliti selanjutnya.



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The researcher hopes that may Allah always keeps us on the straight path, reward, and blesses us for what we do and this writing can be useful for all of us.

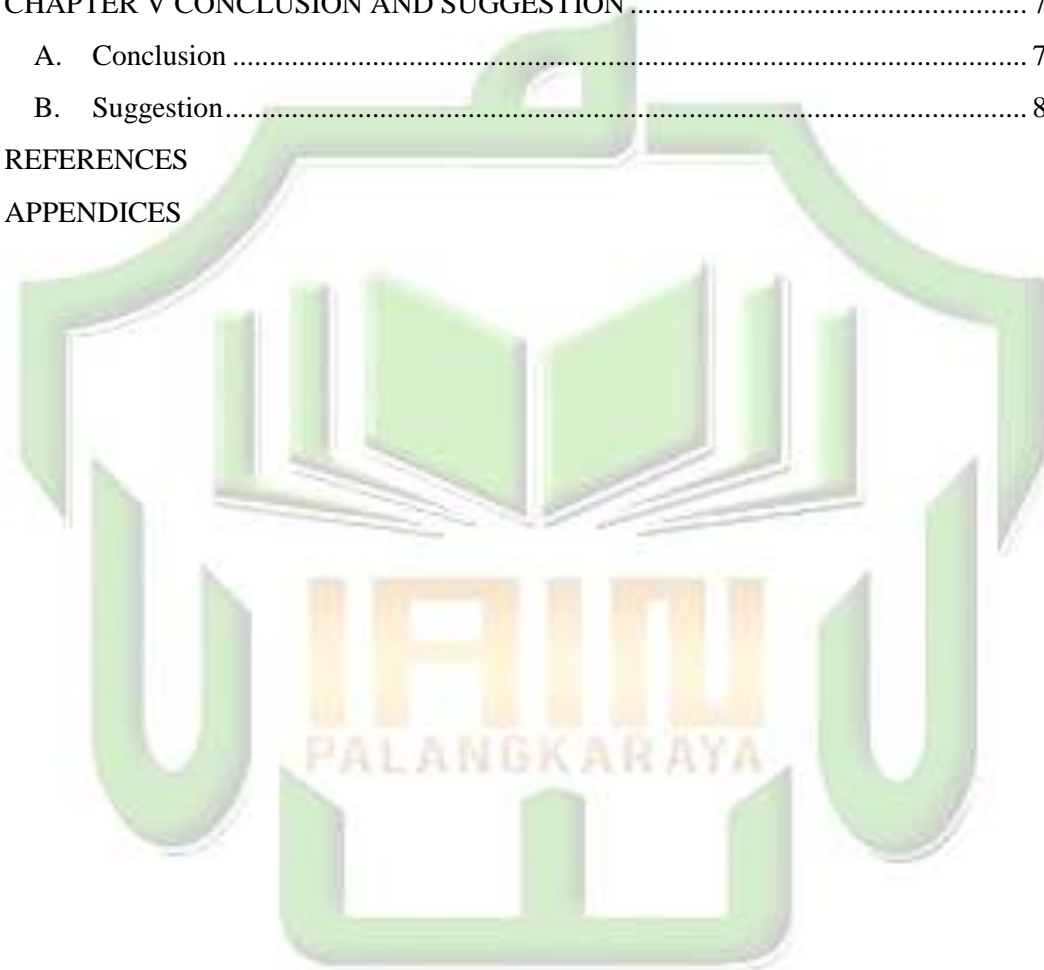
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## TABLE OF CONTENT

	Page
COVER .....	i
COVER (Second Page).....	ii
ADVISOR APPROVAL.....	iii
THESIS APPROVAL .....	iv
MOTTO AND DEDICATION .....	<b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b>
DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP .....	<b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b>
ABSTRACT.....	vii
ABSTRAK.....	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	ix
TABLE OF CONTENT .....	xi
LIST OF TABLE .....	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xiv
LIST OF APPENDICES .....	xiv
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION .....	1
A. Background of the Study.....	1
B. Research Problem .....	5
C. Objective of the Study.....	5
D. Assumption .....	5
E. Scope and Limitation of the Study.....	6
F. Significance of the Study .....	6
G. Definition of Key Terms .....	6
CHAPTER II REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE .....	8
A. Related Studies.....	8
B. Students' Perception .....	18
C. Error .....	21
D. Feedback .....	32
E. Oral Corrective Feedback .....	39
CHAPTER III RESEARCH METHOD .....	45
A. Research Design.....	45
B. Population and Sample.....	46

C. Research Instrument.....	48
D. Data Collection Procedure .....	53
E. Data Analysis Procedure.....	54
CHAPTER IV RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION.....	61
A. Data Presentation .....	61
B. Research Findings.....	62
C. Discussion .....	74
CHAPTER V CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION .....	79
A. Conclusion .....	79
B. Suggestion.....	80
REFERENCES	
APPENDICES	



## LIST OF TABLE

Table	Page
3.1 The Number of 5 <sup>th</sup> Semester Students at English Education Study Program in IAIN Palangka Raya Academic Year 2017/2018 .....	46
3.2 Range Score of Statements.....	49
3.3 Questionnaire Item Specification.....	49
3.4 Statistics of Mean, Median, Mode, SD, Minimum and Maximum Score .....	55
3.5 Result of Test Validity .....	57
3.6 Case Processing Summary .....	59
3.7 Reliability Statistics .....	59
3.8 Rating of Students' Perspective .....	60
4.1 The Calculation of Mean.....	63
4.2 The Calculation of Deviation Score and Standard Deviation of Students' Perception.....	63
4.3 Result of Questionnaire.....	64
4.4 The Process Teaching Learning in Public Speaking Class .....	71
4.5 Result of Students' Perspective.....	74



## LIST OF FIGURES

4.1	Chart Result of the Questionnaire .....	73
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## LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix	Page
Appendix 1    Research Schedule.....	89
Appendix 2    Attendance List of Questionnaire.....	90
Appendix 3    Research Questionnaire.....	97
Appendix 4    Observation Transcript.....	99
Appendix 5    Table r .....	101
Appendix 6    Table of Questionnaire's Result.....	105
Appendix 7    Documentation .....	111
Appendix 8    Research Decrees .....	121
Appendix 9    Curriculum Vitae.....	124

# **CHAPTER I**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **A. Background of the Study**

In Indonesia, English is regarded as a foreign language. English is learned as the subject of formal or non-formal educational institutions. English is not used as a daily language. In the process of learning, many students make some errors while they use English orally. They do not have much time to think about the appropriate expression which they should produce. In this case, some errors may appear in their utterance.

Speaking is one of the most difficult skills language learners have to face. In spite of this, it has traditionally been forced into the background while we, teachers of English, have spent all our classroom time trying to teach our students how to write, to read and sometimes even to listen in a L2 because grammar has a long written tradition (Bueno, Madrid, & McLaren, 2006, p. 321).

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997). Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking. It is often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving. However, speech is not always unpredictable. Language functions (or patterns) that tend to recur in certain discourse situations (e.g., declining an invitation or requesting time off from work), can be identified and charted (Burns & Joyce, 1997).

Business Dictionary defined feedback is a process in which the effect or output of an action is 'returned' (fed-back) to modify the next action. Feedback is essential to the working and survival of all regulatory mechanisms found throughout the living and non-living nature, and in man-made systems such as the education system and economy. As a two-way flow, feedback is inherent to all interactions, whether human-to-human, human-to-machine, or machine-to-machine. In an organizational context, feedback is the information sent to an entity (individual or a group) about its prior behavior so that the entity may adjust its current and future behavior to achieve the desired result. Feedback is information a teacher or another speaker, including another learner, gives to learners on how well they are doing, either to help the learner improve specific points, or to help plan their learning. Feedback can be immediate, during an activity, or delayed, at the end of an activity or part of a learning program and can take various forms.

The usefulness, description, taxonomy, context, and efficacy of corrective feedback have been under scrutiny for decades, most notably since Hendrickson's groundbreaking study in 1978 in which he questioned the if, which, when, and how of oral error correction. Subsequent studies have investigated types of corrective feedback and the use and effectiveness of those types in various contexts, as well as teacher practices and preferences in their use of corrective feedback.

According to Ellis (2009), corrective feedback is a response to students' oral utterance which contains the linguistic error. In its classroom application, the

teacher as an educator takes an important part in giving corrective feedback to students. Ellis stated that oral corrective feedback is a part of the teaching process because it has an important role in enhancing students' linguistic accuracy. Corrective feedback in speaking is also a form of social mediation to help students in performing language functions that they are unable to perform individually. In other words, the interaction that occurs between teachers and students in giving feedback is called social mediation. Teachers' preferences and opinions regarding error correction have been shown to influence their classroom practices, but within constraints such as time, activity focus, and communicative flow (Yoshida, 2008).

In this relation, giving corrective feedback errors made by language students is very important. When language students always make errors without any correction the errors will be fossilized and it will disturb the meaning of English they use. The students may think that they have used English appropriately because their lecturer never gives a correction when they use English. It also can cause misunderstandings between the speaker and the hearer. Therefore, the English lecturer's role is important to guide language students in correcting students' oral errors while using English.

In giving corrective feedback to students' oral errors, a lecturer needs to consider students' perception toward the teaching-learning process. Horwitz (1988) says that lecturers need to know students' beliefs about language teaching and learning because the mismatch between students' expectation and the realities they encounter in the classroom can prevent improvement in the language



acquisition. Nunan (1995, p. 140) proposes, "Lecturers should find out what their students think and feel about what and how they want to learn". Since, students' beliefs will give impacts on students' attitude while teaching and learning process, it is important for a lecturer to know how they want to be taught and what they want to learn. When lecturers know what their students want in the teaching and learning process, the lecturers can prepare the appropriate method in teaching and it will help students in understanding the subject which they learned in the classroom.

There are some effects if a lecturer does not give students feedback or delay the giving of corrective feedback when they make the error. It will decrease their motivation in learning and they may not know their errors. To avoid those negative attitudes, the way a lecturer in giving corrective feedback of oral errors made by students is very important to be known. If a lecturer and students have matched their belief and perception in teaching-learning, the error can be corrected and reduced without any occurrences of students' negative attitudes. A lecturer also can fulfill their objectives in teaching English.

Based on the discussion above, we know that students' responses and perceptions toward oral error correction from their lecturer are very important. Most of the students expect their lecturer to give oral error corrective feedbacks because it will help them in acquiring English. When the lecturer does not give any oral error corrective feedbacks, the students may give a negative attitude in learning English; it will give a bad impact on the students in acquiring English. Therefore, the author intends to describe public speaking class students'

perceptions toward oral corrective feedback from their lecturer at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya.

### **B. Research Problem**

The statements of the research problem are:

1. How are the students' perceptions towards oral corrective feedback given in speaking class activity?
2. How is oral corrective feedback given to the students' in speaking class activity?

### **C. Objective of the Study**

The objectives of this research are on oral corrective feedback in speaking learning class. The writer is aiming:

1. To find out the students' perceptions towards the corrective feedback given in teaching speaking activity.
2. To find out how is oral corrective feedback given to the students.

### **D. Assumption**

Some people (such as Krashen and Truscott) believe that negative feedback is unnecessary in language classrooms. On the other hand, to believe that error correction is essential in the language classroom because some studies have shown that if the corrective feedback is given in the right way, it can improve the students' language skills. In general education contexts, it has been found that feedback on correct responses is more effective than feedback on incorrect responses. By correcting the students, the students can learn which language item they need to work on and which feature they have made progress.

So, the corrective feedback that has a positive effect will improve students' oral English accuracy.

### **E. Scope and Limitation of the Study**

The study is about English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners who focus on improving English skills using oral corrective feedback in speaking learning. The learner will be in public speaking class at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya in the academic year of 2017/2018.

### **F. Significance of the Study**

The study is expected to give ease to the teacher to help students to make the errors work for them and improve the students' language skills using oral corrective feedback.

### **G. Definition of Key Terms**

#### **1. Perception**

According to Stone and Neilson (1985, p. 205) state that perception is an intellectual organization of sensory stimuli both internal and external, connected with a particular person, object or event while Leather (1992) proposes that perception is the cognitive process that individuals use to interpret and understand the world around them. Elliot (1996) moreover adds that perception is the ability to recognize familiar persons, objects, or events with meaning and expectation. These definitions deal with the definition proposed by Atkinson (1983) stating that perception is the process by which people organize and interpret the pattern of stimuli in the environment. These

definitions indicate that perception forms a cognitive process in our mind of a human being. It does not accidentally happen, but it takes a long time to perceive certain events and experiences. Someone should experience something so that perception can be involved. If someone perceives a certain situation in his/her life, it means that he/she recalls what has been happening in a certain period in the past in the form of objects or events of his/her experiences.

## **2. Oral Error**

Error is defined as (in the speech or writing of a second or foreign language learner) the use of a linguistic item, (e.g., a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning, according to Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics (Richards, J. Platt, & H. Platt, 1998). For this study, an oral error is broadly defined as a form unwanted by the teacher in the given teaching/learning context (Mosbah, 2007).

## **3. Corrective Feedback**

Corrective feedback is a means of offering modified input to students which could consequently lead to modified output by the students. Corrective feedback may be referred to as negative feedback, negotiated help or error correction. The output can be manifested in the form of learner uptake which Long (1985) described as the relationship of input, interaction, and acquisition as a) interaction modification makes input comprehensible, b)

comprehensible input promotes acquisition, and c) interaction modification promotes acquisition. It can be seen that corrective feedback and learner uptake are effective processes for language development.

#### **4. Speaking**

Speaking is a way of communication by which people can share their idea. According to Byrne (1976), speaking is oral communication. It is a two-way process between speaker and listener that involves productive and receptive skills. Welty (1976) states that speaking is the main skill of communication. Based on these ideas, it understands that through speaking someone can express their ideas clearly.

Lado (1981, p. 240) states that speaking as an ability to converse or to express a sequence of ideas fluently. It means that in the process of speaking there must be at least two people, one is the speaker and the other is the listener. In the speaking process, the speaker must be able to share the ideas clearly so that the listener can receive what the speaker communicates, he or she must comprehend the incoming message and then organize appropriate responses for production.

In short, speaking is a way to communicate by express ideas, feelings, and emotions to other people which involves not only producing but also using language communicatively.



## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **A. Related Studies**

The purpose of corrective feedback is to draw the attention of the students to errors in their interlanguage so that they take note of the errors and learn the correct forms. According to Ellis (2009), corrective feedback is a response to students' oral utterance which contains the linguistic error. In its classroom application, the teacher as an educator takes an important part in giving corrective feedback to students. Ellis stated that oral corrective feedback is a part of the teaching process because it has an important role in enhancing students' linguistic accuracy. Corrective feedback in speaking is also a form of social meditation to help students in performing language functions that they are unable to perform individually. In other words, the interaction that occurs between teachers and students in giving feedback is called social meditation.

Ellis (2009), highlights five main controversies regarding corrective feedback which can be formulated in questions: 1. Does CF contribute to L2 acquisition? 2. Which errors are to be corrected? 3. Who should correct? (the teacher or the learner herself/himself) 4. Which type of CF is most effective? And, when is it better to do CF? (Mendez. E.H. et al, 2010).

It must be noted that the value attributed to CF varies depending upon the method or approach employed in providing the corrective feedback and the beliefs about the correction in the language pedagogy. While in the audiolingual method the employed for correction was explicit, in the post method era the language teaching methodologists do not prescribe overt CF, according to Ellis (2009). But while some acknowledge the cognitive contribution it can make other scholars warn about the affective damage it can cause.

Lyster and Ranta (1997), who studied the corrective feedback in French immersion classes put forward six types of feedback: recast, elicitation, clarification request, repetition, explicit clarification, and metalinguistic feedback. Since (and even before) this taxonomy was described, studies have sought to describe not only the effectiveness of these types, but also what factors, such as the type of error in question and the L2 proficiency of the learner, can influence the effectiveness of corrective feedback (Ammar & Spada, 2016; Havranek, 2002). Following the publication of their study, several researchers have investigated the beneficial and non-beneficial role of corrective feedback.

Loewen et al (2009) claim that the controversy surrounding the CF can be better understood in terms of meaning-focused instruction versus form-focused instruction. The former assumes that the L2 acquisition occurs unconsciously and implicitly like the first language acquisition L1. They believe that comprehensible input and a low affective filter in the learner are essential for language learning. They claim that overt attention to linguistic form is not needed and believe that

corrective feedback is ineffective (Ellis 2009; Storch 2010; Ayedh & Khaled 2011)

Emotions and feelings towards the feedback process are mainly dependent upon how feedback is actually managed (Ayedh & Khaled, 2011). Can oral corrective feedback, if used frequently, upset and discourage EFL learners? Of course, it can. The question is how and how much. The fact is that corrective feedback can only be used to a limited extent, after which it can become discouraging and destructive (Ayedh & Khaled, 2011), even though too little can be equally counterproductive. Corrective feedback, if used too frequently, can be negative in terms of motivation and attitude and, accordingly, should be avoided at all cost. In fact, overcorrection could undermine the student's self-confidence.

According to Storch (2010), "Providing feedback on a large number of errors may overwhelm the learners, not to mention be extremely time-consuming for the teachers". In this sense, teachers should know when and how to correct errors and, above all, should consider learners' sensitiveness and personality. Despite the fact that most learners find corrective feedback highly helpful and, thus, need and wish to be corrected regularly in class (Havranek, 2002; Lyster et al. 2013), the fact is that many of them also find corrections embarrassing to varying degrees. What language teachers should actually avoid is to make learners feel embarrassed or frustrated when being orally corrected in class-fronted situations. Most importantly, the teacher should be positive and kind. Rather, corrective feedback should always be delivered carefully and in a very positive way and, above all, nicely, so that students do not feel embarrassed. In this sense,

corrective feedback should be used cautiously and tactfully -and not in a direct or obtrusive way-, bearing in mind students' attitudes and personalities when being orally corrected in class fronted situations.

As Ayedh & Khaled (2011, p. 216) claimed, "Feedback should always be personal, and never directed at the person's personality". Although implicit as well as explicit types of feedback have been shown to be beneficial, and both lead to learning, the fact is that implicit corrective feedback seems more desirable as learners do not feel any 'direct criticism or attack' from the correction provided and, accordingly, their emotions are not so seriously affected. Learners sometimes find the criticism associated with corrective feedback difficult to handle, which makes them resist or reject the feedback process (Ayedh & Khaled, 2011).

The fact is that corrective feedback cannot be provided in such a way that students immediately react by putting themselves on the defensive. Thus, corrective feedback must be highly flexible, adapted to the individual learner and to the social/situational context (Ellis, 2009). Given that anxiety can have a negative effect on the way learners benefit from the feedback process, L2 teachers should be much more concerned with learners' feelings and emotions when being orally corrected in class-fronted situations. The fact is that teachers are mainly concerned about not overcorrecting their students for fear of inducing language anxiety. That is, they frequently worry about hurting the learners' feelings and damaging their self-esteem. Generally, the usefulness of teachers' oral corrective feedback is perceived and accepted by most learners, even though Lyster et al. (2013, p. 1) made it clear that research on corrective feedback preferences reveals

"a tendency for learners to prefer receiving CF more than teachers feel they should provide it". Rather, Lyster, et al., (2013, p. 8) pointed out that "the extent to which learners want to be corrected is generally greater than teachers' wish to provide correction". This is likely due to teachers' fear of discouraging the learners. In fact, teachers believe that corrective feedback can induce language anxiety, affecting students' self-esteem and motivation in a negative manner (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005).

Accordingly, the oral corrective feedback provided by teachers maybe sometimes seen as a potential anxiety-provoking situation. In short, corrective feedback must take account of learners' affective needs in the sense that teachers should be prepared to vary the way they correct in accordance with the cognitive and affective needs of the individual learner in the classroom context (Ellis 2009). Even Ellis (2010) suggests that teachers should abandon corrective feedback if it is a source of anxiety to a learner.

Brown and Rodgers (2002) argue that errors made by students in using the target language should be corrected. Research is done by Kassa (2011) also showed that from four teachers being studied, all of them agreed that errors by students, especially oral errors in using the target language should be corrected. Rydahl (2005) also added that the majority of teachers found that error correction, usually called feedback, can help students to improve their language proficiency, therefore most teachers often perform error correction or provide feedback.

Previous studies have reported that providing feedback in EFL classrooms is still debatable. Agudo (2013) has stated that "corrective feedback in classroom



settings...[is] becoming a highly controversial issue, with arguments both for and against providing feedback." For instance, Tomczyk (2013) and Samad, Rahma and Fitriani (2016) argue that corrective feedback should be provided in language classrooms because it can prevent students from making the same mistakes in the future. Conversely, Alqahtani and Al-enzi (2011) and Elsaghayer (2014) conclude that learners might find teachers' oral corrective feedback embarrassing and destructive when it is used too often.

The debate whether oral corrective feedback should be given or not has also been examined by Calsiyao (2015) and Mendez and Cruz (2012). They believe, over-correction of errors could be the factor that could destroy a students' self-confidence and their performance in the future, while too little or no error correction at all might lead the students to think that they did not produce errors in using the target language. When students think that they have acquired sufficient target language their errors can last for a long time. Without teachers' feedback, the fossilization of errors could occur (Alqahtani & Al-enzi, 2011; Calsiyao, 2015;).

Li (2013) stated that corrective feedback refers to the responses from teachers and peers to students' errors in producing the second language (L2). According to Li, corrective feedback is also about timing. The timing means when teachers or peers give feedback. There are online CF and offline CF. Online CF means that errors are responded immediately when the student makes error meanwhile offline feedback is the corrective feedback that is given after the task. Another study about corrective feedback regarding its effectiveness comes from

Russell and Spada (2006). They did a meta-analysis of the effectiveness of CF for the acquisition of L2 grammar and the result stated that corrective feedback is beneficial for L2 grammar both for oral and written production. Quinn's (2014) study, majority of the students prefer if the lecturer gives oral error corrective feedback immediately. Corrective feedback is more effective for students to realize their error than no corrective feedback. It can be concluded from those definitions and benefits of corrective feedback that CF is a response to students' error and it can be given by teachers or peers. Oral corrective feedback which is the main focus of this study is a response when students make errors utterance to fix the errors made by students.

In Indonesia, a study conducted by Khunaivi and Hartono (2015) showed that corrective feedback in speaking classes was given to reduce the possibility of wrong target language use leading to fossilization. Besides, Maolida (2013, p. 121) has stated that teachers' corrective feedback is important to promote "young learners' interlanguage development". However, she also points out that, teachers should deliver clear corrective feedback to facilitate the student's understanding of the correct target language use. Solikhah (2016) recently concluded that corrective feedback provided by their teachers can improve students' speaking competence, though the teacher should not correct the students' errors when the students are speaking. In other words, the corrective feedback should not break the flow of speech. From all these studies, it can clearly be inferred that corrective feedback is very common in language classes. Yet, it is very important to be given wisely by the teacher to avoid making the students feel uneasy towards the corrective

feedback. Ananda (2017) stated that most of students show they are fine when their lecturer gives corrective feedback to them.

Researchers have found the advantages of providing feedback for students. Feedback, either in oral or written form or both together, is the medium to help students improve their performance in the future. Hussein and Ali (2014), Kirgoz and Agcam (2015), and Voerman et al. (2012), all say that feedback can be used to enhance language learning and make the students realize the way they express the target language has mistakes in it. In other words, feedback is given as a response to the students' errors when they use the target language. This response, whether implicit or explicit, shows that the students' utterances of the target language are not correct in some ways. It could be a correction of their pronunciation or their grammar or it could be a lexical or a collocation error or even a structural error e.g. not having a summary at the end of their speech.

In contrast with those who believe feedback is good to help students improve their target language, some researchers claim that feedback (especially corrective feedback) can cause setbacks in students' learning. According to Rahimi (2010) and Agudo (2012), corrective feedback should be avoided because it might be "harmful, time-consuming, and ineffective." Moreover, Truscott (2007) agree that corrective feedback is useless and harmful. Also, 'overcorrection' of errors will damage the students' self-confidence because the students will be embarrassed when the teachers give feedback in front of others (Elsaghayer, 2014).

Not all of the errors made by students in using the target language should be corrected by their teachers. Errors that can interfere with the message or the communication should become the focus of the lecturers' concentration. Pronunciation is one type of error that can interfere with communication. Gitsaki and Althobaiti (2010) found that a beginner's use of the L2 can frequently produce phonological errors and these errors could cause misunderstanding in communication. The time for giving error correction also needs to be considered. The lecturers should avoid interrupting the students' performance since it could disturb the students' focus. Martinez (2006, p. 3) concludes that teacher interruptions during their students' performances or before they've finished speaking could "break the flow of their speech", thus demoralizing the student and "lowering the motivation of the student".

In EFL classes, oral corrective feedback might be valued differently by the teachers than by the students. These different reactions could occur if English is not the instructional language used in teaching. A study done by Lyster et al. (2013) revealed that students wanted their errors to be corrected more than what their teachers had done rather than their teachers ignore their errors. However, teachers felt that too much feedback could affect the students' self-confidence and motivation and could cause anxiety and embarrassment (Fungula, 2013).

Many researchers have investigated the feedback in teaching. They researched the soft skills in English like writing, reading, listening and oral. Pan (2015) has studied the teacher feedback on the accuracy of EFL student writing. He concludes his research if teacher feedback has advanced the students in better

linguistic knowledge and it will improve the accuracy of students in writing with a higher degree after receiving the teacher's corrective feedback. On the other hand, according to him, the teacher's corrective feedback is facilitated or harmful to the students' ability to write accurately.

The next researcher who researches teachers' feedback is Keizer et.al (2007). He has concluded the effect of different types of feedback on second language writing for a year but has found no significant difference in student's essays concerning linguistic accuracy. He also notes that to be effective, systematic training in writing must require systematic correction of individual scripts. He also indicates that the correction of student compositions is often ineffective in reducing errors because teachers correct mistakes inconsistently. Ayedh and Khaled (2011) have recommended to the researchers so they can investigate the questions posed in this study with larger samples and different methodologies in the future. Further research is also recommended by considering the limitations of the study to investigate factors that are most likely to be associated with teachers' use of feedback in ESL writing classes. These factors may have significance in the context of second or foreign language teaching.

According to Abdul Razak, Saeed, and Ahmad (2013) who have investigated the effect of error correction on grammatical accuracy in student essay revision, teacher feedback will always be a major topic for both teachers and students. Therefore, researchers still need to investigate different feedback strategies to help students and teachers. The present study is a short-termed and experimental study that has limitations, but it highlights the possibility that some



feedback strategies work better than others. However, it suggests that more research still needs to be done.

### **B. Students' Perception**

Since the early 1950, students' perceptions were an important issue in research. Studies were carried out relating to the intelligence, interests, aptitudes, students' personality characteristics and achievements in school (Brand et al., 2003; Way, Reddy & Rhodes, 2007). Students' perceptions about school climate were examined from several perspectives, for example: the nature of relationships between teachers and students; the nature of relationships between students; the extent to which student autonomy is allowed in the decision-making process; and the extent to which the school provides clear, consistent and fair rules and regulations. Researchers have noted that if a "person-environment fit" is lacking or students do not perceive school as supporting their need for relatedness, autonomy, and consistency, their psychological and behavioral health will be at risk (Connell and Wellborn, 1991; Eccles et al., 1993). However, despite growing interest in students' perceptions over the years and evidence of the influence of such perceptions on psychological and behavioral adjustment, relatively few studies have been conducted on this subject (Way, Reddy & Rhodes, 2007). In examining all the necessary components that involve students in the education system, we lack a specific framework that gathers all of the components "under one roof". The model of activity theory discussed above may meet this need. Jonassen and Rohrer Murphy (1999, p. 68) explain that activity theory provides a lens for analyzing learning processes and outcomes that can help in designing

instruction. According to these authors, rather than focusing on knowledge states, activity theory "focuses on the activities in which people are engaged, the nature of the tools they use in those activities, the social and contextual relationships among the collaborators in those activities, the goals and intentions of those activities, and the objects or outcomes of those activities".

Perception generally consists of observation on a certain situation or environment. It can be a mental image, concept or awareness of the environment's elements through physical sensation interpreted in the light of experience and captivity for comprehension. This general definition can be understood as someone's ability to see, to hear, to feel and to present or to understand what they felt about their environment their social life physically, and mentally. The following are some definitions of perception.

Perception, according to Stone and Neilson (1985, p. 205) state that perception is an intellectual organization of sensory stimuli both internal and external, connected with a particular person, object or event while Leathers (1992) proposes that perception is the cognitive process that individuals use to interpret and understand the world around them. Elliot (1996) moreover adds that perception is the ability to recognize familiar persons, objects, or events with meaning and expectation. These definitions deal with the definition proposed by Atkinson (1983) stating that perception is the process by which people organize and interpret the pattern of stimuli in the environment. These definitions indicate that perception is from a cognitive process in our mind of a human being. It does not accidentally happen, but it takes a long time to perceive certain events and



experiences. Someone should experience something so that perception can be involved. If someone perceives a certain situation in his/her life, it means that he/she recalls what has been happening in a certain period in the past in the form of objects or events of his/her experiences.

Another point worthy of consideration is the definition processed by Vernon (1987). He points out the three dimensions of perceptions namely the understanding of the object, the view, and action toward the object. The three dimensions are added by Kalish (1973) namely set or expectation. The word *expectation* forming as a noun means when we expect a good thing to happen in the future. The word *expectation*'s stem is *expect*, meaning *think* and *demand*, which also have another meaning *hope*. Another idea worth considering is what proposed by Kalish in sentences "*...because of previous experiences and learning, we often anticipate that certain things will occur before they actually happen. That is, we have a set of expectation, that they will occur.*" (Kalish, 1973, p. 83). Based on these definitions mean that perception is not only to have an opinion about something, or have a belief about something or think that something is true, correct or real but also hope and demand expect a good thing to happen in the future.

Another important point is some definition proposed by some following expert. Lindsay and Norman (1977) stated that perception is the process by which organisms interpret and organize sensation to produce a meaningful experience of the world. Elliot (1996) moreover adds that perception is the ability to recognize familiar persons, objects, or events with meaning and expectation. If someone

perceives something, it means that he/she can recall past experiences with objects or events; the experiences meaning and have a certain expectation about learning English, therefore, are influenced by their perception.

### **C. Error**

There has been much discussion on errors and their correction in the foreign language classroom because the attitudes towards errors of both teachers and students differ, as well as error correction diverge depending on the approaches that are applied. According to James (1998) language is said to be uniquely human, so an error is likewise distinctive. But how can an error be defined? A typical definition includes the reference to the linguistic form which deviates from the correct one. However, what does it mean 'correct'? The term is very often identified with the native speaker norm (Allwright & Bailey, 1991) which is, however, controversial because native speakers' utterances vary too much and most of the language teaching takes place in a non-native context by non-native speakers. To analyze learner language in a proper perspective, it is crucial to distinguish between errors and mistakes. An error is a deviant form that results from a lack of knowledge of a particular form and reflects a learner's current stage in the interlanguage development (Corder, 1967; Selinker, 1972). It is an attempt to try something out, even though a learner does not have sufficient knowledge to produce a given form or item correctly. A mistake, however, refers to a learner's temporary inaccuracy (Corder, 1967) and performance problems and takes place when a student is familiar with the rule but an incorrect form appears because of inattention, fatigue, or as a result of a shift from the initial plan or

intention during the speaking. Mistakes manifest themselves as hesitations, slips of the tongue, random ungrammaticalities and other performance lapses (Brown, 1994). In spite of many attempts of researchers and scientists to set a definition which still remains problematic, generally one can state that an error in the form of foreign language produced by a learner, which reflects his or her contemporary competence and which does not belong to the target language system.

In the process of learning and teaching a language an error has always been regarded as something negative, as a result, both teachers and students have adopted a repressive attitude towards it. Such a belief was supported by behaviorists, such as Skinner (1957) who perceived the process of language learning as a habit formation and an error as an obstacle that should be avoided because it caused the formation of bad habits. A different point of view was presented by Chomsky (1959) who claimed that language learning is not a mechanical process but rather a mental one where learners test some previously formed hypotheses against positive evidence. This cognitive process of rule formation may be modified by negative evidence, which is a correction. According to cognitivism, a learner has its language system, called Interlanguage (Selinker, 1972), which signifies a learner's contemporary stage of knowledge of the second language and it represents the continuum of stages that characterizes a learner's progress (Ellis, 1994). From this perspective, errors are evidence of the development in the language learning process. Error making is stated to be an inevitable and necessary part of language learning (Dulay & Bart, 1974; Hendrickson, 1987), as it is a sign that the learner develops and assimilates the

rules of language. Moreover, errors help teachers to verify what features of language cause students learning problems and tell how far towards the goal learners have progressed and, consequently, what is to be acquired (Corder, 1981). A number of errors and the types of them serve not only as indicators of the proficiency level, but they also help teachers in applying appropriate steps to treat learners difficulties, as they are provided with feedback on the effectiveness of teaching materials and techniques adopted and receive information whether they can move on to the next item which is included in the syllabus. Corder (1967; 1981) highlights that teachers should not only notice errors but try to understand some psychological reasons for their occurrence as well.

Apart from the distinction between an error and a mistake, deviant forms can be ascribed to various categories depending on characteristics that are taken into account. A well-known taxonomy involves the specification of errors in terms of linguistic categories, in terms of the location of an error in the overall system of the target language “based on the linguistic item which is affected by the error” (Dulay et al., 1982; James, 1998, p. 104). Taking into account this criterion one can distinguish the following types of errors: phonetic, morphological, syntactic, lexical, semantic and pragmatic. In the process of identifying and describing errors, the division between covert and overt errors has been made where the former are said to be unquestionably ungrammatical at the sentence level, whilst the latter is grammatically correct but cannot be interpreted within the context of communication (Corder, 1973). For example, "I'm fine, thanks." is a correct sentence but if it is given as an answer to the question of "How old are you?" it is

a covertly committed error. Another criterion in classifying errors which influences correcting is whether a deviant form impedes communication or not, in other words, whether a sentence is comprehensible or not. Such a distinction has been proposed by Burt and Kiparsky (1974) who defined a global error as the one which affects the interpretation of the whole sentence (examples are: word order, missing or wrongly placed sentence connectors, and syntactic overgeneralizations), and a local error as a type which affects a single element in a sentence. It is important to define an error, its source, a type, since it has a considerable impact on further decisions that a teacher has to make, namely, the decisions concerning corrective feedback.

Generally speaking, error correction is defined as a reaction to a speaker's utterance by someone who has assessed that the utterance itself or at least the part of it is linguistically or factually wrong. James (1998) regards correction as the improved version of what the first speaker aimed to say. It must be noted that researchers distinguish the difference between error correction and corrective feedback, however, for this article, the author has decided to use both terms interchangeably. The notions of feedback and correction are very often presented in terms of evidence, which is the information that learners receive about the target language and their attempts at reproducing it. One can distinguish two main kinds of evidence, namely positive and negative. Positive evidence is the information about what is possible in the language, for example, listening to BBC, CNN or lectures gives the positive exposure of language (and this is authentic). In the case of a teacher talking in the classroom, the language is modified because of



simplifications or elaborations. Negative evidence (or feedback) is defined as the information about what is not possible in the language. In naturalistic contexts feedback is the result of negotiation, whilst in the language classroom, it is provided by the teacher owing to his or her superior knowledge and the communicative asymmetry that puts the teacher in the position of power (Pawlak, 2004).

The question arises whether error correction is needed and useful in the process of language acquisition. As the issue is rather controversial it has both proponents and opponents. One of the critical opinions is that very often error correction is unreliable, vague and ineffective (Long, 1977). A similar statement is presented by Truscott (1999) who added that there is no proof that corrective feedback is helpful but teachers treat it as something always necessary in the language classroom. He also claimed that error correction is more of a hindrance rather than a useful tool. Some linguists, including Krashen (1982) have believed that language is acquired unconsciously and learning it formally is of little use in later real-life situations, that is why concentrating on formal correction is rather counterproductive. Moreover, it is argued that "error correction puts learners on the defensive and, as a result, they tend to avoid using difficult structures and focus on form rather than meaning" (Pawlak, 2004, p. 47). Nonetheless, there are adherents of providing corrective feedback, including Lyster, Lightbrown, and Spada (1999) who disagree with Truscott's paper claiming that correcting students' deviant forms rarely hurt their self-esteem and most of the learners expect to receive corrective feedback. Furthermore, it should be borne in mind

that learners' output is at the same time input for themselves and other students in the classroom, therefore lack of corrective feedback may cause that some hypotheses stay incorrect (Schachter, 1998). Another argument involves the assumption that corrective feedback is indispensable since some grammatical structures are highly difficult to be acquired through positive evidence. Providing feedback may also foster learners' language awareness and the ability to notice gaps in their interlanguage. Consequently, both linguistic consciousness-raising and noticing gaps result in learners' modifying their output in constructive and long-lasting ways (Pawlak, 2004).

What makes the issue of providing corrective feedback even more complicated is the fact that it requires a range of quick decisions that a teacher needs to make after having noticed an error in a student's utterance. The first decision concerns the question of whether an error should be treated in any way. Certainly, such a choice is dependent on some factors, including the aim of a task, namely, if it is to develop fluency or accuracy, and also the proficiency level of students. Having already decided that an error should be the subject of treatment, a teacher is supposed to choose from three possible options when to deal with an erroneous item and these are immediate, delayed or postponed correction. Although all of them have some advantages and disadvantages, it has to be remembered that when to correct is closely related to the decision of how to do that, meaning explicitly or implicitly. The last choice to be made concerns who is the person to provide corrective treatment. It is a teacher who reflects a general assumption of who should be such a person, nevertheless, it can also be a learner



himself or herself (self-correction) or other students in the classroom (peer correction). As it has been stated earlier, the concepts of an error and its corrective feedback is a controversial issue because of the complexity it is characterized with. There is no doubt that teachers have to face the ubiquity of errors among learners of the foreign language and the methods that are employed by them depend on their general views concerning errors and the corrective feedback. For this reason, the author of the researches decided to conduct the research to find out how errors and their corrections are perceived by teachers and how students, who are always direct recipients of all the decisions in the classroom, feel about teachers error correction practice during speaking activities.

### **1. Definition of Error**

In order to set a theoretical framework for the study, a definition of "error" should be made. There are many definitions of the error made so far and there seems to be no consensus on a single definition. Researchers like Allwright and Bailey (1996) have rightly become aware of the importance of speaking context, the intention of the teacher and student and the prior learning of the students in the process of deciding what an error is.

George (1972) stated, "Error is unwanted form by lecturer or course designer. The reason why the error is unwanted is that in the teaching-learning process the lecturer or course designer uses a standard to achieve the objective of the teaching". Errors can occur when students always get something wrong consistently. Norrish (1983, p. 7) defined 'an error' as a systematic deviation

that happens when a student has not learned something and consistently ‘get(s) it wrong’.

According to Dulay et al. (1982, p. 138), making errors is an inevitable part of the language learning process because students cannot learn a language without first systematically committing errors. Error is part of learning; by making error students know how to fix it and they will learn something. Afterward, the appearance of oral error while using English cannot be denied. Since, students need to deal with a new vocabulary, new grammar, and rules of the target language due to the language are different from their mother tongue (first language). Based on Corder (1981, p. 73), “Errors can occur as the result of the interference from the habit of the first language”.

Even though students are allowed to make some errors while learning process, yet it does not mean language students are allowed to do errors all the time. Rydahl (2005, p. 32) also stated when student pronounce words incorrectly, make syntax errors, or use words in a context where they do not belong, it may be necessary for the students to receive feedback that makes the students aware of the error and thus provides information about how to avoid making the same mistakes again. When it happens, the lecturer's role in the classroom is very important. The lecturer needs to give feedback which can notice and avoid students to make the same errors. There are three kinds of verbal feedback based on Gattullo (2000) and Harmer (2001), they are evaluative feedback, interactive feedback, and corrective feedback. In order to make students notice their errors, this research focuses on corrective feedback.

Therefore, researchers dealing with error treatment have chosen the definition of applying to their research context. For this study, an oral error is broadly defined as a form unwanted by the teacher in the given teaching/learning context (Mosbah, 2007). Also, the term "corrective feedback" needs to be defined. It is the teacher's reaction that transforms, disapproves or demands improvement of the learner utterance (Chaudron, 1977). Another term in need of clarification is "uptake" that refers to different types of student responses following the feedback, including responses with the repair of the non-target items as well as utterances still in need of repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The correction may come from the student, a peer or the teacher. After some key definitions, the issue of oral error correction should be approached from a historical perspective to see the progress made so far. Traditionally, when the audio-lingual approach to teaching foreign languages was popular among English teaching professionals, errors were seen as something to be avoided. However, today the contemporary research seems to agree on the fact that rather than expecting students to produce error-free sentences, students were encouraged to communicate in the target language and making errors is a natural part of second language acquisition.

## **2. Types of Students' Error**

### **a. Pronunciation Errors**

A student makes his daily report in class as follows: "I had a terrible dream last night. I was deserted [dezetid] in the desert [dezet]

and felt very hungry. Suddenly I found some dessert [dizet] in my pocket. I was about to put it into my mouth when a deserted [dezetid] dog ran up and took it away." Actually, the wall knows the story of the boy in the dream, the boy was deserted in the desert feeling hungry. A deserted dog took the dessert he found in his pocket before he put it into his mouth. Without a doubt, the boy failed to express himself. The example shows that pronunciation errors often make it hard for speakers to make themselves understood or even make them misunderstood and listeners puzzled. So communicating in English seems to be more difficult.

b. Grammatical Errors

We often hear some sentences like this "The problem will discuss tomorrow. I am getting up at six in the morning. I am like watching TV." The first sentence is spoken by students who are influenced by the mother tongue-Chinese. The rest may be spoken by students whose teacher often reminds them that "I" should be followed by "am". If these errors don't get corrected in time, the students will keep them in mind and think they are right. The result will be very terrible. The three short sentences are enough to show us that the students must obey grammar rules when speaking English.

c. Communication Strategy-Based Errors

A foreign teacher had her first class in a Chinese middle school. She asked the students to have a free talk –introduce themselves or ask

her some questions. A boy was so excited that he stood up and blurted out “How old are you? Are you married? How much do you earn a year?” These questions made the teacher a bit embarrassed, but she just smiled and replied, “It is a secret.” Then she told the class it is impolite to ask others such private questions. She is a patient teacher who can tolerate it. We are not sure whether everyone will accept it. If so, such students will not be welcome or be considered impolite. They may lose many friends and opportunities.

The advice of current specialists in the language is that teachers should not attempt to correct every error in oral communication, so which error should be given corrective feedback? Correcting all errors made by a student gives a real picture of the extent to which the student needs remediation. When the learner takes this seriously, he may be overwhelmed by the number of his errors and see his performance a failure. As an effect, he may be disheartened and hurt or he may see the corrective feedback as overly critical; eventually, he may think that the teacher is biased against him personally. In contrast, teachers who give little corrective feedback may enable the student to focus improving in one or few areas, but the student might be led to perceive that he is not making errors at all, or that his errors are insignificant that he does not exert effort to learn the concepts involved in order to avoid committing them in the future.

Teachers should be more tolerant of errors that do not destroy communication. As explained by Hendrickson (1978) learners do not like to be corrected for each minor error they make. This practice ruins their confidence to use the target language. A decision that teachers should focus on should be that which will be most productive for the learners in future communication. The following are the types of errors that need corrective feedback as mentioned by Pierson (2005) and Karra (2006): a) errors that impair communication; b) errors that show misunderstanding of the current classroom focus; c) errors that have high "stigmatizing" effect; and d) errors that are produced the most frequent. The language teacher needs to be familiar with these types of errors in order to be able to provide a suitable correction.

#### **D. Feedback**

Feedback is conceptualized as information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. A teacher or parent can provide corrective information, a peer can provide an alternative strategy, a book can provide information to clarify ideas, a parent can encourage, and a learner can look up the answer to evaluate the correctness of a response. Feedback thus is a "consequence" of performance.

To assist in understanding the purpose, effects, and types of feedback, it is useful to consider a continuum of instruction and feedback. At one end of the continuum is a clear distinction between providing instruction and providing



feedback. However, when feedback is combined with more a correctional review, the feedback and instruction become intertwined until "the process itself takes on the forms of new instruction, rather than informing the student solely about correctness" (Kulhavy, 1977, p. 212). To take on this instructional purpose, feedback needs to provide information specifically relating to the task or process of learning that fills a gap between what is understood and what is aimed to be understood (Sadler, 1989), and it can do this in some different ways. These may be through affective processes, such as increased effort, motivation, or engagement. Alternatively, the gap may be reduced through several different cognitive processes, including restructuring understandings, confirming to students that they are correct or incorrect, indicating that more information is available or needed, pointing to directions students could pursue, and/or indicating alternative strategies to understand particular information. Winne and Butler (1994, p. 5740) provided an excellent summary in their claim that "feedback is information with which a learner can confirm, add to, overwrite, tune, or restructure information in memory, whether that information is domain knowledge, metacognitive knowledge, beliefs about self and tasks, or cognitive tactics and strategies".

Feedback does not affect a vacuum; to be powerful in its effect, there must be a learning context to which feedback is addressed. It is but part of the teaching process and is that which happens second-after a student has responded to initial instruction-when information is provided regarding some aspect(s) of the student's task performance. It is most powerful when it addresses faulty interpretations, not



a total lack of understanding. Under the latter circumstance, it may even be threatening to a student: "If the material studied is unfamiliar or abstruse, providing feedback should have little effect on criterion performance, since there is no way to relate the new information to what is already known" (Kulhavy, 1977, p. 220).

The focus of this article on feedback as information about the content and/or understanding of the constructions that students have made from the learning experience is not the same as a behaviorist input-output model. Contrary to the behaviorists' argument, Kulhavy (1977) demonstrated that feedback is not necessarily a reinforcer, because feedback can be accepted, modified, or rejected. Feedback by itself may not have the power to initiate further action. In addition, it is the case that feedback is not only given by teachers, students, peers, and so on, but can also be sought by students, peers, and so on, and detected by a learner without it being intentionally sought.

Feedback, however, is not "the answer"; rather, it is but one powerful answer. With inefficient learners, it is better for a teacher to provide elaborations through instruction than to provide feedback on poorly understood concepts. If feedback is directed at the right level, it can assist students to comprehend, engage, or develop effective strategies to process the information intended to be learned. To be effective, feedback needs to be clear, purposeful, meaningful, and compatible with students' prior knowledge and to provide logical connections. It also needs to prompt active information processing on the part of learners, have low task complexity, relate to specific and clear goals, and provide little threat to

the person at the self-level. The major discriminator is whether it is clearly directed to the task, processes, and/or regulation and not to the self-level. These conditions highlight the importance of classroom climates that foster peer and self-assessment and allow for learning from mistakes.

On the other hand, when feedback is combined with effective instruction in classrooms, it can be very powerful in enhancing learning. As Kluger and Denisi (1996) noted, a feedback intervention provided for a familiar task, containing cues that support learning, attracting attention to feedback-standard discrepancies at the task level, and void of cues that direct attention to the self is likely to yield impressive gains in students' performance. It is important to note, however, that under particular circumstances, instruction is more effective than feedback. Feedback can only build on something; it is of little use when there is no initial learning or surface information. Feedback is what happens second, is one of the most powerful influences on learning, too rarely occurs, and needs to be more fully researched by qualitatively and quantitatively investigating how feedback works in the classroom and learning process.

Gattullo (2000) and Harmer (2001) have divided feedback into three different kinds which are evaluative feedback, strategic feedback, and corrective feedback.

a. Evaluative Feedback Evaluative

Feedback is given by the lecturer in using words and phrases to indicate to which students' performance is good or not, for example, "good", "excellent", or "poor performance". This feedback is used to

help students to fix their errors and improve their performance. Gatullo (2000) suggests that evaluative feedback is mostly used in English second and foreign language classrooms.

b. Strategic Feedback

Harmer (2001) mentions strategic feedback is used to improve students' performance and become self-reliant by giving some advice and technique. In other words, a lecturer gives suggestions or advice to the students on how to overcome their mistakes by themselves. For example, for students who cannot pronounce "the", the lecturer might say, "Look at my tongue, put your teeth on your tongue, and say, the." So, strategic feedback can be done by giving guidance or technique to the students in order they can correct their errors by themselves. Tsui (1995) suggests that strategic feedback can enhance student learning and make them more confident.

c. Corrective Feedback

Feedback is used to correct the students' errors. This type will explain how the utterance is correct or wrong. In language learning, corrective feedback is related to accuracy. In addition, McNamara (1999) and Ayoun (2001) have pointed out that lecturer's oral feedback might affect students' attitude in learning to positively or negatively. Therefore, feedback can be considered as positive or negative. It depends on how the lecturer uses the feedback toward their students. Positive feedback shows the lecturer is interested in student's

performance and at the same time encourage the student. On the other hand, negative feedback shows the lecturer's displeasure toward student's performance or it can involve some kind of punishment. In teaching English, the lecturer should consider what kind of feedback they should give to the students in the classroom in order to encourage them in acquiring English and avoiding them to make some errors.

There are several other types of feedback that are usually used in the language classroom. Some scholars name them as positive and negative feedback, and others call them implicit and explicit feedback. Positive feedback is feedback that the teacher, parent, or peer gives to praise the student regarding their good performance. Positive feedback is beneficial in learning because it can motivate students to do better in the future. Ellis (2009) admits that positive feedback as a response to the correctness of a learners' use of target language and performance is important to motivate them to continue performing better. An example of positive feedback is a teacher, at the end of a students' performance, saying "Your speech was really excellent, Akbar." On the other hand, negative feedback is given as a response towards the errors made by a student in using the target language. Hussein and Ali (2014) say that negative feedback is a way to let the student know that she has made mistakes in using the target language. Ellis (2009) strengthens their argument by stating that negative feedback is used to show there are errors in what the learner has said. For example, when a student says "I not sees him for two days" a teacher could correct the grammatical error by saying "No, you should say, I have not seen him for two days."

Other types of feedback are implicit and explicit feedback. From the word itself, implicit means unnoticeable and explicit means noticeable. By giving implicit feedback, the teacher tries to correct the students' error without giving a clear explanation about what to correct. Conversely, explicit correction happens when the teacher corrects the students' errors by clearly pointing them out. According to Pérez et al. (2013), implicit feedback does not obviously state where the students' errors appear while explicit feedback is obvious and can be easily noticed and corrected by the students. Through explicit correction, the students will clearly know what their errors were, therefore they can fix them better. According to Ellis (2006), explicit feedback enables the students' to realize their errors better. Therefore they can do self-correction and the result will promote students' learning. To conclude, explicit feedback is a noticeably way of correcting students' errors by clearly pointing out the error and giving a correct form of the target language. Conversely, implicit feedback is an error correction that does not obviously signal the students' errors in using the target language.

Previous research has identified several constructs involved in the feedback process: the sources of feedback (teachers and students); the mode of feedback (how it is presented); the content (information conveyed); and the occasion (when it is presented) (Rucker & Thomson, 2003). While there has been an attempt by some researchers to explain relationships between some variables, little has been done to integrate these constructs into a coherent theoretical model. Few studies have focused on teacher feedback about student performances, and fewer on student perceptions or preferences. Drew (2001) found that for students,

feedback relating to all aspects of progress was important, not just performance in essays or exams (see also Deeptose & Armitage, 2004).

Available research suggests that feedback is most effective when provided soon after task performance; is presented in a manner sensitive to the students' learning styles; clearly identifies strengths and weaknesses; has suggestions for improvements; and is constructive and motivating (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Parikh, McReelis & Hodges, 2001; Rucker & Thompson, 2003). Earlier research also established feedback as a necessary condition for student goal setting (Erez, 1977). Although the purpose of the present study was to explore student perceptions, a comparison of students' conceptualizations and research definitions is useful for refining teaching methods. For the purpose of this paper, Hattie and Timperley's (2007) definition of feedback will be adopted, which they conceptualize as: information provided by an agent (e.g. teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding ... feedback is thus a consequence of performance (Hattie & Timperly, 2007, p.81).

#### **E. Oral Corrective Feedback**

Corrective feedback is used to correct the errors made by the students. Based on Ellis (2009), corrective feedback can be considered as negative feedback, because the giving of corrective feedback by the lecturer indicates the language user uses the language incorrectly (Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p.171).



Since it does not provide the correct form, corrective feedback will force the students to use their knowledge about the language to fix their error.

Brandt (2008) considered corrective feedback is more effective when it is focused, contains relevant and meaningful data, it is descriptive rather than evaluative, and it contains a moderate amount of positive feedback with a selected and limited amount of negative feedback, it allows for response and interaction.

Corrective feedback can be implicit or explicit. Implicit feedback does not provide any additional information to students to correct their utterance. So, while the lecturer gives implicit feedback, usually he/she does not interrupt the conversation but directly corrects the error that the student makes. Explicit feedback types offer additional or clear information for students to correct their error. The lecturer will provide any information about the correct form of the language and indicate how the utterance is erroneous.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified kind of oral error corrective feedback into six. They are:

1. Repetition is when the lecturer repeats the student's error and changes the intonation to draw the student's attention to indicate that there is a problem.

For example:

S: I have one hundred dollars in my /*pakit*/.

T: /*pakit*/?

S: /*pokit*/

2. Elicitation is when the lecturer elicits the correct form from the student by asking the question. There are at least three techniques that Lecturer use to directly elicit the correct form from the student. First, the lecturer uses questions to elicit correct forms "What do we say to someone who helps us?" Second, "elicit completion", pausing to allow the students' complete lecturer's utterance, for example, He is a good ... The last is asking students to reformulate the utterance, for example: "Can you say that again?"

3. Metalinguistic feedback contains comments, information, or question-related to the correct form of student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments such as, "Can you find the correct form?"

For example:

S: there aren't book on the table.

T: + *there are* is used for a plural noun, for example, there are six apples in the fridge. If there is only one book on the table, it should use is.

4. Clarification request, the instructor asks what the speaker meant by the error utterance by using phrases like "Pardon me? Excuse me?, Again?". It is indicated in the student's utterance has been misunderstood by the lecturer or instructor.

For example:

S: There aren't many */hotils/* in this town.

T: Pardon me?

5. Recast is generally implicit because in this case, it does not show expressions like "Oh, you mean ...", "You should say ...". However, recast are more salient than others in that they may focus on one word only. Recast is when the lecturer repeat of the utterance, replace the error with the correct form without directly pointing out that the student's utterance was incorrect.

For example:

S: Kania like watermelon.

T: yes, *Kania likes watermelon.*

6. Explicit correction refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the lecturer provides the correct form, he or she indicates that the student had said was incorrect. (e.g. "Oh, you mean ...", "You should say ...")

For example:

S: I drive a motorcycle.

T: You should say "I ride a motorcycle because drive is used for car or bus; when ride is used for motorcycle, horse, bicycle, and so on."

Before Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified kind of oral error corrective feedback into six, Fanselow (1997) has stated 16 kinds of oral error corrective feedback. His taxonomy included traits such as vocal emphasis and gesture as defining characteristics. However, since Lyster and Ranta published their findings in 1997, their six kinds of oral error corrective feedback have been used to guide people in considering corrective feedback.

As we know that not only about kinds of oral error corrective feedback which lecturer should consider in giving oral error corrective feedback to the students but also how and when it should be given have to be considered in order to help students in notice and correct their errors. The way which the lecturer uses in giving oral error corrective feedback matters to students in noticing and correcting their errors.

Which errors should be corrected by the lecturer, every error or only important errors? Should it be done privately between the lecturer and the student or it should be done individually while they are studying in the classroom? Should it be done in the class or after the class over? These questions are needed to be considered because it affects students' attitude in learning and acquiring English.

Hendrickson (1978) stated that when the lecturer allows some errors and correct others, students feel more comfortable speaking than if the lecturer is to correct every error. Havranek (2002) suggests if the corrective feedback is best for correcting simple grammar rules such as verb endings and the auxiliary do is an example of the research indicating that the type of error being corrected may determine whether or not it should be corrected. When Catchart & Olsen (1976) study found that students want most oral their mistakes corrected.

Based on Krashen (1994) and Truscott (1999), corrective feedback which is done in the classroom can give negative emotional experience to the students which can impede them in the learning process. On another hand, Smith (2010) study showed most of the students want their error to be corrected immediately in the class.

However, the lecturer should have his/her own priorities and consider many things in giving the corrective feedback to the students and it should have coincided with the circumstances in the teaching and learning activity for it can influence students' emotional experience in learning and acquiring English. Firwana (2010), in his study, found that finding the perfect timing of doing corrective feedback is very important to be considered by the lecturer.

Corrective feedback can give a positive impact and negative impact. The positive impact will appear if the corrective feedback is given correctly by the lecturer and negative impact will appear if corrective feedback is given incorrectly by the lecturer. Although the giving of corrective feedback is important to be given to the students, the way of lecturer in giving it and kind of corrective feedback which suitable in teaching and learning process is still need to be considered.

Corrective feedback can increase students' motivation in learning English if the lecturer gave it in appropriate way. Sometimes when the lecturer corrects students' error excessively it will decrease students' motivation in learning. To avoid that, the lecturer needs to know learners' preferences toward oral error corrective feedback, in order to reach the objective in teaching English.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **RESEARCH METHOD**

#### **A. Research Design**

Research design is commonly defined as the way of thinking and preparing to complete research and achieve the goal of the research. The writer wants to know the students' responses and perceptions toward oral corrective feedback in teaching speaking class. According to Cresswell (2009, p. 3) research design is plans and the procedures for research to detailed methods of data collection and analysis.

The research type is a descriptive quantitative design because this study concerned with the process. According Ethridge (2004, p. 24) descriptive research can be explained as a statement of affairs as they are at present with the researcher having no control over variable. Moreover “descriptive studies may be characterized as simply the attempt to determine, describe or identify what is, while analytical research attempts to establish why it is that way or how it came to be”. A descriptive study determined naturally, and the research has no control over the condition and the situation, and could only measure what already exists.

Leedy and Ormrod (2001) alleged that quantitative research is specific in its surveying and experimentation, as it builds upon existing theories. Quantitative researchers seek explanations and predictions that will generate to



other persons and places. The intent is to establish, confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalizations that contribute to theory. Cresswell (2003) states, quantitative research “employ strategies of inquiry such as experimental and surveys, and collect data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data. The finding from quantitative research can be predictive, explanatory, and confirming. (Williams, 2007)

## **B. Population and Sample**

### **1. Population**

Population is the larger of groups to which a researcher wishes to generalize it include all members of a defined class of people, events, or objects (Ary, 2010). Population is the whole of the research subject (Arikunto, 1998, p. 115).

The population of this study was all students who took Public Speaking course of English Education Study Program at IAIN Palangka Raya. The numbers of population are 64 students.

**Table 3.1**  
**The Number of 5<sup>th</sup> Semester Students at English Education Study Program in IAIN Palangka Raya Academic Year 2017/2018**

<b>No</b>	<b>Public Speaking Class</b>	<b>The Number of Students</b>
1	Class A	22 Students
2	Class B	24 Students
3	Class C	18 Students
<b>Total</b>		<b>64 Students</b>

## 2. Sample

According to Arikunto (2006, p. 109), a sample must be representative of a population. Based on Ary (2002, p. 163) a sample is a group of a population. It means that a good sample must be representative of the entire as possible so that the generalization of the sample of this research.

According to Sugiono (2010, p. 118) Sample is part of the number and characteristic of those set in the population. Population forms a part of the population-representative population, so if the researcher finds information on the sample, it's mean that information was constituted from the sample.

According to Sukardi (2007, p. 54) stated that the important condition to attention in take sample is two kinds, they are total of apparently adequate sample and the profile of sample must be a representative sample. The total of the sample must be chosen before doing research. There is abusively how much we can take the sample to represent population but in general, the greater of the sample is the greater to population explained.

Meanwhile, the researcher used total sampling (the total number of population) to take the sample. This refers to Arikunto (2002) that says if the students are less than 100, it is better to take all of the subject. So, it can be said as population of the research. Then, if the subjects are more than 100, it can be taken 10-15% or 20-25% of total population.

Based on the statement above, the writer would take all population as sample of this study. It is caused that the population of this study is less than 100.

### **C. Research Instrument**

#### **1. Research Instrument Development**

##### **a. Questionnaire**

Questionnaire is an instrument in which respondents provide written responses to questions or mark items that indicate their response (Ary et al, 2006, p. 648). Questionnaire is a written instrument consisting of questions to be answered or statements to be responded by respondents. It is used to gather information about facts or about opinions/attitudes (Latief, 2010, p. 193).

The research instruments for this study is a questionnaire. This questionnaire designed for students who take English department study program of IAIN Palangkaraya in order to know the students' perception towards oral corrective feedback given in teaching speaking activity. The questionnaire designed in English language. This part used a Likert scale.

In addition, a Likert scale is the most common use question format for assessing participant's opinions of usability (Dornyei, 2010, p. 20). Likert scale in this study Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), Neutral (N), Agree (A), and Strongly Agree (SA). Harris (1969, p. 15) presented the sample that used 1 - 5 points.

Each statement from the questionnaire labeled with each own score. There are five predetermined answers with scale 1 – 5 suggested by Likert Scale.

**Table 3.2**  
**Range Score of Statements**

Answers	Score
Strongly Agree (SA)	5
Agree (A)	4
Neutral (N)	3
Disagree (D)	2
Strongly Disagree (SD)	1

**Table 3.3**  
**Questionnaire Item Specification**

Indicators	Item Specification
The students' preferences toward how oral error corrective feedback should be given by the lecturer.	Item 1-3, 7-8
The students' preferences toward when oral error corrective feedback should be given by the lecturer.	Item 4-6
The students' feeling when oral error corrective feedback is given by the lecturer.	Item 9-12
EFL learners emotionally react to the oral feedback process in classroom situations.	Item 13-17

b. Observation

In this study, the data needed is data to support questionnaire in answering the second research problem about how is corrective feedback given by the lecturer during the speaking class activity researcher will use observation. Arikunto (2006, p. 140) believe that

observation is all form in getting data that does by record even, count, measure and note all of even that occurred. Sutrisno Hadi (1986) agrees that observation is a complex process, a process composed of various biological and psychological processes. Two of the most important are the processes of observation and memory. (Sugiyono, 2015)

Stainback (1988) said that in participant observation, the researcher observes what people do, listen to what they say, and participates in their activities. Stainback divides observation into 4, there are passive observation, moderate participation, active participation, and complete participation. The researcher used passive observation that means the research is present at the scene of action but does not interact or participate. Field note prepared to write some important data while the learning process that will help the researcher to analyse the data.

Researcher observed directly the students when they are studying English in their classroom. Through this technique, the researcher wants to know for data about:

1. How do teaching learning process done by the 5<sup>th</sup> semester students at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya when the oral corrective feedback given by the lecturer in their speaking class.
2. Kind of feedback that given by the lecturer in Public Speaking class.

## 2. Instrument Validity

Based on Sugiyono, the result of the study is called valid if there is a similarity between the data that have collected by the testes and the true data that happened on the object of the study.

There are five types of validity (Setyadi, 2006. p. 22). They are face validity concerns with the layout of the test. They are content validity that represents the materials to be included, predictive validity that concerns with measuring the success in the future, as in replacement test, construct validity that concerns in measures specific characteristic in accordance with a theory of language learning and concurrent validity.

Based on the types above, the writer used face validity, content validity and construct validity because the other two are considered to be less needed.

### a. Face Validity

It is a term sometimes used in connection with a test's content. Face validity refers to the extent to which examinees believe the instrument is measuring what it is supposed to measure. Face validity ensures that the test items look right to other testers, teacher, indicators, and test. (Heaton, 1974, p.152)

Face validity is an estimate, whether the test appears to measure a certain criterion, but it does not guarantee that the test actually measures phenomena in that domain and is very close to content



validity. The content validity depends upon a theoretical basis for assuming a test that it is assessing all domains of a certain criterion, meanwhile face validity relates to whether the test appears to be a good measure (Haynes et.al., 1995). This judgement is made on the face of the test, thus it can also be judge by the experts in the field.

b. Content Validity

Content validity is a non-statistical type of validity that involves “systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured” or the extent to which a measuring instrument provides adequate coverage of the topic under study. If the instrument contains a representative sample of the universe, the content validity is good; its determination is mainly judgmental and intuitive (Shadish et. al., 2002).

It is especially important for achievement tests; it is also a concern for other types of measuring instruments, such as personality and aptitude measures. Content validity demands appropriateness between the ability to be measured and the test being used to measure it.

c. Construct Validity

Construct validity concerns with whether the test is actually in line with the theory of what it means to know the language. It means that the test measures certain aspect based on the indicator. The researcher

examined it by correlating the aspects that measured with the theories of those aspects.

According to Sugiyono (2009, p. 177) "Construct validity test can be used with the opinion of experts (experts' judgment)." In this case, after the instrument is constructed on the aspects that measured based on a particular theory, then it consulted with some experts. The experts made a decision: the instrument can be used without revisions, adding some improvements or possibly a total revision.

### **3. Instrument Reliability**

According to Donald (1985, p. 236), the reliability of a measurement instrument is the degree of consistency with which it measures whatever it is measuring. Reliability is a necessary characteristic of any good test. For it to be valid at all, a test must first be reliable as a measuring instrument. Reliability is defined as how much consistency the test scores the test achieves on the retest (Sudijono, 2005, p. 179-180). Reliability is the consistency of score if the test is conducted to the same tester (Sugianto, 2017).

### **D. Data Collection Procedure**

In this study, the researcher collected the data from questionnaire and observation.

1. The researcher prepared the instruments test, which is questionnaire that have validity and reliability.

2. The researcher delivered the questionnaire to the sample that has been chosen by total sampling.
3. The researcher collected all of the questionnaires.
4. The researcher has done the observation to public speaking class directly.
5. After find the data, the researcher analyzed the result of questionnaire using Microsoft Excel and SPSS software.
6. The researcher got the result of the questionnaire.
7. The researcher drawn conclusion from the data finding and theories about the students' perception toward oral corrective feedback in speaking class at English department of IAIN Palangka Raya.

#### **E. Data Analysis Procedure**

Quantitative data analyzed using SPSS software and Microsoft Excel. To analyse data of the questionnaire, the researcher used simple basic statistical techniques, as follows:

1. The researcher collects the main data (item score/responses);
2. The researcher arranges the collected score into the distribution of the frequency of the score table.
3. The researcher calculate Mean using formula, Median, Mode, and Standard Deviation.

##### **a. Mean,**

According to Ary et al., (2010), it is sum all of the scores in a distribution divided by the number of cases. In term of a formula, it is:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

Where:  $\bar{X}$  = Mean value

$\Sigma$  = Sum of

X= raw score

N = Number of case

b. Median

Median (Med). is defined as that point in a distribution of measure which 50 percent of the cases lie (which means that the other 50 percent will lie above this point). (Ary et al, 2010)

c. Mode

Mode is the value in a distribution that occurs most frequently. (Ary et al, 2010)

d. Standard Deviation

$$\text{Stdev} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum fx^2}{N - 1}}$$

Where:  $\sum fx^2$  = Sum of the frequency of each score

N = Number of cases

**Table 3.4**

**Statistics of Mean, Median, Mode, SD, Minimum and Maximum Score**

N	Valid	64
	Missing	0
Mean		58.64
Median		60.50
Mode		59 <sup>a</sup>

Std. Deviation	8.682
Minimum	28
Maximum	72

#### 4. Validity and reliability

Validity (quality) is a quality that shows the relationship between a measurement (diagnosis) with the meaning or purpose of learning or behavioral criteria (Supriadi, 2011, p. 108). The technique used to determine the validity of a test is by product-moment correlation technique. Here is the formula of product-moment correlation with rough numbers:

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{\{N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2\} \{N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2\}}}$$

With description:

$r_{xy}$  : Correlation coefficient

X : The value of variable X

Y : The value of variable Y

N : Number of subjects

$\sum$  : Number of values (Supriyadi, 2011, p. 110-111)

To determine whether the test question is valid or invalid then  $r_{xy}$  or  $r_{hitung}$  compared with product moment  $r_{tabel}$  with the following criteria:

If  $r_{arithmetic} \geq r_{tabel}$  then valid

If  $r_{arithmetic} \leq r_{tabel}$  then invalid. (Purwanto, 2004, p. 139)

**Table 3.5**  
**Result of Test Validity**

<b>Item</b>	<b>Total Corrected Item Total Correction/ r total</b>	<b>r table</b>	<b>Criteria</b>
1	0.536	0.246	Valid
2	0.442	0.246	Valid
3	0.593	0.246	Valid
4	0.525	0.246	Valid
5	0.510	0.246	Valid
6	0.426	0.246	Valid
7	0.641	0.246	Valid
8	0.517	0.246	Valid
9	0.265	0.246	Valid
10	0.622	0.246	Valid
11	0.649	0.246	Valid
12	0.247	0.246	Valid
13	0.549	0.246	Valid
14	0.423	0.246	Valid
15	0.569	0.246	Valid



16	0.536	0.246	Valid
17	0.643	0.246	Valid

Reliability is the consistency of score if the test is conducted to the same tester (Sugianto, 2017). To find the reliability of data, the researcher will use Alpha's formula.

$$r_{11} = \left( \frac{k}{k-1} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{\sum S_i}{S_t} \right)$$

With description:

$r_{11}$  = Coefficient reliability

$k$  = Number of items

$\sum S_i$  = Total score varians each item

$S_t$  = Total score Varians

With the criterion of reliability interpretation:

$0.80 \leq r_{xx} < 1.00$  = very high

$0.60 \leq r_{xx} < 0.80$  = high

$0.40 \leq r_{xx} < 0.60$  = medium

$0.20 \leq r_{xx} < 0.40$  = low

$0.00 \leq r_{xx} < 0.20$  = very low. (Slameto, 2001, p.215)

**Table 3.6**  
**Case Processing Summary**

	N	%
Cases Valid	64	100.0
Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
Total	64	100.0

As it can be seen from Table 3.6 that 64 students rated the statement in the questionnaire. All of them were included the reliability analysis.

**Table 3.7**  
**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.821	17

Cronbach's Alpha value is shown in the Reliability Statistic table. The value is 0.821 suggesting very high internal consistency reliability for the scale.

5. The researcher count the percentage (%). It is showing the proportion of the group in the population.
6. The researcher describe the result in form of percentage, or could also display the result in a figure using a bar graph or pie chart.
7. The researcher make the conclusion of each item in the questionnaire.
8. The researcher classified and analyzed the data based on category.
9. The researcher describe the conclusion based on data analyzed.

**Table 3.8**  
**Rating of Students' Perspective**

<b>Average Score</b>	<b>Students' Perception</b>
1.00 – 1.50	Very Negative (VN)
1.51 – 2.50	Negative (N)
2.51 – 3.50	Positive (P)
3.51 – 4.00	Very Positive (VP)



## **CHAPTER IV**

### **RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

This chapter presented the result of the findings. It was intended to answer the problems of the study. In finding, the researcher described the process of calculating and presenting result of the data. Whereas; in the discussion section the researcher will analyze the finding. The researcher presents the data which had been collected from the research in the field of study which consists of description of the data, result of data analysis, and discussion.

#### **A. Data Presentation**

For the first data, the researcher took from the students' questionnaire. The researcher took the questionnaire on September 18<sup>th</sup> – 30<sup>th</sup> in public speaking class at English department of IAIN Palangka Raya. There are 17 questions in the questionnaire. Questions number one, two, three, seven, and eight to find out the students' preferences toward how oral error corrective feedback should be given by the lecturer. Questions number four, five, and six to find out the students' preferences toward when oral error corrective feedback should be given by the lecturer. Questions number nine, ten, eleven, and twelve to find out the students' feeling when oral error corrective feedback is given by the lecturer. Questions number thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen to find out how EFL learners emotionally react to the oral feedback process in classroom situations.

For the second data was doing an observation, the researcher used field note technique to know how oral corrective feedback given by the lecturer in speaking class. The kind of oral corrective feedback that the researcher observe in the class, as follows; **recast**: the lecturer repeats the students' utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error, **metalinguistic feedback**: the lecturer gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake, **explicit correction**: the lecturer gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation, **repetition**: the lecturer highlights the student's grammatical error by using intonation, **elicitation**: the lecturer asks the student to correct and complete the sentence, and **asking for clarification**: the lecturer asks the student to reformulate the answer to indicate that the student's utterance was not understood. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

## **B. Research Findings**

### **1. Result from Questionnaire**

The result on how are the students' perception toward oral corrective feedback given in speaking class activity at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya was obtained by employing questionnaire as the main instrument to collect the data. the presented data consisted of responses, central tendency (mean, median, modus), and standard deviation. There were 64 students in fifth semester were chosen as sampling in this research.

The first step was to tabulate score into the table of calculation Mean. The table was shown below:

**Table 4.1**  
**The Calculation of Mean**

X	F	FX
5	23	115
4	30	120
3	7	21
2	1	2
1	3	3
	N=64	261

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum FX}{N} = \frac{261}{64} = 4.07$$

The mean of item 1 is 4.07

Next step is to tabulate the score into the table of calculation Deviation Score and Standard Deviation.

**Table 4.2**  
**The Calculation of Deviation Score and Standard Deviation of Students' Perception**

X	F	FX	X	$x^2$	$Fx^2$
5	23	115	0.93	0.86	19.78
4	30	120	0.07	0.05	1.5
3	7	21	1.07	1.15	8.05
2	1	2	2.07	4.28	4.28
1	3	3	3.07	9.42	28.26
	64	$\sum 261$			$\sum 61.87$



$$\text{Stdev} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum Fx^2}{N-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{61.87}{64-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{61.87}{63}} = \sqrt{0.982} = 0.981$$

Then the score of Mean, Median, Modus, and Standard Deviation are tabulated in the table. The table is as follows:

**Table 4.3**  
**Result of Questionnaire**

No	Statement	Scale					Total	MN	M D N	M O	SD
		SA	A	N	D	SD					
		5	4	3	2	1					
1	I prefer when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to every error which made by me.	23	30	7	1	3	261	4.08	4	4	0.981
	Percent	35.9	46.9	10.9	1.6	4.7					
2	I prefer when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to only important errors which made by me.	7	30	16	7	4	221	3.45	4	4	1.038
	Percent	10.9	46.9	25	10.9	6.2					
3	I prefer when my lecturer gives me corrective feedback in private.	12	23	24	4	1	233	3.64	4	3	0.915
	Percent	18.8	35.9	37.5	6.2	1.6					
4	I prefer when my lecturer gives me corrective feedback in class.	6	34	18	5	1	231	3.61	4	4	0.828
	Percent	9.4	53.1	28.1	7.8	1.6					
5	I prefer when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error immediately.	9	29	18	5	3	228	3.56	4	4	0.990

	Percent	14.1	45.3	28.1	7.8	4.7					
6	I prefer when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error after the class.	5	22	28	7	2	213	3.33	3	3	0.892
	Percent	7.8	34.4	43.8	10.9	3.1					
7	I prefer to be corrected individually by my lecturer.	8	32	17	2	5	228	3.56	4	4	1.022
	Percent	12.5	50.0	26.6	3.1	7.8					
8	I prefer to be corrected when everyone in the class makes the same error as me.	6	30	22	4	2	226	3.53	4	4	0.872
	Percent	9.4	46.9	34.4	6.2	3.1					
9	I feel confused when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error.	2	14	21	21	6	177	2.77	3	2	1.004
	Percent	3.1	21.9	32.8	32.8	9.4					
10	I feel reassured when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error.	16	22	19	2	5	234	3.66	4	4	1.130
	Percent	25	34.4	29.7	3.1	7.8					
11	I feel fine when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error.	15	29	13	4	3	241	3.77	4	4	1.035
	Percent	23.4	45.3	20.3	6.2	4.7					
12	I feel bad or angry when my lecturer correct my errors.	2	6	10	28	18	138	2.16	2	2	1.042
	Percent	3.1	9.4	15.6	43.8	28.1					
13	I worry about making oral mistakes in language class.	4	22	23	13	2	205	3.20	3	3	0.946
	Percent	6.2	34.4	35.9	20.3	3.1					
14	I get upset when I don't understand what the lecturer is correcting.	4	15	23	18	4	189	2.95	3	3	1.015
	Percent	6.2	23.4	35.9	28.1	6.2					
15	I want lecturers to correct my errors in speaking English.	25	20	10	6	3	250	3.91	4	5	1.165

	Percent	39.1	31.2	15.6	9.4	4.7					
16	Oral feedback provided is necessary and helpful.	20	25	12	4	3	247	3.86	4	4	1.082
	Percent	31.2	39.1	18.8	6.2	4.7					
17	I feel I have learnt a lot from oral correction.	10	32	13	5	4	231	3.61	4	4	1.048
	Percent	15.6	50.0	20.3	7.8	6.2					

Note:

SA = Strongly Agree

A = Agree

N = Neutral

D = Disagree

MN = Mean

MDN = Median

MO = Modus

SD = Strongly Disagree

Based on the table above, it could be explained as follows:

Dealing with statement number 1, the students prefer when the lecturer gives corrective feedback to every error which made by them. There are 3 students (4.7%) state strongly disagree, 1 student (1.6%) disagree, 7 students (10.9%) neutral, 30 students (46.9%) agree, and 23 students (35.9%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 2, the students prefer when the lecturer gives corrective feedback to only important errors which made by them. There are 4 students (6.2%) state strongly disagree, 7 students (10.9%)

disagree, 16 students (25%) neutral, 30 students (46.9%) agree, and 7 students (10.9%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 3, the students prefer when the lecturer gives them corrective feedback in private. There are 1 student (1.6%) state strongly disagree, 4 students (6.2%) disagree, 24 students (37.5%) neutral, 23 students (35.9%) agree, and 12 students (18.8%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 4, the students prefer when the lecturer gives them corrective feedback in the class. There are 1 students (1.6%) state strongly disagree, 5 students (7.8%) disagree, 18 students (28.1%) neutral, 34 students (53.1%) agree, and 6 students (9.4%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 5, the students prefer when the lecturer gives corrective feedback to their oral error immediately. There are 3 students (4.7%) state strongly disagree, 5 students (7.8%) disagree, 18 students (28.1%) neutral, 29 students (45.3%) agree, and 9 students (14.1%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 6, the students prefer when the lecturer gives corrective feedback to their oral error after the class. There are 2 students (3.1%) state strongly disagree, 7 students (10.9%) disagree, 28 students (43.8%) neutral, 22 students (34.4%) agree, and 5 students (7.8%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 7, the students prefer to be corrected individually by the lecturer. There are 5 students (7.8%) state strongly disagree, 2 students (3.1%) disagree, 17 students (26.6%) neutral, 32 students (50%) agree, and 8 students (12.5%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 8, the students prefer to be corrected when everyone in the class makes the same error as them. There are 2 students (3.1%) state strongly disagree, 4 students (6.2%) disagree, 22 students (34.4%) neutral, 30 students (46.9%) agree, and 6 students (9.4%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 9, the students feel confused when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error. There are 6 students (9.4%) state strongly disagree, 21 students (32.8%) disagree, 21 students (32.8%) neutral, 14 students (21.9%) agree, and 2 students (3.1%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 10, the students feel reassured when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error. There are 5 students (7.8%) state strongly disagree, 2 students (3.1%) disagree, 19 students (29.7%) neutral, 22 students (34.4%) agree, and 16 students (25%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 11, the students feel fine when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to their oral error. There are 3 students (4.7%) state strongly disagree, 4 students (6.2%) disagree, 13 students

(20.3%) neutral, 29 students (45.3%) agree, and 15 students (23.4%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 12, the students feel bad or angry when the lecturer correct their errors. There are 18 students (28.1%) state strongly disagree, 28 students (43.8%) disagree, 10 students (15.6%) neutral, 6 students (9.4%) agree, and 2 students (3.1%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 13, the students worry about making oral mistakes in language class. There are 2 students (3.1%) state strongly disagree, 13 students (20.3%) disagree, 23 students (35.9%) neutral, 22 students (34.4%) agree, and 4 students (6.2%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 14, the students get upset when they don't understand what the lecturer is correcting. There are 4 students (6.2%) state strongly disagree, 18 students (28.1%) disagree, 23 students (35.9%) neutral, 15 students (23.4%) agree, and 4 students (6.2%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 15, the students want lecturers to correct their errors in speaking English. There are 3 students (4.7%) state strongly disagree, 6 students (9.4%) disagree, 10 students (15.6%) neutral, 20 students (31.2%) agree, and 25 students (39.1%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 16, oral feedback provided is necessary and helpful. There are 3 students (4.7%) state strongly disagree,



4 students (6.2%) disagree, 12 students (18.8%) neutral, 25 students (39.1%) agree, and 20 students (31.2%) strongly agree.

Dealing with statement number 17, the student feel they have learnt a lot from oral correction. There are 4 students (6.2%) state strongly disagree, 5 students (7.8%) disagree, 13 students (20.3%) neutral, 32 students (50%) agree, and 10 students (15.6%) strongly agree.

## 2. Result from Observation

The result on how is oral corrective feedback given to the students' in speaking class activity at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya was obtained by observation for support the data of types corrective feedback and their response based on feedback that given by the lecturer in speaking class activity.

This kind of research process was aimed to make sure the activity in the class about how is their lecturer gives oral corrective feedback when the students are speaking. This process was shown the data that support the result of the questionnaire. The data was taken on September 26<sup>th</sup> in B Class and September 30<sup>th</sup> in C Class.

**Table 4.4**

### **The Process Teaching Learning in Public Speaking Class**

<b>Classes</b>	<b>The Process Based Field Note</b>
B Class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Lecturer explain the material.</li> <li>- Lecturer give a task to read some</li> </ul>

	<p>pages for public speaking in front of the class in 15 minutes.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Lecturer ask one by one of the students about the title that they choose from the material that given by the lecturer.</li> <li>- From the title that they have chosen, they should prepare the material for speech in 5 minutes.</li> <li>- Students come forward after the lecturer call their name one by one.</li> <li>- The lecturer are correcting one by one after they are finish do speech immediately.</li> <li>- Which is the lecturer used explicit correction and asking for clarification in giving feedback to the students.</li> </ul>
C Class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The students opening and presenting the material in a group.</li> <li>- The students do presentation using mix language.</li> <li>- While the students presenting the material, the lecturer give oral corrective feedback to their error while speaking.</li> <li>- In the question and answer session, the lecturer gives oral corrective to the students</li> </ul>

	<p>utterance.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The lecturer closing the meeting and give some advices and suggestions for the students.</li> <li>- Which is the lecturer used recast, repetition, and asking for clarification for giving feedback to the students.</li> </ul>
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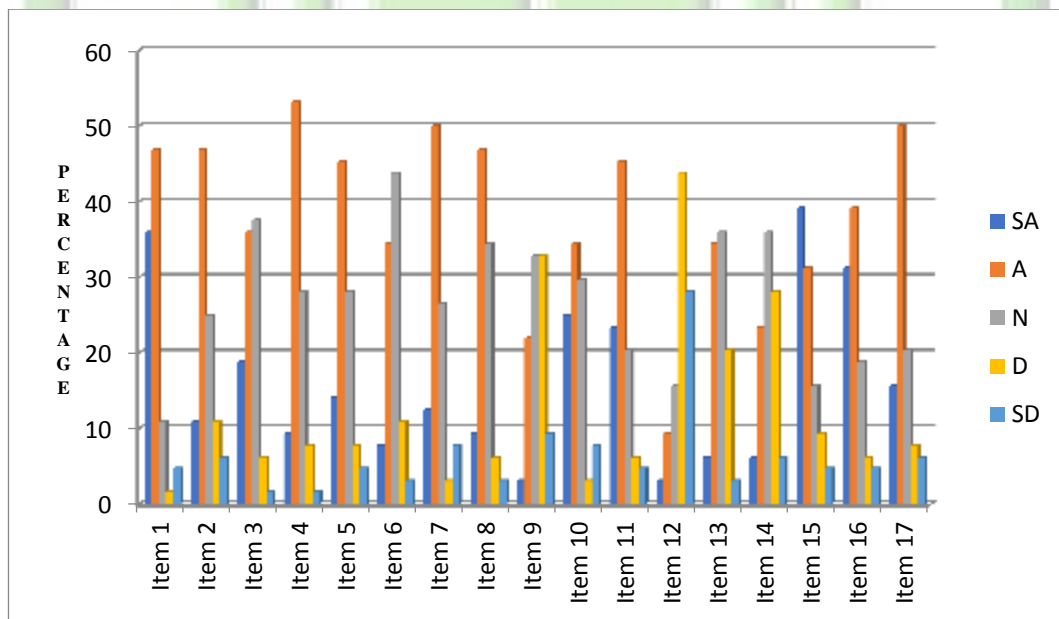
Based on the observation which researcher did to the public speaking class, the lecturers have their own method in giving corrective feedback to their students. The observation proves that the most of students often produces errors while teaching and learning process in the class. The error which usually appear are in many aspects, such as: grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. In order to notice the students to their errors which they produce, the lecturers always do the corrective feedback. Each lecturer has their own way in giving corrective feedback, such as: direct feedback, peer correction, or ask them to clarify their utterance. From six kind of oral corrective feedback by Lyster and Ranta, the lecturers only used four of them, there are recast, repetition, explicit correction, and giving for clarification.

Based on score obtained through a questionnaire which consist of 4 indicators from 17 statement, got overview of the Students' Perception Toward Oral Corrective Feedback in Speaking Class at English Department of IAIN Palangka Raya. Based on the analyzed by using

Likert Scale, then it converted to following rating in order to interpret the perception of the students.

**Table 4. 5**  
**Result of Students' Perspective**

Indicator	Average Score
I (Item 1,2,3,7,8)	3.65
II (Item 4,5,6)	3.50
III (Item 9,10,11,12)	3.09
IV (Item 13,14,15,16,17)	3.50
<b>Total Average Score</b>	<b>3.43 (Positive)</b>



**Figure 4.1 Chart Result of the Questionnaire**

Based on the analysis, it is shown that the students' perception toward oral corrective feedback is positive. It could be concluded from the chart

above that most students agree to receive oral corrective feedback from their lecturer in speaking learning class.

### **C. Discussion**

Based on the finding, it was shown a positive perspective in using oral corrective feedback in speaking class with the score is 3.43. All of the indicators show a good point above 3.00 which is answering the research question that the students' perception toward oral corrective feedback in speaking class. Also, it obviously answered that the use of oral corrective feedback in speaking learning class is effective to improve the students' speaking ability.

Based on the finding from the first indicator which is purpose to see the student's preferences how oral error corrective feedback should be given to the students in the speaking class, most students agree that the lecturer gives corrective feedback to every error that made by them in 3.65 average score. In line with (Ellis), in classroom application, the teacher as an educator takes an important part in giving corrective feedback to students. Ellis stated that oral corrective feedback is a part of the teaching process because it has an important role in enhancing students' linguistic accuracy. Corrective feedback in speaking is also a form of social meditation to help students in performing language functions that they are unable to perform individually. (Chapter II, p. 8) It could be conclude that the most of the students have positive perception about oral corrective feedback in speaking class that

given by the lecturer. Oral corrective feedback as guide to improve their ability with the error that the students make.

Based on the finding from the second indicator which is purpose to see the students' preferences toward when oral error corrective feedback should be given by the lecturer the average score is 3.50. The result of this study have shown that the students prefer if corrective feedback is given immediately in the class. In this case, the students prefer if the lecturer gives oral corrective feedback in the class immediately. It has the same result as Quinn's study, majority of the students prefer if the lecturer gives oral error corrective feedback immediately. It because the students are impatience to know errors they have made. They cannot wait to find it out. If corrective feedback is delayed, the students may forget what errors which they have produced or said and it may be difficult to analyse which error they made. Supporting with Truscott's study (1999), it shows majority of the students in his study wanted their errors to be corrected by the lecturer in the classroom. (Chapter II, p. 10)

This finding also shows the giving of oral error corrective feedback in the classroom gets higher percentage than giving oral error corrective feedback after the class. By giving oral error corrective feedback in the classroom can be helpful for the students in the classroom. Making an error is a part of learning process, it can be beneficial not only for the one who produced the error but also his/her friends in the classroom. All students can



learn what the errors are and how to fix the error together; so, all students can learn from others' error.

Based on the finding from the third indicator which is purpose to see the students' feeling when oral error corrective feedback is given by the lecturer, most students agree that they feel fine when the lecturer gives corrective feedback to their errors in 3.09 average score. The third data describe the students feeling when they got oral corrective feedback in speaking learning class. In line with Ananda (2017) stated that most of students show they are fine when their lecturer gives corrective feedback to them. They are not annoyed nor angry, it means most of students show positive perception toward oral error corrective feedback which given by the lecturer. (Chapter II, p. 14)

Lastly, Based on the finding from the third indicator which is purpose to see EFL learners emotionally react to the oral feedback process in classroom situations, most students agree that they have learnt a lot from oral error correction with 3.50 average score. In line with (Storch) "providing feedback on a large number of errors may overwhelm the learners, not to mention be extremely time-consuming for the teachers". In this sense, teachers should know when and how to correct errors and, above all, should consider learners' sensitiveness and personality. Despite the fact that most learners find corrective feedback highly helpful and, thus, need and wish to be corrected regularly in class. (Chapter II, p. 13) It could be conclude that the students have positive perception about corrective feedback give students

benefit in speaking learning. The oral corrective feedback is very helpful as effective guide to improve speaking ability for students.

Based on the observation which researcher did to the public speaking class, it can be concluded that students in speaking for professional context class received from lecturers, those were; recast, repetition, explicit correction, and asking for clarification. Additionally the wrong utterance also committed by students due to some factors such as lack of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.

The lecturers have their own method in giving corrective feedback to their students. The observation proves that the most of students often produces errors while teaching and learning process in the class. In order to notice the students to their errors which they produce, the lecturers always do the corrective feedback. The lecturer only give the corrective feedback to only some important errors which are produced by the students and the other lecturer gives the corrective feedback individually and immediately during teaching and learning process.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION**

This chapter contained the conclusion of the findings and suggestions. The conclusion was to summarize the finding, and suggestion was aimed to the students, specifically for the English Lecturer of English Education Study Program of IAIN Palangka Raya, and those who are interest further in researching about oral corrective feedback in speaking.

#### **A. Conclusion**

Being interested in the process of teaching and learning a language, the researcher have attempted to describe the students' perception toward oral corrective feedback in teaching learning process because it has important role in enhancing students' linguistic accuracy. This study involved 64 students in public speaking class who has took basic speaking course. The result indicated that the students' perception toward oral corrective feedback is positive. All of indicator show a good point that most students agree to receive oral corrective feedback from their lecturer. These findings could contribute to better understanding of how the lecturer should give oral corrective feedback when the students' make some errors in the classroom.

The result of this study shows that students' agree if oral corrective feedback that given by the lecturers give beneficial and can improve their speaking ability. Hence, to make teaching and learning process can be done

meaningfully, the lecturers should consider students preferences, especially in giving corrective feedback to students' error. Hopefully, it can help the students' to do corrections to their errors and have meaningful learning which can be very beneficial for them.

## **B. Suggestion**

### **1. For the Lecturer**

- a. In correcting students' speaking error, the lecturer does not only focus on language but also in all content of speaking and performance.
- b. The lecturer could give any variation of kinds corrective feedback for student based on the students' characteristic to make them were be comfort and to avoid negative effect for them.
- c. The lecturer could give a praise and motivation after giving explicit correction for the students.

### **2. For the Other Researcher**

As the suggestion for the further researchers, lecturer may be involved to the researchers as the subject beside the students. It will provide a better comphrehending by relating and comparing the students' perception and lecturers' perception of oral error corrective feedback.

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