CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Speaking

1. Definition of Speaking

According to Nowicka and Wilczyn´ska states that "speaking is widely considered to be the principal skill that stands for an overall knowledge of a foreign language. However, because of its transitory and thus elusive nature, it is challenging to both analyse the process of speaking itself and to observe the skill development in L2, not to mention its learning and teaching."[1] Hammerly says that "speaking is a process during which speakers rely on all the available information (background and linguistic) to create messages that will be understandable and meaningful to the intended audience."[2] Speaking is to talk that has meaning which arranged by language can be understood by listeners. It is productive

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[1] Mirosław Pawlak, Ewa Waniek-Klimczak and Jan Majer (Eds.), *Speaking and Instructed Foreign Language Acquisition*, (Toronto: Multilingual Matters Ltd, 2011), 24.

[2] Pawlak, Klimczak and Majer (Eds.), *Speaking and Instructed*, 132.

language skill in overall knowledge of foreign language such as English.

On the other hand, Thornbury explains that "speaking is so much a part of daily life that we take it for granted. So natural and integral is speaking that we forget how we once struggled to achieve this ability- until, that is, we have to learn how to do it all over again in a foreign language."[3] Anna Mauranen says that speaking is the first mode in which children acquire language, it constitutes the bulk of most people's daily engagement with linguistic activity, and it is the prime motor of language change.[4] Actually, speaking is an achievement in learning a language, especially in learning a foreign language. In fact, the purpose of learning a language is to communicate with the others, to express opinions, to say, and to converse. There has no doubt that using different language (e.g. English) to communicate with foreigners could know one another better.

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[3] Scott Thornbury, *How to Teach Speaking,* (London: Pearson Education Limited, 2005), 1.

[4] *Rebecca Hughes* (Ed), *Spoken English, TESOL and Applied Linguistics: Challenges for Theory and Practice*, (Nottingham: PALGRAVE MACMILLAN, 2006), 144.

2. Difficulties of Speaking

Harmer explains in speaking activities some students want to be corrected the moment they make any mistake, whereas others would like to be corrected later. In other words, just as students have different learning styles and intelligences, so, too, they have different preferences when it comes to being corrected.[5] Speaking is high skill in English. To speak is not easy, non-native students can't speak English fluency because it is not their language and doesn't use in daily life. A mistake and errors in speaking is okay. Practically, it is almost impossible to do, and mistakes in themselves can teach a lot for learners.

Harmer divided mistakes into three categories. (a) Slips are mistakes which students can correct themselves, once the mistake has been pointed out to them. (b) Errors are mistakes which they can't correct themselves - and which, therefore, need explanation. (c) Attempts are mistakes that students make when they try to say something but do not yet

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[5] Jeremy Harmer, *How to Teach English,* New Edition (Harlow: Pearson Education Limited, 2007), 27.

know how to say it.[6] Teacher gives feedback and correction such as mistakes will be heavily influenced by students. They will try to think that area they are wrong then they will feel anxiety.

3. Teaching Speaking for Senior High School Students

a. The roles of teacher

As with any other type of classroom procedure, teachers need to play a number of different roles during different speaking activities. According to Harmer, three have particular relevance if we are trying to get students to speak fluently, such as[7]:

1) **Prompter:** students sometimes get lost, can't think of what to say next or in some other way lose the fluency we expect of them.

2) **Participant:** teachers should be good animators when asking students to produce language. Sometimes this can be achieved by setting up an activity clearly and with enthusiasm. At other times, however, teachers

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[6] Harmer, *How to Teach English,* 96.
[7] Jeremy Harmer, *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, 4th Edition (Harlow: Pearson Education Limited, 2007), 347-348.

may want to participate in discussions or role-plays themselves.

3) **Feedback provider:** the vexed question of when and how to give feedback in speaking activities is answered by considering carefully the effect of possible different approaches. When students are in the middle of a speaking task, over-correction may inhibit them and take the communicativeness out of the activity. On the other "hand, helpful and gentle correction may get students out of difficult misunderstandings and hesitations. Everything depends upon our tact and the appropriate of the feedback we give in particular situations.

Those are three basic of teacher's roles in teaching speaking activity in English classroom. Everything will be unexpected happen. Students may be make teacher is surprised with their performances that are good or no, but should not to be blamed if they have errors and mistakes.

b. **Teaching speaking**

There are three main reasons for getting students to speak in the classroom according to Harmer, as follows[8]:

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[8] Harmer, *How to Teach English,* 123.

1) Rehearsal opportunity: speaking activities provide rehearsal opportunities, getting students to have free discussion, gives them a chances to practice real-life speaking in the safety of the classroom.

2) Feedback: speaking tasks in which students try to use the language they know provide feedback for both teacher and students. Teacher could see how students doing well and what the problems they are having.

3) Engagement: Good speaking activities can and should be extremely engaging for the students, it should be high motivating for them. If they are all participating fully and if the teacher has set up the activity properly and can then give sympathetic and useful feedback, they will get tremendous satisfaction from it.

A teacher needs to clear the kind of speaking activities, she/he is not same as controlled language practice. For example, students say a lot of sentences

using a grammar or tenses, whenever students are speaking, a teacher should to pay attention to their pronunciations. Teachers should not has to stop them every time when they say something incorrectly, but they can make notes and include repetition of problem words in feedback sessions. Teachers can also collect data, it can address recurring of students' errors.

B. Corrective Feedback

1. Giving Feedback

During oral or written interaction, participants might negotiate for meaning due to a lack of understanding. As part of this negotiation, Rizi and Ketabi explain that "*learners receive feedback* on their language production, potentially helping to draw attention to linguistic problems and leading them to notice gaps between features of their inter-language

and the target language."[9] Concept of feedback adopted by Hooton, there are two concept, as follows[10]:

a. Macro-perspective feedback

Feedback is information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. This concept of feedback within the field of education and more specifically within the context of classrooms.

b. Micro-level perspective feedback

Feedback refers to the information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way.

From this concept, writer intends to corrective feedback by teacher when the students are made errors and mistakes. Hence, teacher is an agent who the information

[9] Ahmad Reza Beigi Rizi and Saeed Ketabi, "A Close Look at Sixty Years of Corrective Feedback", *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research,* Volume 2, Issue 1, (2015), 64.

[10] Nur Kurtoğlu-Hooton, *Confirmatory Feedback in Teacher Education: An Instigator of Student Teacher Learning*, (Birmingham: School of Languages and Social Sciences, Aston University, 2016), 2.

provider for them. Although O'Dowd mentions "the purposes of providing peer feedback on language form vary in type and intensity, depending on either the individual students' preferences." [11] In language learning and teaching, giving feedback is necessary. Anongnad Petchprasert has perspective about it, he stated that[12]:

> In language learning and teaching, varying types of feedback can be provided to students. As in other disciplines, feedback that motivates students' language learning should receive particular attention. On practical grounds, feedback for motivation and language correction are a key concern for language educators.

Moreover, Harmer said that it will probably be necessary for teachers to correct mistakes made during speaking activities in a different way from those made during a study exercise. When students are repeating sentences, trying to get their pronunciation exactly right, then the teacher will often correct (appropriately) every time there's a

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[11] Robert O'Dowd (Ed.), *Online Intercultural Exchange an Introduction for Foreign Language Teachers,* (Toronto: Multilingual Matters Ltd, 2007), 112.

[12] Anongnad Petchprasert, "Feedback in Second Language Teaching and Learning", *US-China Foreign Language,* Vol. 10, No. 4, (April 2012), 1112.

problem.[13] Giving feedback on language errors that is clear and helpful to student. Even though the students have yet to acquire a particular grammatical form or structure, when spoke they could forget it.

2. Definition of Corrective Feedback

According to Lyster states that "corrective feedback as well as other attempts to draw learners' attention to language features in relatively unplanned and spontaneous ways are referred to as reactive form-focused approaches, because they occur in response to students' language production during teacher-student interaction." [14] Nur Kurtoğlu-Hooton maintains that feedback is one way of providing both support and challenge, adaption his study explained that[15]:

> Egan divides feedback into two categories: *confirmatory feedback* and *corrective feedback* and states that "through confirmatory feedback, significant others such as helpers, relatives, friends, and colleagues let clients know that they are on

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[13] Harmer, *How to Teach English*, 131.
[14] Roy Lyster, *Learning and Teaching Languages through Content: A Counterbalanced Approach,* (Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2007), 47.
[15] Hooton, *Confirmatory Feedback,* 2.

course—that is moving successfully through the steps of their action programs toward their goals" and that "through corrective feedback, significant others let clients know that they have wandered off course and what they need to do to get back on".

In addition, Ahangari and Amirzadeh say that "corrective feedback is an important tool for teachers to prevent their learners' errors from getting fossilized and help them progress along their inter-language continuum."[16] Ruth Abaya states that "corrective feedback is an actuality of second language pedagogical practice in the school setting and is mainly influenced by teachers' beliefs."[17] It necessary when teach English include speaking. Likewise, Hooton explained that [18]:

> Corrective feedback is a context in which the people involved in giving or receiving the feedback are teacher educators or student teachers and are not in a counsellor—client relationship.

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[16] Saeideh Ahangari and Somayeh Amirzadeh, "Exploring the Teachers' Use of the Spoken Corrective Feedback in Teaching Iranian EFL Learners at Different Levels of Proficiency", *International Conference on Education and Educational Psychology,* (ICEEPSY 2011), 1860.

[17] Ruth Abaya, "Corrective Feedback in English Language Teaching and Learning: Which Way to Go?" *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature (IJSELL),* Volume 2, Issue 10, (October 2014), 5.

[18] Hooton, *Confirmatory Feedback,* 3.

Corrective feedback, on the other hand, applies to situations where there was perhaps a better alternative for some skill that had been exhibited, for some behaviour that took place, for some teacher quality that was or was not revealed, or for some decision that did not work particularly well in a specific classroom context.

When teachers give corrective feedback to students it means that they are describing the behaviour and offering or eliciting an alternative action, asking what student could have done differently way from the ones.

Hooton gives further explanation for assessment purposes of corrective feedback that[19]:

> For assessment purposes, to ensure that student teachers have fulfilled the aims and objectives of a teacher education course, certain behaviours are expected, and therefore feedback is often likely to be of a corrective nature. Corrective feedback, could, for example, focus on the need for student teachers to show their awareness of the learners' errors, the need for them to be able to correct these errors sensitively, or the need for them to ensure that any activity they use is purposeful. Student teachers might feel that this type of feedback also involves some kind of "a gentle telling off", especially if the feedback implies that there is very little or no evidence of progress.

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[19] Hooton, *Confirmatory Feedback*, 3.

According to Egan, he states the person giving feedback should (1) Engage the client in dialogue. Invite the client not only to comment on the feedback but also to expand on it. (2) Help the client discover alternative ways of doing things.[20] So, he sees all feedback as an opportunity for learning and recommends that it should be given in the spirit of caring; that a mix of both confirmatory and corrective feedback are used.

3. Types of Corrective Feedback

There are different types of corrective feedback. In the following section each of these corrective feedback techniques is explained, they are:

a. Recast

Lyster defines that recast as a reformulation of the learner's utterance minus the error(s).[21] Macaro defines that recasts are a type of oral feedback to learner errors and are usually thought to be the least disruptive to the

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[20] Hooton, *Confirmatory Feedback*, 9.
[21] Lyster, *Learning and Teaching,* 93.

on-going communicative activity. He give an example of a recast is[22]:

Teacher	: Yves, do you help with the cooking at home?
Yves	: Yes I am helping at weekends.
Teacher	: I help at weekends [*with downward intonation*] . . . only at weekends?

In this case, the teacher repeats the student's utterance and changing only those elements needed to make it correct without changing any of the meaning, and allowing for the conversation or questioning sequence to immediately resume.

In addition, Lyster explains that whether or not a learner perceives the corrective function of a recast depends on many other factors[23] :

- Recasts are more likely to be noticed by high-ability learners than by low ability learners.
- Recasts of phonological errors are more noticeable than recasts of grammatical errors.
- Recasts that reduce the learner's initial utterance then add intonation stress for

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[22] Ernesto Macaro (Ed.), *Continuum Companion to Second Language Acquisition,* (London: Continuum International Publishing Group, 2010), 95.
[23] Lyster, *Learning and Teaching,* 97-98.

emphasis are more likely to draw attention to the mismatch than recasts that are neither reduced nor stressed.

- Recasts in laboratory settings are effective when they are provided intensively and with consistency to developmentally ready learners receiving individualized attention.
- Recasts may benefit language development when "the learner has already begun to use a particular linguistic feature and is in a position to choose between linguistic alternatives".

Although Lyster, Saito & Sato say that "recasts are well suited to communicative classroom discourse, because they tend not to interrupt the flow of communication, keep students' attention focused on meaning, and provide scaffolds that enable learners to participate in interaction that requires linguistic abilities exceeding their current developmental level."[24] It proves that recast in types of oral corrective feedback when student shows their speaking ability in a performance.

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[24] Roy Lyster, Kazuya Saito and Masatoshi Sato, "Oral Corrective Feedback in Second Language Classrooms", *Journal Cambridge: Language Teaching,* Volume 46, Issue 01 (January 2013), 10

b. Explicit Feedback

Rezaei says that feedback that carries explicit error correction falls at the explicit extreme on the continuum of corrective feedback. [25] The explicit provision of the corrected form (through which the teacher) clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect. In addition, Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam *et al* explained the explicit feedback can take two forms, they are[26] :

(1) Explicit correction, this type of corrective feedback provides both positive and negative evidence by clearly saying that what the learner has produced is erroneous, e.g. No, not goed – went.

(2) Metalinguistic feedback, defined by Lyster and Ranta as "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance". For

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[25] Saeed Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback in Task-based Grammar Instruction: A Case of Recast vs. Metalinguistic Feedback", (Lap Lambert Academic Publishing, 2011), 23.

[26] Rod Ellis, Shawn Loewen, Catherine Elder, Rosemary Erlam, Jenefer Philp and Hayo Reinders, *Implicit and Explicit Knowledge in Second Language Learning, Testing and Teaching* (Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 2009), 304.

example, 'You need past tense', which affords only negative evidence.

Both of those, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback could use for positive correction, but for negative correction use explicit correction. Explicit feedback contains metalinguistic information clearly eliciting self-repair was more accurately perceived, but metalinguistic feedback leaned to comments, information or questions to reformulate students' utterance.

c. Clarification Requests

Rezaei states that clarification requests provide the learner with almost no information concerning the type or location of the error. It can be more consistently relied upon to generate modified output from learners. [27] He further explains for the commonplace function of clarification requests as a discourse move in conversation makes this kind of corrective feedback the least

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[27] Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback", 25.

communicatively obtrusive and, therefore, perhaps the most implicit.[28] In addition, Suzuki explains about clarification request that[29]:

> These are either in the form of question such as *Pardon?* and *I'm sorry?* or attempts to reveal the intended form of the error with the rising tone. This type of corrective feedback is used when there are linguistic problems in the learner's turn, and also when the learner's utterance is not comprehensible.

McDonough investigated the effects clarification requests which included opportunities for immediate repair, and found no significant differences overall between recasts and clarification requests.[30] Lyster, Saito & Sato say that learners who received both explicit instruction and corrective feedback showed distinguishable improvement in receptive measures (multiple choice tasks), while those who received clarification requests without explicit instruction

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[28] Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback", 24.

[29] Mikiko Suzuki, "Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake in Adult ESL Classrooms", *Teachers College, Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics,* Vol. 4, No. 2. (Columbia, 2004), 9.

[30] Lyster, Saito and Sato, "Oral Corrective", *Journal Cambridge,* Vol. 46, 13.

outperformed the other groups in production measures (dialogue tasks). [31] Usually, clarification request is followed by an act such as give questions or statements e.g. "I don't understand," or imperatives e.g. "Please repeat".

d. Metalinguistic Feedback

Adopted from Lyster and Ranta categorize metalinguistic feedback as "either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form". They state about characteristic of metalinguistic feedback that[32]:

> The defining characteristic of metalinguistic feedback is its encoding of evaluations or commentary regarding the non-target, like nature of the learner's utterance. By encoding direct reference to the existence of an error or to the nature of the error, metalinguistic feedback supplies the language learner with negative evidence regarding the target form.

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[31] Lyster, Saito and Sato, "Oral Corrective", *Journal Cambridge,* Vol. 46, 26.

[32] Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback", 25

They divided metalinguistic feedback into three different subcategories: (1) metalinguistic comments, (2) metalinguistic information, and (3) metalinguistic questions. When a learner makes a mistake teacher can provide with metalinguistic feedback. Usually, metalinguistic feedback is given at the end of the lesson, the comments was given is to evaluate all students in general. So it is not appointed to a target learner or student.

e. **Elicitations**

Adopted from Rezaei, according to Panova and Lyster "elicitation is a correction technique that prompts the learner to self-correct" and may be accomplished in one of three ways during face-to-face interaction[33]:

- Through requests for reformulation of an ill-formed utterance (e.g. Say that again? or did you say that right?)
- Through the use of open questions (e.g. How do we say X in French?), and

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[33] Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback", 26.

- Through the use of strategic pauses to allow a learner to complete an utterance.

Elicitation helps develop a learner-centred dynamic, the learners can link new and old information by their-selves. It was memorable because the learner did self-correction.

f. Prompt

Lyster, Saito and Sato, prompts includes a variety of signals other than reformulations that push learners to self-repair. [34] The types of prompt, they are elicitation, metalinguistic clue, clarification request and repetition. They grouped together as "prompts," because they withhold correct forms and instead offer learners an opportunity to self-repair by generating their own modified response.[35] They include on explicit and implicit of prompt the type of corrective feedback.

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[34] Lyster, Saito and Sato, "Oral Corrective", *Journal Cambridge,* Vol. 46, 3.

[35] Lyster, *Learning and Teaching*, 108.

g. Repetitions

Adopted from Lyster and Ranta, repetition the sub of implicit prompt, such as: a verbatim repetition of a student utterance, often with adjusted intonation to highlight the error.[36] According to Panova & Lyster explained about repetition that[37]:

> Repetitions are also an approach to providing corrective feedback that, like the strategic pausing of elicitations, is less communicatively intrusive than either explicit error correction or metalinguistic feedback (at least during face-to-face interaction), and thus falls toward the implicit end of the corrective feedback spectrum. In face-to-face classroom contexts, repetition, as the name suggests, is a teacher's or interlocutor's repetition "of the ill-formed part of the student's utterance, usually with a change in intonation".

The teacher repeats the student's utterance using rising intonation and characterized by the form of a question mark, indicating a need to re-evaluate some element of the lexical item and grammatical of language.

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[36] Lyster, Saito and Sato, "Oral Corrective", *Journal Cambridge,* Vol. 46, 4.

[37] Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback", 28.

h. Translations

Adobted from Panova & Lyster, translations are corrective feedbacks that are provided in response to "a student's unsolicited use of their LI".[38] Rezaei says that translations are generated in response to a learner's well-formed utterance in a language other than the target language. He further explains that translations contain the target-like reformulation of the learner's error and thus provide the learner with positive evidence.[39]Teacher gives instruction of corrective feedback with other language especially in mother tongue. Translation is important to communicate and interact between teacher and students. So students could understand the information transmitted by teacher.

4. Learner Uptake

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[38] Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback", 29
[39] Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback", 29.

Adopted from Lyster, Saito and Sato, that "uptake was defined as a discourse move and not as an instance of acquisition, although some researchers have suggested that uptake may be 'related to learners' perceptions about feedback at the time of feedback".[40] According Lyster and Ranta Speech Act Theory define uptake as[41]:

> …a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance.

In addition, Macaro says term of uptake that "uptake is a term used to describe a stage in a process of potential language acquisition and is a student 'move' during interaction. It is a signal, of whatever kind, that demonstrates to the teacher or the researcher that the student has noticed an element in the interaction".[42] He added, this element is usually some kind of negative feedback by the teacher or more advanced learner. Examples of uptake, to a teacher

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[40] Lyster, Saito and Sato, "Oral Corrective", *Journal Cambridge,* Vol. 46, 11.
[41] Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback", 30.
[42] Macaro (Ed.), *Continuum Companion*, 104.

correction (e.g., 'I went to the park'), of the student's incorrect formulation '*I goed to the park', could be any of the following:

a. nodding or other non-verbal signal

b. 'oh huh huh'

c. 'oh right … went'

d. 'went to the park'

e. 'I went to the park'

Clearly, one of the problems with uptake is understanding or measuring the amount or depth of learning that is taking place.

Adopted from Rezaei in his study, Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen elaborate the definition by incorporating both pre-emptive and reactive focus-on-form. The definition they give is as follows[43]:

1) Uptake is a student move.
2) The move is optional (i.e., a focus on form does not obligate the student to provide an uptake move).
3) The uptake move occurs in episodes where learners have demonstrated a gap in their

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[43] Rezaei, "Corrective Feedback", 30.

knowledge (e.g., by making an error, by asking a question, or by failing to answer a teacher's question).
4) The uptake move occurs as a reaction to some preceding move in which another participant (usually the teacher) either explicitly or implicitly provides information about a linguistic feature.

Correction could come from another such as the student him/herself and other students, not only from the teacher. The other members of the group can correct both written and oral work. It is possible, for instance, for the better students to work with the weaker ones in pairs, and for them to suggest improvements and corrections. The teacher can go round checking, or be called in where there is doubt in the group. In oral work, a class can be trained to listen closely for mistakes in a talk, and should be given the chance to discuss them with the speaker and teacher afterwards.