**CHAPTER II**

**THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK**

1. **Perception**
2. **Definition of perception**

Many people believe that perception is an abstract thing is hard to define, but it does not mean that perception can not be defined. We can see the definition of perception from some experts. According to the Huffman, perception is the process of selecting, organizing and interpreting sensory information[[1]](#footnote-1). Santrock describes perception as the interpretation of what is sensed[[2]](#footnote-2). Moskowitz and Orgel argued that perception is global response to a stimulus or a set of stimuli[[3]](#footnote-3). From those definitions, perception can be viewed as the response to stimulus. Then, these responses will be interpreted as meaningful information about stimuli.

According to Akande “perception is the cognitive impression that is formed of “reality” which in turn influences the individual’s actions and behavior towards that object”[[4]](#footnote-4). This means that someone can receive something as a good or bad perception depends on what they feel in facing the object. Not every person can have exactly the same perception about particular things, even though the object is the same. It is because people percept something based on their feeling of subjectivity and their experience in the past. It is supported by Mouly who said that two persons looking at the same phenomenon may see very different things[[5]](#footnote-5). there is a connection between perception and experience. Perception and experience related to one another. This condition shows that perception occurs as our response in learning or experiencing our environment.

1. **Students’ Perception**

A Adediwura and Bada Tayo show the process of having perception as follows:

...that every impression that comes in from without, be it a sentence, which we hear, an object or vision, no sooner enters our consciousnes than it is drafted off in some determinate directions or others, making connection with other materials already there and finally producing what we call reaction. From this it is clear that perception is reaction elicited when an impression is perceived from without after making connection with other materials in conciousness (memory)[[6]](#footnote-6).

From this point of view, it could be inferred that perception cannot be done in vacuum. It depends on some background information that will trigger a reaction. Perception may be energized by both the present and past experience, individual attitude at a particular moment, the physical state of the sense organ, the interest of the person, the level of attention, and the interpretation given to the perception. As alagbau stated quoted by Akande that perception follows factors, as past experiences, present experiences, personality and motivation, as crucial to undertanding how people perceive events[[7]](#footnote-7).

In part of education, students’ perception includes on how students’ understanding in facing some experiences, especially past experiences about their studying process. specifically and pshycologically, learner percept on what they see, hear and touch during in school. On the other hand, it can pshycologically claimed that perception activity of students involves their cognitive impression that is formed by “process of study”.

McGoldrick and Caffrey stated students’ perception can be understood as the students’ ability to justify their own opinions and distinguish it from research being presented in the class[[8]](#footnote-8). Students’ perception of teaching and learning is absolutely dependent on the fact that they have been taught in the class and how they experience it. In this research, students’ perception refers to the what students experience about oral corrective feedback in the class.

1. **Factors Influencing Perception**

In organizations theory, Gibson et al provides a perceptual process in the form of diagram, and there are six factors influencing someones’ perception[[9]](#footnote-9).

1. Stereotype

The first factor is stereotype. Stereotype is a set of thinking in particular group that is generalized to all members of the group. It indicates that people have set some knowledge in their mind, although they do not know whether it is true or not.

1. Selectivity

Gibson et al says that people tend to ignore information or cues that might make them feel discomfort. It means perception is based on something that we want to choose. People will take stimuli that they want but most of the stimuli that they take are positive for them. People have various interests, so they may select what is important or relevant to fulfilling their needs. This is why people perceive things differently.

1. Self- concept

The way people see themselves in the form of self-concept will affect their perception about something in their environment. When one person is successful in knowing his/her self-concept, the perception about something can be seen accurately. The students’ self-concepts are often performed in their attitudes based on the stimuli which may result as the feeling of likes and dislikes about certain thing.

1. Situation

People tend to work quickly when they do not have much time. Due to time limitation, people pay less attention to the factors, which might affect the outcomes. People become careless in doing their activities. They make decision about certain thing without further understanding or their perception towards the problem.

1. Need

Perceptions are significantly influenced by needs and desires. they will eat what they wan to eat, they will see what they want to see, and they will do what they want to do. For example, in choosing the teaching technique, the teachers’ purpose of choosing technique is to get the most comfortable one based on the learners’ needs and expectation. Both needs and expectation influence people in forming perception.

1. Emotion

Emotion can influence someone in forming perception. Gibson et al state that strong emotions often warp perceptions. Perception formed through experiencing a particular thing can influence the perception which will be formed in the future. A student who joins a class may have perception on it. His perception on the learning is good because the teacher can make him understand the material. Morover, the teacher is kind. Because of it, the student will not be doubtful to recommend the teacherto his friends.

1. **Feedback**
2. **Definition of Feedback**

The word *feedback* is found in many contexts but not only to the educational definition. Askew defines feedback as “a judgment about the performance of another with the intentions to close a gap in knowledge and skills”[[10]](#footnote-10). it is generally accepted that feedback is an important classroom activity. It works as a motivation tool by letting learners know how they are doing in class. Sheen argues that feedback should be provided regardless of whether and the learner’s response is correct or incorrect[[11]](#footnote-11). These general definition above can be applied within an educational context but the most common name for feedback in classroom context is called corrective feedback.

There are many ways that we can define corrective feedback but in general we can say that corrective feedback is “responses to learner utterances containing an error”[[12]](#footnote-12). Lightbrown and Spada define corrective feedback as

“ Any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect. This includes various responses that the learners receive. When a language learner says, ’He go to school every day’ corrective feedback can be explicit, for example, ‘no, you should say goes, not go’ or implicit ‘yes he goes to school every day’, and may or may not include metalinguistic information, for example, ’Don’t to make the verb agree with the subject.”[[13]](#footnote-13)

In summary, feedback is general term, corrective feedback is feedback which focuses on correction and oral corrective feedback is corrective feedback focuses on students’ statement. Oral corrective feedback is also usually given immediately after erroneous utterance. In the context of this study, feedback, corrective feedback and oral corrective feedback should be understood.

1. **Purposes of Feedback**

According to Lewis[[14]](#footnote-14), feedback has several purposes when given in language classroom.

1. Feedback provides information for teachers and students

Through feedback, teacher can get information about individuals and class progress and , indirectly, is a form of evaluation on their own teaching. while for learners, feedback is ongoing form of assessment which is more focused than marks or grades. By highlighting strengths and weakness, the comments provide information about individual progress, unlike marks or grades, which tend to compare one student with another. The comments can also give direction about language, by stating a rule or giving an example.

1. Feedback provides students with advice about learning

Teacher can provide students with more than simply description of their language use. Comments can also be made on the students’ learning process.

1. Feedback provides students with language input

The teachers’ words, both in their form and purpose, illustrate how language is used in one to one communication. That is why it is important to extend students’ language own current language use. In this way student can learn new vocabulary and stuctures in context.

1. Feedback is a form of motivation

Feedback can be more motivating than marks or grades. It can encourage students to study and us language to the best of their ability by taking onto account whatever the teacher knows about the learners’ attitudes. Both hardworking and under working students need encouragement but it needs to be given in different ways. During the course, as teachers find out more about their students, the encouragement can take personal circumstance into account.

1. Feedback can lead students toward autonomy

One long term purpose of feedback is to lead students to the point where they can find their own mistakes. By learning to find their their own mistakes, students are encouragedto be independent students.

1. **Forms of Feedback**

According to Cohen[[15]](#footnote-15), basically there are two types of feedback which are commonly seen in the classroom.

1. Oral or verbal feedback

Oral feedback can be defined as oral remarks of teacher about the adequacy or correctness of student statements solicited or initiated in the development of subject knowledge. it is found that oral feedback is a powerful force for the students. It can be direct to the students who are targeted such as individuals or groups and also indirect to learners who will listen and reflect on what has been said.

For oral feedback, teachers use some questions and dialogues as keys to make feedback more effective. As a result, students can find out what they already know, identify gaps of knowledge and their learning goal. Verbal feedback is provided when students utter an incorrect answers that time teachers use wrong answers constructively for correcting them. The main aspects of verbal feedback are comments and questions that encourage students to think highly and deeply. Also students feel free to ask questions and request to the teachers through oral or verbal feedback.

1. Written Feedback

In written feedback, comments, correction and/or marks are given to students‟ written work draft. The marks may be on words or quick symbols such as underlining, circles, and other signs. The teacher should provide the specific comments on students’ errors with suggestion about how to improve as well as with the comments of the positive aspect of the work.

1. **Feedback Strategies**

According to Brookhart, there are four strategies of feedback in general: timing, amount, mode, and audience[[16]](#footnote-16).

1. Timing

Timing indicates when and how often feedback is given. Feedback would be effective, if it give in proper time. It is tricky when to give feedback. When teacher catch the student say something incorrectly, they would hold themselves to correct the students because afraid it will down their motivation or make them feel embarrrased in front of others. Teacher should be wise about timing of giving feedback. Feedback can be immediately given or delayed is depended on the situation and condition of the classroom.

Hattie and Timperley suggested that feedbacks’ content may determine the optimal timing for the feedback provision. While simple error correction may be most effective if provided immediately. In the case of feedback related to processes (e.g. reading fluency) or complex tasks, the feedback provided after may be more effective because allows the student to develop the task without interuption[[17]](#footnote-17).

1. Amount

Students need enough amount of feedback which helps them to understand what to do. Amount of feedback indicates that how many error or points are focused and how much feedbacks are given by teacher on each point.

Probably the hardest decision to make about feedback is amount to provide. A natural inclination is to want to “fix” everything you see. That’s the teachers’ eye view, where the target is perfect achievement of all learning goals. Judging the right amount of feedback to give – how much, on how many points – requires deep knowledge and consideration of the following:

1. The topic in general and learning target or targets in particular.
2. Typical developmental learning progressions for those topics or targets.
3. The student itself.
4. Mode

Mode refers to which kind of feedback is being used while giving feedback. It can be written and orally. Written can be implemented by reviewing, writing some comment on the students’ paper etc. Orally can be applied by commenting properly, explicitly, implicitly and so on. Simply teacher can choose one of that proper to the condition of the classroom and the task that teacher gives. This research focusses in orally.

1. Audience

Like all communication, feedback works best when it has a strong and appropiate sense of the audience. Feedback depends on types of learners, such as may be a group or individual. Feedback about the specifics of individual work is best addressed to the individual student and if the same massage would benefit a group of students, providing feedback to the class or group can save time and also serve a minilesson or review session.

1. **Types of Oral Corrective Feedback**

There are six types of oral corrective feedback based on Lyster and Ranta’s model (1997)[[18]](#footnote-18):

1. Explicit correction

Explicit correction refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect (e.g., “Oh, you mean,””you should say”).

S : It will start on May.

T : Not on May, in May. We say, “It will start in May”.

1. Recast

Recast involves the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of students’ utterance, minus the error. Recast generally implicit in that they are not introduced by phrases such as “You mean”, “Use this word”, and “You should say”. The teacher implicitly all part of the students’ error, so, the teacher does give it directly like explicit correction. It is to be corrected in implicit way. For example:

S : I drive a car to Jakarta yesterday.

T : Oh, you drove a car to Jakarta Yesterday.

1. Clarification request

Clarification request indicates to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repitition or a reformulation is required. This is a feedback type that can refer to problems in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or both. Lyter and Ranta coded feedback as a clarification requests only when it followed a student error. A clarification request includes phrases such as “Pardon me”, “Excuse me”, “What” after students’ error until they realized their error.

T : How often do you brush your teeth?

S : Two.

T : Excuse me? (Clarification request)

S : Two.

T : Two what? (Clarification request)

S : Two for a day.

T : Two times a day.

1. Metalinguistic feedback

Metalinguistic feedback contains either comments, information, or quetions related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance, without explicity providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere. Metalinguistic information generallyprovides either some grammatical metalanguage that refers to the nature of the error or a word definition in the case of lexical errors. Metalinguistic questions alsopoint to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student.

S : There were many man in the meeting?

T : You need plural.

1. Elicitation

 Elicitation refers to at least three techniques that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the student. First, teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by stategically pausing to allow students to “fill in the blank”. Second teachers use questions to elicit the correct forms. Third, teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterance.

S : My mother cleans the glass.

T : Excuse me, she cleans the...??

S : Glasses?

1. Repetition

Repetition refers to the teachers’ repetition, in isolation, of the student’s erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonationso as to highlight the error.

S : He are. . .

T : He are. . .? But it’s one people, right? You see your mistake? You see the error? When it’s singular. It’s he is.

1. **English Language Teaching (ELT)**

English Language Teaching is based on the idea that the goal of the language acquisition is communicative competence. It adopts concepts, techniques and methods in classroom for recognizing and managing the communicative needs of the language learners. It has to be stated that English Language Teaching (ELT) is the one of overlapping, umbrella terms dealing with the teaching in of English as a second and foreign language, i.e. this term does not include teaching English as L1[[19]](#footnote-19).

Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) refers to teaching English to students whose first language is not English, usually offered in a region where English is the dominant language and natural English language immersion situations are apt to be plentiful[[20]](#footnote-20). Basically, the term English as second language, is used commonly in the immigrant countries such as USA or Canada, where many immigrants’ mother tounge is not English. That is, dor the immigrants in inner circle and outer circle of areass resided by native-speakers, they must learn this mainstream language. The reason is that it is main language spoken in the outside societies and communities, and official institutions. This term of ESL can not be applied, if the learners consider English as their third or fourth language, instead of a second language.

Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) is applied to emphasize that English language learning in nations, where English is not the most important language. On the other hand, English is allowed to apply anywhere in their own countries freely, for purposes of governmental administrating behaviors, school education, communications in diverse events, or interaction in commercial institutions for doing business and marketing activities[[21]](#footnote-21). In indonesia, English is considered as foreign language, because the first language is mother tounge which is there are many different language in Indonesia and bahasa indonesia as second language. Therefore, since this research deals with English teaching in Indonesia, the term English Language Teaching here is understood as TEFL.

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2. John Santrock, *Life Span Development*, 13th Ed, ( New York: McGraw-Hill Companies,2011) , 132. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. Moskowitz, Merle J, & Arthur L. Orgel, *General Psychology*, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1969), 158. [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
4. Samson Oyeniyi Akande, “Knowledge, Perception, and Attitudes of Library Personnel towards Preservasition of Information Resources in Nigerian Federal University Libraries”. *Library Philosophy and Practice* (November, 2009), 2. [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
5. George J. Mouly, *Psychology for Effective Teaching, 3rd ed.,* ( New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973), 93. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
6. A. Adediwura and Bada Tayo, “Perception of teachers’ knowledge, attitude and teaching skills as predictor of academic performance in Nigerian secondary schools”, *Educational Research and Review*, Vol. 2 (7), (July, 2007), 165-166. [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
7. Samson Oyeniyi Akande, *Library Philosophy and Practice*, 2. [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
8. Samson Oyeniyi Akande, *Library Philosophy and Practice,* 32. [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
9. James L. Gibson, John M Ivancevich, and James H Donnely, *Organizations*, 5th ed., (Texas : Bussiness Publications, Inc., 1985), 61-68. [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
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12. Lyster, Saito & Sato, Oral Corrective Feedack in Second Language Classroom. *Language Learning* 46 (1),2013, 2. [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
13. Pasty M. Ligtbown and Nina Spada, *How Languages are Learned 3rd Edition*, (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2006), 171-172. [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
14. Marylin Lewis, *Giving Feedback in Language Classes*, (The University of Auckland: SEAMO Regional Language Center, 2002), 3-4. [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
15. Andrew Cohen, *Language Learning: Insights for Learners, Teachers, and Researchers*, (Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1999), 109. [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
16. Susan M Brookhart, *How to Give Effective Feedback to Your Students*, (USA: ASCD ,2008), 5. [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
17. John Hattie and Hellen Timperly, “ The Power of Feedback”, *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 77, No. 1, (March, 2007), 98. [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
18. Roy Lyster and Leila Ranta, *Corrective Feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in Communicative Classrooms*, (USA: Cambridge University Press, 1997), 46-49. [↑](#footnote-ref-18)
19. “*English Language Teaching*” Open Dictionary Wikipedia, (<http://wikipedia.edu/com>, accessed on July 2018) [↑](#footnote-ref-19)
20. “*Teaching English as a Second Language*” Open Dictionary Wikipedia, (<http://wikipedia.edu/com>, accessed on July 2018) [↑](#footnote-ref-20)
21. Grace H. Lin and Paul S. Chien, *An Intoduction to English Teaching: a Textbook for English Educators*, (Germany: VDM Verlag Dr.Muller, 2010), 2-3. [↑](#footnote-ref-21)