CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter will discuss about theories and opinions to the whole elements in the study. In the theoretical review, some theories and research studies which are relevant with the topic are discussed that will be the writer easy to do this research and an analytical construct is drawn as guideline in analyzing the data related to the study.

A. Feedback

Feedback is any information that provides information on the result of behaviour. feedback given while someone is speaking is sometimes called back channelling, for example comments such as uh, yeah, really, smiles, headshakes, that indicate success or failure in communication (Richards and Schmit, 2010: 2017). According to Voerman, Meijer, Korthagen and Simons (2012: 1108), feedback as information provided by the teacher concerns about the performance or understanding of the student, with reference to a goal and aimed at improving learning.

From definition above, it can be concluded that feedback is an information or comment which is given to students as advice, criticism, suggestion, or correctness about how good or useful something to a performance. It can be written or oral from or combination of all them.

Giving feedback helpful to the students is an essential commitment in any teaching-learning situation (Kaur, 2005). It is related to teacher's service to the
students. As EFL learners usually feel afraid, anxious, and insecure when they talk in front of class or their peers, the teachers need to give meaningful feedback to them. It is important for EFL teachers to give meaningful feedback to the students’ efforts at speaking in a classroom. The classroom is a miniature of public area where the learners may use the target language, English. Therefore, it is natural if they feel nervous to speak as they should face many people, in this case their classmates. Even the native speakers experience similar fears when they have to speak in public. When the students have done attempts and preparations to speak, they will need more than grade, they need more qualitative comments. Students will value this constructive criticism as a way to the next better performance. (Kaur, 2005) says that when the students are given feedback related to their speaking, they seem to make more effort to correct their errors in the next performance. The teacher gives some examples of useful comments such as ‘You need to look at the audience more when you speak’, ‘You mispronounced the following words: campaign, aches, fogging and gestures’ or ‘Try to look at your audience more naturally as you seem to stare at them at time. At times, you seem to fix your stare on one or two particular persons only and it seems very unnatural’.

B. Corrective feedback

Corrective feedback is feedback given to analyze some errors in the students’ work. This feedback might be given by teacher or by peers. Teacher become a corrector in learning process to improve students skill as stated by Ahmad, Saeed and Salam (2013: 36), Corrective feedback improves learning
skills of learners through error correction. Teacher feedback is an important part of students learning and improvement. It also increase the learning proficiency of students.

There are six types of corrective feedback. The six different types of feedback that Lyster and Ranta (1997:37-66) used to categorize teacher’s feedback are follow:

1. Explicit correction. This refers to the explicit provision of correct form. The teachers as a corrector indicate clearly the students’ errors and also provide the correct answer so that student can identify their error from the teachers’ correction. For example:
   S: My sister can cooks the cake.
   T: My sister can cook the cake.

2. Recast. By using recast, the teacher as a corrector does not state that the students made error, but directly give the correct answer. For example:
   S: You should go to see doctor.
   T: the doctor.

3. Clarification request. For clarification request, the teacher as a corrector clarifies what the students’ means about their speaking. The teacher states that he or she have not understood what the students speak. For example:
   S: He sick.
   T: sick?
4. Metalinguistic feedback. This type contains comment, information or questions that related to the form of the students’ utterance without directly providing the correct answer. For example:

S: she without.

T: without…. what is the verb?

5. Elicitation. For elicitation, the teacher as a corrector repeats part of utterance but not erroneous part and uses question to sign the students’ utterance and uses question to sign the students should complete it. For example:

S: My teacher always come late to class.

T: My teacher always. ..?

6. Repetition. In this way, the teacher as a corrector repeats the students’ utterance and provides the correct answer. For example:

S: The dog is more fast.

T: more fast or faster? The dog is faster.

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that feedback is given in different function. It provides the students as a praise, criticism, suggestion and also correction for students’ work (Lyster and Rant, 1997:37-66).

C. **Corrective feedback on speaking class**

Corrective feedback will give information about the correctness of a learner utterance, whereas correction would suggest that students actually learn and improve their knowledge of the language with the help of the correction, (Ellis, 2006:71).
So based on statement above, it is assumed that speaking needs feedback such as pronunciation, grammar, and fluency. According to Rivers and Bygate (1987: 56), the former holds that ‘ability to speak the language is derived from the systematic study of grammar, phonology and lexicon; language use can occur only after the learner has learnt the grammar and vocabulary of the language. Moreover, according to Brown (2004: 406-407), speaking assessment includes five criteria, namely grammar, vocabulary, and comprehension, pronunciation, and fluency. Based on theories above, in speaking class, the students are expected to develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable pronunciation.

According to Burns (2012, 172-176), there are some stages in speaking class, they are:

1. Stage 1 : Focus learners’ attention on speaking. It is a stage in which the learners are encourage to plan their speaking. They should be familiar with the task, expected outcome, and how they will complete it.

2. Stage 2 : Provide input and/or guide planning. In this preparation stage, brainstorming activities are introduced by activating their linguistic knowledge, developing their linguistic knowledge, giving new language to the learners, and pushing them to do the task.

3. Stage 3 : Conduct speaking tasks. The aim of this task is mainly the learners communicative competence. Therefore, in this stage, fluency is more important than accuracy.
4. **Stage 4: Focus on language/skills/strategies.** After trying to build learners’ communicative competence in stage 3, the next stage is to build up their speaking accuracy. Language features that need attention are pronunciation, grammar and structures, as well as vocabulary.

5. **Stage 5: Repeat speaking tasks.** In this stage, the learners repeat the activity in stage 3, but the difference is they will apply their experience in stage 4 as well.

6. **Stage 6: Direct learners’ reflection on learning.** Monitoring and evaluating their performance which lead to reflection can be done individually, in pairs, or even in small groups. The reflection should include the demands of the speaking tasks which they have become aware of, the strategies that are useful to meet the demands of the task, their informal assessment of their capabilities and performance, areas of their performance that show improvement, areas to be further improved, and plans for improving specific areas.

7. **Stage 7: Facilitate feedback on learning.** In this last stage, the teacher provides learners with feedback on their performance. During the stages, problems usually occur in student’s speaking, as stated by Richards, there were some problems found in foreign language learners, for example lack of communication strategies, poor vocabulary, poor grammar, poor pronunciation, communication misunderstanding, and spoken English does not sound natural caused by mother tongue
interference. According to this, the teacher’s role to give feedback is necessary for speaking accuracy (Burns, 2012:172-176).

D. Types of Classroom Speaking Activities

Speaking should be taught through communicative activities. Teachers should find the appropriate activities which can encourage students to be involved actively in the activities. Being involved in the classroom activities as well as being able to communicate with other students can increase students’ motivation in learning English. According to Brown (2007: 327-330), the following are types of classroom speaking performance:

1. Imitative

Drills offer learners an opportunity to listen and to orally repeat certain strings of language that may pose some linguistic difficulty—either phonological or grammatical. Drills offer limited practice through repetition. They allow one to focus on one element of the language in a controlled activity.

2. Intensive

Intensive speaking goes one step beyond imitative activities to include any speaking performance that is designed to practice some phonological or grammatical aspect of language. Intensive speaking can be self-initiated or it can even form part of some pair work activity, where learners are ‘going over’ certain forms of language.

3. Responsive

A good deal of student speech in the classroom is responsive: short replies to teacher-or student-initiated questions or comments. These replies are usually
sufficient and do not extend into dialogues. Such replies can be meaningful and authentic.

4. Transactional (dialogue)

Transactional language, carried out for the purpose of conveying or exchanging specific information, is an extended form of responsive language. Conversation, for example, may have more of a negotiative nature to them than responsive speech does.

5. Interpersonal dialogue

Interpersonal dialogue, carried out for the purpose of maintaining social relationships than for the transmission of facts and information.

6. Extensive (monologue)

Learners at intermediate to advanced levels are called on to give extended monologue in the form of oral reports, summaries, or perhaps-short speeches. Here the register is more formal and deliberative. These monologues can be planned or impromptu (Brown 2007: 327-330).

E. Teacher’s Role in Speaking Class

Teachers play an important role during the teaching and learning process. Students cannot learn English without teacher’s guidance. Sometimes teachers should motivate the students to learn English. They need their teacher’s accompaniment in doing activities. Furthermore, students are those who like to get appraisal when they do something good. Here, teachers may respond to the students’ work. In speaking, most of the teachers’ job is to expose students to the language so that they can use it later. According to Harmer (2007: 347), teachers
need to play a number of different roles during the speaking activities. The following are the teachers’ roles when they are trying to get the learners to speak fluently.

1. Prompter

   Learners sometimes get lost, cannot think of what to say next, or lose the fluency. The teacher can let them find their solution by themselves, and sometimes, this may be the best option. However, the teacher may be able to help them and the activity to progress by offering separate suggestions. If this can be done caringly without disturbing the discussion, or forcing learners out of the role, it will stop the sense of frustration that some learners may feel that they come to a ‘dead end’ of language or ideas.

2. Participant

   Teachers should be good models when asking learners to produce language. Sometimes this can be achieved by setting up an activity clearly and with enthusiasm. At other times, however, teachers may want to participate in discussions or role plays. Such way can prompt the students implicitly, introduce new information to help the activity along, ensure continuing student engagement, and generally maintain creative atmosphere. But, the teachers should not dominate the speaking by participating too much so that the students do not lose the opportunities for speaking.

   There is one special occasion in which teachers act as participants, and that is when they are in dialogue with the class. Just as one-to-one teachers may
engage in direct conversation with their students, so in dialogue events in larger groups, the teacher and students may talk together communicatively as near equal participants. These are often very special moments in the lesson although we have to be careful not to take over the classroom so that students will lose opportunities to speak.

3. Feedback provider

The hard question of when and how to give feedback in speaking activities is answered by considering the effect of possible different approaches carefully.

When the learners are in the middle of a speaking activity, over correction may inhibit them and take the communicativeness out of the activity. On the other hand, helpful and gentle correction may get learners out of difficult misunderstandings and hesitations. Everything depends upon teachers’ tact and the appropriateness of the feedback that the teachers give in particular situations.

When learners have completed on speaking activity it is vital that the teachers allow the learners to analyze and evaluate what they have done. Then, the teachers tell them what went well based on the teachers’ opinion. The teachers will respond to the content of the activity and the language used (Harmer, 2007: 347).