

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents as the foundation of theories related with the cases of this research. Several theories are collected and presented in this chapter, in order to give clearer information regarding of the research's field.

#### A. Review of Related Literature

##### 1. Speaking Performance

This section will provide theories regarding of the speaking performance and the glossaries related with this keyword:

##### a. Definition of Speaking

Speaking is one among four main language skills, also categorized as productive language skill. Brown stated that speaking skill as a productive skill can be directly and empirically observed, yet the observations can vary because of the test taker listening skill differences in accuracy and effectiveness.<sup>12</sup> Speaking is a language skill that develops in children's life, preceded by listening skill, which in that time the speaking skill is learned.<sup>13</sup>

Thornburry explains about the nature of speaking itself as something takes place in real time

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<sup>12</sup> H. Douglas Brown. "Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices". New York: Longman. 2004. (page 140)

<sup>13</sup> Henry Guntur Tarigan, *Bebricara Sebagai Suatu Keterampilan Berbahasa*, Bandung, 1986. (page 4)

and linear.<sup>14</sup> It means that the speaking ability naturally grows and develops starting by words, phrases, and utterances. Thornburry also stated that each utterance always depends on the previous utterance as spontaneous process. However, it doesn't necessarily mean that the speech making is unplanned. The planning process happens in speaking, although the time is short and limited.<sup>15</sup>

### **b. Aspects of Speaking**

States that there are four aspects of speaking, or also can be defined as features of spoken language which are overlapping each other<sup>16</sup>:

- 1) Spoken language happens in real time and is typically unplanned.
- 2) Spoken language is most typically face to face.
- 3) Spoken language foregrounds choices which reflect the immediate social and interpersonal situation.
- 4) Spoken language and written language are not sharply divided but exist on a continuum.

Hence this thesis choose the presentation activity in the class as data source of speaking activity since the activity fulfills all of these speaking aspects.

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<sup>14</sup> Scott Thornburry. "How to Teach Speaking". New York: Longman. 2005. (page2)

<sup>15</sup> Ibid.

<sup>16</sup> Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy. "Cambridge Grammar of English: A Comprehensive Guide". United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press. 2006. (page 164)

### c. Type of Speaking Tasks

There are several types of speaking tasks, as categorized by Bygate in Luoma's book<sup>17</sup>:

<b>Factually Oriented Talk</b>	<b>Evaluative Talk</b>
Description	Explanation
Narration	Justification
Instruction	Prediction
Comparison	Decision

*Table 2.1 Types of Speaking Task*

Speaker's language use is different in each kind of categories. When someone is good at certain type, it doesn't mean that they will be good at the other categories. When testing the speaking skills, it is recommended to test the types separately in order to obtain the detailed information about learner's skills.

Speaking test discourse often consists of combination between information related talk and social chatting. However, speaking test commonly contains of informational aspect of talk because the content area and type of language activities will be included in the test discourse.

In the other reference, Brown categorized type of speaking as five different categories: imitative, intensive, responsive, interactive and extensive<sup>18</sup>.

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<sup>17</sup> Sari Luoma, "Assessing Speaking", United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2004. (Page 32)

<sup>18</sup> H. Douglas Brown. "Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices". New York: Longman. 2004. (page 141-142)

### 1) Imitative

This speaking performance focuses on the ability to imitate word, phrase, or sentence. Even though imitative speaking is only on the phonetic level of oral production, a little prosodic, lexical, and grammatical language aspects may be included as criterion for imitative speaking performance.

Imitative speaking only matters on the pronunciation aspect, not considering the meaning of language. The role of listening in this type of speaking is only as a short-term storage of prompt in order to retain the sound of the word / phrase / sentence before they imitate them.

Example: PhonePass® Test,

### 2) Intensive

Intensive speaking covers the production of short oral language in order to demonstrate grammatical, phrasal, lexical, or phonological relationships such as prosodic elements (intonation, stress, rhythm, etc.). The speaker needs to be able to understand semantic properties in order to give response. However they will only have minimum interaction with the interlocutor/test administrator.

Examples: Directed response tasks, read-aloud tasks, sentence/dialogue completion tasks and oral questionnaires, picture-cued tasks, and translation.

### 3) Responsive

Responsive speaking involves interaction and test comprehension limited in the level of very short conversations, standard greetings and small talk, simple requests and comments, etc. The stimulus is always spoken prompt to preserve the authenticity

of oral language, with small amount of follow up questions (1 or 2).

Examples: question and answer, giving instructions and directions, and test of Spoken English (TSE®).

#### 4) Interactive

Interactive speaking includes multiple exchanges and/or multiple participants. The interaction can take two forms: as transactional language (for exchanging specific information purpose) or interpersonal (for maintaining social relationships). In interactive speaking, the language is pragmatically complex since we need to speak in a casual register and use colloquial language, ellipsis, slang, humor, and other sociolinguistic conventions.

Examples: Interview, role play, discussions and conversations, games, and oral proficiency interview (OPI).

#### 5) Extensive (monologue)

Extensive speaking limits the interaction from listeners, or not featuring the interaction between speaker and listener at all. The language is more deliberative, planned, and formal. But it can also involve in casual speech such as vacation report, performing recipe, or retelling the story of a book or movie.

Examples: oral presentations, picture-cued storytelling, and retelling a story or news, and translation of extended prose.

In this research, the speaking task observed is extensive speaking in the form of presentation. Because in extensive speaking, students have to

handle themselves, including in monitoring their mistake in speaking and also doing self-repair. Extensive speaking in which require students to stand alone and for long speech is suitable for this research concerning about self-repair.

## **2. Mistakes, Self-monitoring, and Self-repairs**

Not only conveying about the kind of self-repairs, this section will also explain about how the self-repairs can happen and what is its correlation with its preceded occurrence.

### **a. Errors and Mistakes in Language Production**

Errors and mistakes are normal occurrence that happens in the process of speech production. Learning process itself involves these things. The mistakes, misjudgments, miscalculations, and erroneous assumptions are part of learning aspect in any skill.<sup>19</sup>

Linguistic mistakes can be divided into three types. Slips is type of mistake that can self-corrected by the students, error is a one which student can't self-correct by themselves yet it is clear about which for the student wants to use (and the class is already familiar with that form), and the last: attempt is when the student him/herself doesn't know how to structure what he/she want to mean, and the structure is not clear to the teacher.<sup>20</sup>

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<sup>19</sup> H. Douglas Brown, "Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, Fifth Edition", New York: Longman, 2007. (page 257)

<sup>20</sup> Julian Edge, "Mistakes and Correction – Longman Keys to Language Teaching", New York: Longman, 1997, (page 11)

Mistake in language terms needs to be differentiated with error, since these two terms are used in different phenomena. It is possible for the speakers to do self-repair whenever they make mistake, yet it is impossible for speakers to do self-correction if what they make is error. Though, it is hard to differentiate them unless the speaker does self-repair.<sup>21</sup> Hence, the notable thing is that with no repair, a mistake will be defined as error.

**b. Self-monitoring as preceding process of self-repair**

Self-monitoring is a process that happens concurrently with the stages of conceptualization, formulation and articulation<sup>22</sup>. When self-monitor occurs at the message formulation stage, it may result on slowing down or a pause and subsequent backtracking and rephrasing of the utterance. Self-monitoring also happens in articulation, in which event fluent language speakers sometimes still experience it. As a response of either self-monitoring or interlocutor's message, the speakers have an ability to do repair. Repair may happen in a form of immediate correction or 'retrace and repair'. Retrace and repair is condition where the speaker retraces or rewinds an utterance with different wording.

The monitoring system works on monitoring speech that has been produced (external monitoring) and speech that has not been entirely spoken

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<sup>21</sup> H. Douglas Brown, "Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, Fifth Edition" New York: Longman, 2007. (page 257)

<sup>22</sup> Scott Thornbury. "How to Teach Speaking". New York: Longman. 2005. (page 5-6)

(internal monitoring). Self-repair occurs when the self-monitoring is successful when the speaker makes an utterance. Wouter and Robert gave clear explanation on distinguishing self-correction and self-repair:

Example 1:

“The *ban*, the **man** got very angry.”

When the speaker makes mistake in the ‘ban’ word, the self-monitoring process occurs as the speech halted for a short time. Then, self-repair occurs as the speaker corrects their own speech by rewind ‘the ban’, changing it into the right form (‘the man’).

### c. Definition of Self-repair

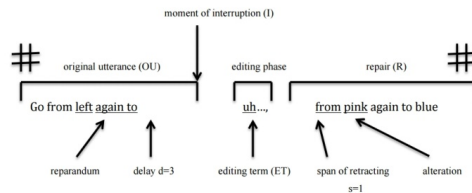
Judit Kormos explains self-repair or self-correction as overt manifestations of the monitoring processes. A self-initiated self-completed correction comes about when the speaker detects that the output has been erroneous or inappropriate, halts the speech flow, and finally executes a correction<sup>23</sup>. Levelt stated that self-repair is a process of three phases. The first phase involves the monitoring of one’s own speech and the interruption of the speech flow; the second phase is hesitation, pausing, or editing terms (ranging from words until sounds like: as uh, aaa, err, etc); and the third is the making of the repair.<sup>24</sup> The following figure illustrate about the structure of repair:

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<sup>23</sup> Judit Kormos, “Speech Production and Second Language”, London: CSSLA, 2006. (page 123)

<sup>24</sup> Williem J.M. Levelt, “Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech” Netherland: Elsevier Sequoia, 41-104, 1983 (page 41)





**Figure 2.1** Structure of Self-repair by Levelt

The first step, self-interruption, indicates the point of error detection. Levelt's study shows that that 18 % of the overt repair interruptions took place within the reparandum (error) itself, while 51% were made immediately after completing the erroneous word. The remaining 31 % of interruptions were delayed interruptions occurring one or a few words after the error; figure 2 illustrates an interruption with a delay of 3 syllables (in delay  $d=3$ ). Levelt suggests that delayed interruption indicates delayed detection. It is also plausible that the speaker delays interruption because she wants to complete the current word or phrase, as indicated by a high frequency of interruptions at constituent boundaries. The second step of the typical self-repair is editing phase. Though usually the editing phase is exist, in some cases (mostly Appropriateness Repair) the existence editing phrases are less frequent due to the absence of actual errors; the appropriateness repair merely adds or alters information, which apparently do not always require a signal. The third step is the repair itself.<sup>25</sup>

Thornburry stated that self-repair may happen in the form of immediate correction, of 'retrace-and-repair' sequences, a situation when the

<sup>25</sup> Williem J.M. Levelt, "Speaking: from Intention to Articulation", Cambridge: MA MIT Press, 1989. (Page 482-484)

speaker re-wind / redo the utterance using different wording or / and phrasing<sup>26</sup>.

It is said that people usually like correcting their own mistake rather than having someone else correct them.<sup>27</sup> Based on these theories, it can be concluded that self repair is an action done by the speakers themselves. Self repair happens when the speaker makes any mistake and immediately notices it by his/herself, and redo part or all of his/her utterance in order to correct the mistake.

#### d. Distinguishing between Self-repair and Apposition

In some cases, self-repair and apposition may look really similar at a glance. It would become a trouble if the students make appositions and the study mistakes it for self-repair.

Based on Boogart's theory, the researcher makes a table which can be used as toll to distinguish self-repair and apposition in easier way:

No.	Self-repair	Apposition
1.	Open structure: Not only replacing words within same class, but also can be formulated by modifying words using different word class.	Restrict on modifying noun phrase using noun phrase.  Example: <i>“Daffa, their youngest child, was very</i>

<sup>26</sup> Scott Thornburry. “How to Teach Speaking”. New York: Longman. 2005. (page 6)

<sup>27</sup> Julian Edge, “Mistakes and Correction – Longman Keys to Language Teaching”, New York: Longman, 1997, (page 24)

	<p>Example:</p> <p><i>“The garden (N) was... err... the boy in red shirt (Adj.P) was in the garden.”</i></p>	<i>talented in music.</i>
2.	<p>The case of utterance is definitely self-repair if the NP in the first part is not fully uttered.</p> <p>Example:</p> <p><i>“The pencil ca—err, the small pencil case is on the table.”</i></p>	<p>Only occurs if the first NP is fully realized.</p> <p>Example:</p> <p><i>“The living room, the biggest room in our house, is the relaxing place of our family.”</i></p>
3.	<p>Second NP produce in order to repair / replace the first NP.</p> <p>Example:</p> <p><i>“It is said that Harry Potter is novel—is the most interesting novel.”</i></p>	<p>Second NP exist only to describe the first NP in different phrase, the same noun cannot be repeated.</p> <p><i>“Harry potter is a film, an adaptation of a novel, that gains a lot of people’s attention.”</i></p>

**Table 2.2** differences between Self-repair and Apposition

In their book, Boogaart differentiates the difference between self-repair and apposition. First, self-repair have very open structure if compared

with apposition. Not only replacing words within same class, self-repair can be formulated by modifying words using different word class. However, apposition restrict on modifying noun phrase with noun phrase. Second, in the utterance, if there only parts of a noun phrase realized in the first part, it means the case is self repair since apposition requires complete noun phrase. Also, the existence of filler will definitely proof an utterance as self-repair since the filler sounds like aaa, err, umm, etc. as editing terms are indicating the existence of editing phase. Third, if the second noun phrase doesn't plausibly repair (replace the first noun phrase, the construction is categorized as apposition.<sup>28</sup> The main point of self-repair is the change of the utterances in the middle of the sentence for the purpose of correcting previous utterance, while apposition is consciously done by the speaker in order to give more information about certain noun or noun phrase.

#### **e. Kind of Self-repair**

Levelt categorized three kinds of self-repairs by formulating a question related to each type<sup>29</sup>:

##### **1) Different Information Repair (D-repair)**

*“Do I want to say this now?”*

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<sup>28</sup> Rony Boogaart, Timothy Colleman, and Gijsbert Rutten, “Extending the Scope of Construction Grammar”, *Cognitive Linguistic Research* vol. 54, Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co KG, Netherlands: University Leiden, 2014. (Page 346-347)

<sup>29</sup> Williem J.M. Levelt, “Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech” Netherland: Elsevier Sequoia, 41-104, 1983 (page 51-55)

When the speaker speaks something, they may have change of mind into another utterance idea that can express their message better than the one he/she is currently formulating. While speaking, the speaker may realize that another arrangement of message would be easier or more effective.<sup>30</sup>

D-repair happens when students replace the information they want to convey to the listeners. This repair happens when students notice that the message they want to deliver to the listeners is not suitable to be told by their previous utterance.<sup>31</sup> This type of self-repair happens in quite low percentage in Levelt's study.

The following utterances below are examples from Levelt and Geordiadou's studies:

Example:

*"We go straight on or... come in via red, go then straight on to green."*

*"Um my friend... I know my friend since grade one..."*

*"Um she like... we have a strong relationship..."*

## 2) Appropriateness Repair (A-repair)

*"Do I want to say it this way?"*

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<sup>30</sup> Ibid. (Page 51)

<sup>31</sup> Williem J.M. Levelt, "Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech" Netherland: Elsevier Sequoia, 41-104, 1983 (page 51)

Even though the speaker doesn't particularly feel reluctant about the information they want to tell in the discourse, the message may become various depend on the contextual information of the speech.<sup>32</sup> The message output may become more or less appropriate given what was previously said, given the social perceptual features of the situations, and other things. In the middle of their speech, the speaker may need qualification in expressing based on the context in order to express the intended information (idea, concept, and proposition). There are three aspects of appropriateness issues that is monitored by the speaker. The first is potential ambiguity of the context the use of terminology in appropriate level, and coherence with previously used terms of expressions.<sup>33</sup>

Appropriateness repair means to modify the previous message into more detailed, more specific, or less ambiguous information.<sup>34</sup> The intended message is encoded in a modified way in order to fulfill that purpose.

Kormos stated that appropriateness repair may happen when the speaker encoded inaccurate or ambiguous information that needs to be further specified, or if they used

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<sup>32</sup> Williem J.M. Levelt, "Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech"  
Netherland: Elsevier Sequoia, 41-104, 1983 (page 51)

<sup>33</sup> Ibid. (page 52)

<sup>34</sup> Rintaro Sato, "Self-initiated Self-repair Attempts by Japanese High School Learners while Sepaking English" (page 20)

incoherent terminology or pragmatically inappropriate language.<sup>35</sup>

Example from Levelt and Geordiadou's study:

*"We start in the middle with... in the middle of the paper with a blue disc."*

*"I give her a hug... big hug..."*

*"I am in the university... in Z university..."*

### 3) Error Repair (E-repair)

*Am I making an error?*

Even though the speaker already sure about the idea and appropriateness of his/her message, they sometimes realize that another kind of mistake may happens in the speech.<sup>36</sup> Error repair happens when students realize the moment they make speaking mistake (whether it is grammatical, lexical, or phonological) and immediately correct the mistake while speaking.

Based on the types of the error trigger, E-repairs can be categorized in three sub categories. Sato classifies the sub-categories of E-repairs based on Lyster and Ranta's study: (1) Grammatical errors are errors in the use or lack of determiners, particles, verb forms, word

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<sup>35</sup> Judit Kormos, "Speech Production and Second Language", London: CSSLA. 2006. (page 125)

<sup>36</sup> Williem J.M. Levelt, "Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech" Netherland: Elsevier Sequoia, 41-104, 1983 (page 53)

order; (2) Lexical errors include inappropriate, imprecise or inaccurate choices of lexical items; (3) Phonological errors address inappropriate, imprecise or inaccurate pronunciation.<sup>37</sup> Lexical mistake can happen in almost any kind of lexical item color words, direction terms, prepositions, articles, etc. Grammatical or syntactic repair happens when the speaker makes mistake in using the right grammatical form or the scrambled word order. Phonological repair concerns in the field of the righteousness of the sounds the speaker makes.

Examples:

“And sometimes I went [//] I **go** with...”  
(grammatical)

“my friend he [//] **she** is...” (lexical)

“if I am ubsent [//] **upset**...”  
(phonological)

Following below is the table of self-repairs type as explained in Georgiadou’s study, as quoted from Kormos’ journal by showing categorized mistake-repairs along with the examples into four categories: different-information repair, appropriacy repair, mistake repair, and rephrasing repair<sup>38</sup>. Yet, this table

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<sup>37</sup> Rintaro Sato, “Self-initiated Self-repair Attempts by Japanese High School Learners while Sepaking English” (page 20)

<sup>38</sup> Effrosyni S. Georgiadou, “The Fole of Proficiency, Speaking Habits and Mistake-tolerance in the Self-repair Behaviour of Emirati EFL Learners”, UAE: Asian EFL Journal Research Articles. Vol. 18 No. 4 December. (2016)



only serves three kinds of self-repair based on adaptation with Kormos' theory:

<b>Type of self-repair</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Examples from the present study</b>
Different-information repair (D-repair)	Message replacement; different information is encoded.	“um my friend [//] I know my friend since grade one...” “um she like [//] we have a strong relationship..”
Appropriacy repair (A-repair)	Intended message is encoded in a modified way to provide more detailed, more specific or less ambiguous information.	“I give her a hug [//] big hug...” “and not I am in the university [//] in Z university...”
Error repair (E-repair)	Corrections of accidental grammatical, lexical or phonological lapses.	“and sometimes I went [//] I go with...” (grammatical) “my friend he [//] she is...” (lexical) “if I am absent [//] upset...” (phonological)

*Table 2.3 Self-repair Identification Table in Geordiaou's Study*

The other self-repairs category showed on Levelt and Kormos' study is Rephrasing repair, in which a revision of the form of the message without altering the meaning, that happens due to speakers' uncertainty about the correctness of their message.<sup>39</sup> Rephrasing Repair is not included as categorization

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<sup>39</sup> Judit Kormos, “Speech Production and Second Language”, London: CSSLA. 2006. (page 126)

of self-repairs in this study since this type of self-repair is hard to decipher without conducting detailed interview to each of the students to know their retrospection, as Sato stated that it is really hard to differentiate between E-repairs and R-repairs (Rephrasing Repairs) with no direct confirmation from the speaker. It would also become a problem if the speakers themselves unable to remember and provide retrospection about their uncertainty of their speech when interviewed.<sup>40</sup> The example below is a case of R-repair with the retrospection of the speaker in Kormos' study:

Example:

*“Uhm our fish meals er foods are very good too.”*

*Retrospection: I corrected “fish meals” for “fish food” because I was not sure you can say “fish meals” and “fish foods” sounded a bit better.*

. Rephrasing repair is not a type of self-repair that can be analyzed solely based on the form of the utterance. It is understandable since the rephrasing repair happens by speaker's uncertainty about their own speech's correctness as a trigger. As the result, researcher needs to ask speaker's information in order to know their cause of repair and to determine whether the self-repair can be categorized as rephrasing repair or not Hence, Rephrasing Repair is not included in the categorization.

There is also another category of self-repair named Covert Repair. Levelt stated that Cover Repair may come in a form of only interruption plus

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<sup>40</sup> Rintaro Sato, “Self-initiated Self-repair Attempts by Japanese High School Learners while Sepaking English” (page 20)

editing term (without the repair itself) or the repeat on one or more lexical items.<sup>41</sup> On the other side, Kormos defined Covert Repair is the case when the speaker realizes the error and repair it before the articulation (before the utterance said), or when the speaker did realized about the error yet chooses not to correct it.<sup>42</sup> It would be really difficult to track both cases. Levelt stated that the Covert Repairs are problematic since it is almost impossible to analyze about what the speakers are monitoring for in their repairs.<sup>43</sup> It is even hard since Kormos further explained that the only way to examine Covert Repair is by using laboratory or to collect verbal reports from the speakers in retrospections of their recognition of the errors.<sup>44</sup> The following sentence is the example of Covert repair stated in Levelt's study:

Example:

*“At the right side an orange dot, orange dot.”*

In here, the speaker only does repetition without actually repairs anything from the utterance. This kind of data will be excluded from this research finding.

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<sup>41</sup> Williem J.M. Levelt, “Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech” (page 55)

<sup>42</sup> Judit Kormos, “Speech Production and Second Language”, London: CSSLA. 2006. (page 123)

<sup>43</sup> Williem J.M. Levelt, “Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech” (page 55)

<sup>44</sup> Judit Kormos, “Speech Production and Second Language”, London: CSSLA. 2006. (page 123)

Since this thesis only analyze the spoken discourse of the presentation activity in the class without further analyzing students' causes of making the self-repair, this thesis will only cover three types of self-repairs, following Levelt's theory: Different Information Repair (D-repair), Appropriateness Repair (A-repair), and Error Repair (E-repair).

In regard with sub-type of self-repairs, this research will only give some mentions on them, not further categorizing the sub-type of these three kind of self-repairs in details since Sato and Geordiadou's study don't further categorize the sub-type of self repairs.

This study only tracks students' well-formed self-repair. It means, the data which is taken in count in this study are self-repairs which contains successful repairs. Fail repairs will not be counted as research data in this study. The following utterance is an example of failed self-repair from Satos' study:

Example:

*T: Why do you want to be a nurse?*

*S5: I'm take, I like take care of people.*

From the example above, the repair is failed since the grammatical form of the repair is incorrect. This kind of fail self-repair will not be included as the finding of the study.

From the theories above, it can be conclude that the mistake, self-monitoring, and self-repair have correlation. Self repair happens because of self monitoring process that may happen when people make mistake. When there is no self-monitoring, mistake as the trigger will remain uncorrected and

becomes error because the self-repair doesn't happen.

### **3. Teacher's Oral Feedback**

#### **a. Definition of Teacher's Feedback**

Hattie and Timperley defines feedback as information that is given by teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience regarding of the learner's performance or understanding of certain material, as feedback is the consequence of performance.<sup>45</sup> Teacher's feedback comes only from the teachers, especially the teacher who is obliged to teach certain course to the students. In this research, teacher's feedback is defined as feedback that comes from the lecturer.

#### **b. Kinds of Oral Feedback**

There are three types of oral feedback that can be performed by lecturer about the case of students speaking performance. In her study, Bari categorizes oral Corrective Feedback, Evaluative Feedback, and Descriptive Feedback. However, this research limits the observation on Corrective Feedback, because this feedback has strong correlation with self-repair since self-repairs are correction of utterances comes from the students, while corrective feedback is a correction that comes from the teacher.

#### **c. Corrective Feedback**

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<sup>45</sup> John Hattie and Helen Timperley. *The Power of Feedback*. Review of Educational Research. March 2007, Vol. 77, No. 1, pp. 81-112. DOI: 10.3102/003465430298487 (page 81)

Bari explains Corrective Feedback as kind of feedback in which done in order to correct any error in students' performance.<sup>46</sup> Corrective feedback is done by the teacher in order to let the students correct their utterance. Corrective feedback can come in several types. According to Lyster and Ranta, there are six types of corrective feedback, explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition.<sup>47</sup>

### 1) Explicit correction

Explicit correction is the type of feedback in which the teacher gives correction to students' error explicitly, clearly indicating in which part the students make errors.<sup>48</sup> This type is the simplest among the other types, and is indeed frequently used by teachers.

Below are the examples of explicit correction taken from Zhao's study.<sup>49</sup>

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<sup>46</sup> Faradilah Bari, "Teacher's Oral Feedback on Speaking Class in SMPN 12 Bandar Lampung", Bandar Lampung: Universitas Lampung. 2016. (page 13)

<sup>47</sup> Roy Lyster, & Leila Ranta. "Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms", *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. 1997. (page 44)

<sup>48</sup> Ibid.

<sup>49</sup> Beibei Zhao, "Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake in Primary School EFL Classrooms in China", Zhejiang Shuren University, China.

S: “On the Sunday, Wuyifan...”

T: “Not ‘on the Sunday’, ‘on Sunday’.”

S: “On Sunday, Wuyifan played football with his friends.”

**a) Recast**

Recast is defined as the type of corrective feedback occurs when the teacher corrects students’ mistakes by reformulating a part or all of students’ utterance, without mentioning on their error.<sup>50</sup> The notable difference between explicit correction and recast is that the teacher doesn’t point out students’ mistake in recast, while in the explicit correction they blatantly restate students’ mistake, along with correcting it.

Bari gives two examples of recasts, the first is when the teacher only restated incorrect part of student’s utterance containing mistake, and the second is when the teacher restated the whole sentence:

**(Example 1)**

S: “You can talk to teacher.”

T: “The teacher.”

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THE JOURNAL OF ASIA TEFL Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 45-72, Autumn 2009. (page 56)

<sup>50</sup> Roy Lyster, & Leila Ranta. “Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms”, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. 1997. (page 46)

**(Example 2)**

S: “Where he go?”

T: Where does he go?”

**b) Clarification Request**

According to Spada and Frohlich, Clarification request is the moment when the teacher ask the students to do repetition or reformulation of their sentence because of one among two cases: the first is when the teacher somehow misunderstood the utterance (example 1) or when the students’ utterance is somehow incorrect (example 2).<sup>51</sup>

**Example 1 from Suzuki’s study in Bari’s<sup>52</sup>:**

S: “It is a new policy.”

T: (didn’t clearly catch the word ‘policy’, asked the student to repeat his/her utterance again.)

**Example 2 from Zhao’s study<sup>53</sup>:**


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<sup>51</sup> Spada and Frohlich in Roy Lyster, & Leila Ranta. “Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms”, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. 1997. (page 46). (page 47)

<sup>52</sup> Faradilah Bari, “Teacher’s Oral Feedback on Speaking Class in SMPN 12 Bandar Lampung”, Bandar Lampung: Universitas Lampung. 2016. (page 14)

<sup>53</sup> Beibei Zhao, “Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake in Primary School EFL Classrooms in China”, Zhejiang Shuren University, China.



S: “You go camping last night.”

T: “Pardon?”

S: “Go camping?”(clarified as grammatical mistake)

### c) Metalinguistic Feedback

Metalinguistic feedback can be presented in a form of teacher’s information, comment, or question which serves as guide to lead the students into correcting the mistake themselves.<sup>54</sup> It means that the teacher gives the feedback implicitly, trying to make students independently correct their mistake. Metalinguistic questions point out about the nature of the error, while attempting to elicit information from the students.<sup>55</sup> It is need to be noted that metalinguistic

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THE JOURNAL OF ASIA TEFL Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 45-72, Autumn 2009. (page 56)

<sup>54</sup> Faradilah Bari, “Teacher’s Oral Feedback on Speaking Class in SMPN 12 Bandar Lampung”, Bandar Lampung: Universitas Lampung. 2016. (page 14)

<sup>55</sup> Roy Lyster, & Leila Ranta. “Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms”, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. 1997. (page 47)

feedback happens only when the teacher asks yes/no question.<sup>56</sup>

Example from Lyster and Ranta's study<sup>57</sup>:

S: "Uhm, the, the elephant. The elephant grows."

T: "Do we say *the* elephant?"

#### d) Elicitation

Teacher repeats students' utterance, using pause breaks to elicit right answer from the students.<sup>58</sup> This kind of strategy seems like giving fill in the blank exercise orally to the students. Lyster and Ranta stated that teacher can directly elicit the right answer from the students by using three techniques: by strategically pausing to allow students to "fill in the blank", using questions to elicit correct forms, or asking students to reformulate their utterance.<sup>59</sup> Both elicitation and

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<sup>56</sup> Roy Lyster, & Leila Ranta. "Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms", *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. 1997. (page 48)

<sup>57</sup> Ibid. (page 64)

<sup>58</sup> Faradilah Bari, "Teacher's Oral Feedback on Speaking Class in SMPN 12 Bandar Lampung", Bandar Lampung: Universitas Lampung. 2016. (page 15)

<sup>59</sup> Roy Lyster, & Leila Ranta. "Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms", *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. 1997. (page 48)

metalinguistic feedback let the students to correct their answer based on teacher's hint. The big difference between elicitation and metalinguistic feedback is that in elicitation, the correction is drawn using oral fill in the blank strategy, while in metalinguistic feedback, the teacher leads the students with questions.

Example from Bari's studies<sup>60</sup>:

S: "She is run to her mother."

T: "She is..." or "She is run..."

#### e) Repetition

Lyster and Ranta stated that repetition refers to teacher's repetition, in isolation, of students' erroneous part in the utterance.<sup>61</sup> The repetition serves as a hint for the students to correct their mistake. In most cases, it is noted that the teacher purposely change the intonation of repetition in order to highlight the error to the students.<sup>62</sup>

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<sup>60</sup> Faradilah Bari, "Teacher's Oral Feedback on Speaking Class in SMPN 12 Bandar Lampung", Bandar Lampung: Universitas Lampung. 2016. (page 15)

<sup>61</sup> Lyster, & Leila Ranta. "Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms", *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. 1997. (page 48)

<sup>62</sup> Ibid.

Example from Bari's study<sup>63</sup>:

S: "The *air* is so fresh." (there was mispronunciation in word 'air')

T: "Air?" (with adjusted intonation to make student notices)

## B. Previous Studies

Five studies has been previously conducted regarding of the field related to students' self-repairs and teacher's corrective feedback. One among these studies is "The Role of Proficiency, Speaking Habits and Mistake-tolerance in the Self-repair Behaviour of Emirati ESL Learners" by Effrosyni S. Georgiadou, from Zayed University UAE.<sup>64</sup> This journal article focuses on the correlation between students' proficiency, and mistake tolerance in their self repair behavior. This study uses quantitative method and only need one time to collect data. Even though this research also chooses self-repair behavior as its main concern, instead of focusing in students' proficiency, this research will add another variable (teacher's response toward students' self-repair) to be considered instead. Also, the data analysis method would be different since this research will analyze the data using qualitative method.

The second one is an article from Rintaro Sato, "Self-Initiated Self-repair Attempts by Japanese High School

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<sup>63</sup> Faradilah Bari, "Teacher's Oral Feedback on Speaking Class in SMPN 12 Bandar Lampung", Bandar Lampung: Universitas Lampung. 2016. (page 15)

<sup>64</sup> Effrosyni S. Georgiadou, "The Role of Proficiency, Speaking Habits and Mistake-tolerance in the Self-repair Behaviour of Emirati EFL Learners", UAE: Asian EFL Journal Research Articles. Vol. 18 No. 4 December. (2016)

Learners While Speaking English”<sup>65</sup>. The article differentiates self-repairs based on type of trigger (error repair, appropriateness repair, and different information repairs) and linguistic level (L1 use, grammatical, phonological, lexical). The object of the research was Japanese High School students who studied English as foreign language learners. This article focuses on the success rate of the self-repair according to the types of the triggers.

The third study is a post-graduate thesis entitled “Function of Self-initiated Self-repairs in an Advanced Japanese Language Classroom” by Amanda Fincher.<sup>66</sup> This study contains research questions about either self-repair provides evidence on what’s being learned, students’ individual differences in levels of attention and memory related, correlation between self-repairs and proficiency, and the function of self-initiated self-repair. The data collection technique were varies as in observation, recording, questionnaires, interview, attention test, and proficiency level assessment since the research have 4 RQs.

The fourth study is undergraduate thesis by Lampung University graduate, Faradilah Bari, entitled “Teacher’s Oral Feedback on Speaking Class in SMPN 12 Bandar Lampung”. This study took time last year in 2016.<sup>67</sup> Her study mainly

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<sup>65</sup> Rintaro Sato, “Self-initiated Self-repair Attempts by Japanese High School Learners while Sepaking English”, Nara University of Education: Japan, Broad Research in Artificial Intelligence an Neuroscience, Volume 3, issue 2, May 2012, ISSN 2067-3957 (online) ISSN 2068-0473 (print).

<sup>66</sup> Amanda Fincher, “Functions of Self-initiated Self-repairs in an Advanced Japanese Language Classroom”, Griffith University, 2016.

<sup>67</sup> Faradilah Bari. “Teacher’s Oral Feedback on Speaking Class in SMPN 12 Bandar Lampung”, Bandar Lampung: Universitas Lampung, 2016.

focuses on kind of teacher oral feedback in three kinds. The researcher took the image of researching corrective feedback from this thesis. However, of course her thesis is focused only on kind of teacher feedback in broad yet detailed field, while this research choose to take only one among three kinds of these feedback kinds as completion of RQ1.

The fifth study is a degree project of Sandra Hadzig, with the title of “Oral and Written Teacher Feedback in an English as a Foreign Language Classroom in Sweden”.<sup>68</sup> This research focuses on both oral and written teacher’s feedback, includes corrective feedback. The corrective feedback is observed using observation. There are four research questions, one of the questions asking about which feedback happens most frequently. The study shows that the teacher uses both direct and indirect feedback in the lessons.

Unlike other previous studies which mainly only focus solely on self-repairs or only feedbacks, this research takes an account on both self-repairs and teacher’s feedback. Since the availability of feedback is also an important point on students’ development, the researcher decides to take this matter into an account of this research.

Thus, this research needs to be conducted in order to see a different focus from the previous studies, to continue the possible further research from previous studies, and to contribute in English Language Teaching field.

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<sup>68</sup> Sanja Hadzig, “Oral and Written Teacher Feedback in an English as a Foreign Language Classroom in Sweden”, Sweden: Linnaeus University, 2016.