CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW, CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, AND ANALYTICAL CONSTRUCT

This chapter is to review the related theories and studies upon which the analytical construct has been built. The discussion of this chapter is divided into three parts, i.e. Theoretical Review, Conceptual Framework and Analytical Construct.

A. Theoretical Review
1. Speaking
a. Definition of Speaking Skill

There have been many definitions of speaking. According to Oxford Dictionary of Current English (2009: 414), speaking is “the action of conveying information or expressing ones’ thoughts and feelings in spoken languages.” Chaney (1998: 13), in addition, considered speaking as a process: “speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal or non verbal symbol in a variety of contexts.”

Harmer (2001) adds that speaking happens when two people are engaged in talking to each other and they are sure that they are doing it for good reason. Their reason may be that they want to say something, they have some communicative purposes, and they select from their language store.

In language teaching and learning, speaking is considered a skill to practice and master. In this light, Nunan (2003:48) puts it that “speaking is the productive oral skill. It consists of producing systematic verbal utterance to convey meaning”. The discussion above concludes that speaking is the ability to express something in a spoken language. Speaking is concerning to put the ideas into words to make other people grasp the message that is
coveyed. In this study, the term “speaking” will be used to refer to a skill related to language teaching and learning.

b. Elements of Speaking Skill

This part is to review the related criteria of speaking ability to measure one’s speaking skills that are accuracy, fluency, and appropriateness.

1) Accuracy

Recognizably, accuracy is one of the most important criteria to measure one’s linguistic ability and to shelter language users from communication breakdowns.

According to Richards (1992:31), accuracy concerns “the ability to produce grammatically correct sentence.” In other words, accuracy in language means grammatical accuracy only. Nevertheless, in Thornbury (2005), the terms “accuracy” seems to cover more than that. Specifically, speaking English accurately means doing without or with few errors on not only grammar but vocabulary and pronunciation, as well. He also sets the clear scale for assessment of accuracy:

a) Grammar: Students use correct words order, tenses, tense agreement, etc. Students do not leave out articles, prepositions or difficult tenses.

b) Vocabulary: Students have a range of vocabulary that corresponds to the syllabus year list and uses words you have taught.

c) Pronunciation: Students speak and most people understand.

2) Fluency

Fluency is also used as a criterion to measure one’s speaking competence. Speaking fluently means being able to communicate one’s ideas without having to stop and think too much about what one is saying. Richards (1992:141) defines fluency as “the features which
gives speech the qualities of being natural and normal.” More specifically, Thornbury (2005) points out the criteria for assessing fluency. They are as follows:

a) Lack of hesitation: Students speak smoothly, at a natural speech. They do not hesitate long and it is easy to follow what they are saying.

b) Length: Students can put ideas together to form a message or an argument. They can make not only the simplest of sentence pattern but also complex ones to complete the task.

c) Independence: Students are able to express their ideas in a number of ways, keep talking and ask questions, and many more to keep the conversation going.

3) Appropriateness

According to Winski (1998), a complete definition of appropriateness is not practically possible. Intuitively, an utterance is appropriate in context if it is not unexpectedly conspicuous (marked) in some way. Appropriateness is also used as a criterion to measure one’s speaking competence.

There are some examples that shown inappropriateness in a conversation adapted from Winski (1998):

Example 1 (*inappropriate dialogue act*)

*S1*: What time does the next train leave for Milan?

*S2*: Can I help you?

Example 2 (*under-informative answer*)

*S1*: What time does the next train from Roma arrive?

*S2*: In the afternoon.
According to Spratt, Pulverness, and Williams (2005), appropriacy in speaking shows the different levels of formality, that is more or less relaxes ways of saying things. It is important to use the level of formality that suits a situation. In speaking activity, appropriateness is very important to be mastered by the students. It is because it will indicate whether the students really understand what they said or not. The appropriateness in speaking in formal, informal and neutral situations in a conversation will show their ability in understanding the context and situation of the conversation in English.

c. Teaching Speaking

Speaking, especially in a foreign language, is a very demanding activity for all ages of learners. It is because in order to share understanding with other people using a foreign language, one needs to pay attention to precise details of the language. He/she needs to find the most appropriate words and also the correct grammar to convey meaning precisely, fluently and accurately. It is also very important to organize the discourse so that the interlocutor understands what the speaker says (Cameron, 2001).

According to Hughes (1993), the teaching and learning of speaking is the development of the ability to interact successfully in that language and this involves comprehension as well as production. Speaking practice starts with practicing and drilling set phrases and repeating models. It can also mean communicating with others in situations where spontaneous contributions are required. Therefore, fluent speakers have to learnt not only about the language but also what the appropriate things to say in certain situations.

There are three stages in teaching speaking (Harmer, 2001). They are introducing the new language, practice, and communicative activities.
1) Introducing the new language

   English is the new language for students. It should be introduced as to meaning, forms, and functions. The meaning relates to its denotation, connotation, and culture. The function relates to the social life and the form relates to its linguistics.

2) Practice

   Practicing a new language is not just once. A teacher should reinforce again and again so that the students become familiar and automatic in producing the language. The teacher can create an atmosphere in which the students feel enough to find the words to express themselves in a real situation.

3) Communicative activities

   Communicative activities should be aimed at the communication that happens daily. The students are prepared to learn speaking within the text available in the students’ books. These models of dialogues, of course, are limited because the students have no chance to express their own ideas, and they have no challenge to create new situation.

   In this stage teachers also encourage language negotiating among students, take notes of any aspects that may hinder communication such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, etc. After this stage, teachers give students feedback on pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary and ask students to repeat the task if necessary.

**d. Teaching Speaking at Junior High School**

   The students of junior high are usually in ages 13-15 years old and these ages are categorized as teenagers. Teenagers are an age of transition, confusion, self-consciousness, growing, and changing bodies and mind (Brown, 2001). It is important for a teacher to know the characteristics of the students especially teenagers in the learning process because teaching teenagers is different from teaching adults. According to Cameron (2001: 19-20),
there are some principles in thinking about teenagers learning a foreign language which include:

1) Teenagers actively try to construct meaning.
2) Teenagers need space for language growth.
3) Language in use carries cues to meaning that may not be noticed.
4) Development can be seen as internalizing from social interaction; and
5) Teenagers’ foreign language learning depends on what they experience.

In learning to speak, teenagers mostly need more time to practice. It is not effective to make them speak communicatively and spontaneously if the teacher just gives them a lot of choral drilling and mechanical pattern practice. The students need not only repeat pattern many times but also do this in meaningful ways and genuine emotions. Furthermore, in teaching speaking, the teachers want the learners to gain fluency and accuracy in the oral presentation.

Based on the school-based curriculum, the target of the English subject in Junior high school is that the students must have the following capabilities:

1) Developing communicative competence in oral and written form to achieve functional literacy level,
2) Having awareness of the nature and importance of English language to enhance national competitiveness in a global, and
3) Developing and understanding of the relationship between language cultures.

A school based curriculum is a curriculum proposed by the government as the guide in the teaching and learning process as written in *UU 20/2003* and *PP 19/2005*. A school-based curriculum is developed according to the condition of educational institution, potential
and the characteristic of the area, and the social culture of the local society and students.

Related to school-based curriculum, National Education Department has proposed standard competency and basic competency for every subject that are written in *Kepmendiknas* No. 22/2006, which is used as a guide for the teachers in developing the school-based curriculum in every school. The teaching of speaking at junior high school should also be based on the basic competency and standard competency as stated in the standard of graduation competency and by looking at the competency of speaking, the teachers are also able to know the scope of speaking materials that will be taught to the students.

Table 2.1
Example of Standard of Competency and Basic Competency for Grade VIII of Junior High School.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard of Competency</th>
<th>Basic Competency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. Expressing the meaning of short simple transactional and interpersonal orally in the daily life context.</td>
<td>9.1. Expressing the meaning in transactional dialogue (to get things done) and simple interpersonal (socialization) dialogue by using oral various language accurately, fluently, and acceptably in the daily life context including asking for and giving service, asking for and giving information, and asking for or rejecting something.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.2. Expressing the meaning in interpersonal dialogue (to get things done) and simple interpersonal</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(Continued)
Standard of Competency | Basic Competency
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(socialization) dialogue by using oral various language accurately, fluently, and acceptably in the daily life context including asking and giving agreement, giving attention to a speaker, opening and closing dialogue, and opening and closing telephoning.

10. Expressing the meaning of short functional and monologue texts in the form of recount and narrative texts in the daily life context

10.1. Expressing the meaning in the form of short functional text accurately, fluently, and acceptably in the daily life context.

10.2. Expressing the meaning of the short monologues in the form of recount and narrative text accurately, fluently, and acceptably in the daily life context.

The speaking activity in the junior high school conducts, for example, with the teacher who asks the students to make a dialogue based on the specified topic and ask them to perform it in front of the class. The other activity is the teacher asks the students to perform by reading a dialogue on their students’ work book.

In conclusion, the final goal of teaching and learning English as stated in School Based curriculum is that the students can use the language in real communication. It means that the students are taught English in order that they are able to speak English. Furthermore, to improve students’ speaking ability, the teacher should give feedback to the students. By giving feedback, the teachers can share more information, give correction and also praise the students who can give positive effect to the students’ perception in speaking English. More explanation about teachers’ feedback and students’ perception will be explained on the next part of this theoretical review.
2. Feedback

a. Definition of Feedback

In the context of teaching and learning languages, there are a big number of feedback definitions. Littlewood (1981) and Lewis (2002) are telling learners about their progress and showing them their errors in order to guide them to areas for improvement. Other definitions of feedback is quoted by Berewot (2001:17) present that the feedback is the closing of a ‘loop’ in the learning process which serves to fix the leaning result and make it permanently available. It means that as students already accomplish their learning, they need correction, criticism, or even appreciation from any other sources to assess their learning result. From those two definitions, it can be concluded that feedback is beneficial to be provided for students to improve their performance from what they have learnt.

b. Roles of Feedback in Language Classes

Hattie and Kimberley (2007:21) assert in their review that “feedback is one of the most powerful influences on learning and achievement.” Freiermuth (1998:7) supports that teachers’ feedback helps to improve learners’ accuracy and language acquisition. The role of teachers’ feedback can be shown in the fact that teachers’ feedback reflects to students what and how they perform, showing them their strong points to strengthen as well as the weak points to improve. Noticeably, when teachers leave mistakes untreated, the defective language might serve as an input model and acquired by other students in the class. In short, when students speak and without teachers’ feedback, they run a high risk of losing their ways.
c. **Purposes of feedback**

According to Lewis (2002), feedback is like the way of telling the students about the progress they are making and also facilitating them in the area of improvement. Further, Lewis also lists some research-based purposes that have been suggested for giving feedback in language class. Some of the purposes are motivational and some have to do with providing students with information. Here are the details:

1) Feedback provides information for the teachers and students.

   Feedback is a way for teachers to describe their learner’s language. It gives teacher information about individuals and collective class progress and, indirectly, is a form of evaluation on their own teaching. While for learners, feedback is an ongoing form of assessment which is more focused than marks or grades. By highlighting strengths and weaknesses, 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. One way to focus on comments is to consider questions about their language use.

2) Feedback provides students with advice about learning

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

3) Feedback provides students with language input

   The teacher’s oral feedback provides students with meaningful and individual learning input. The teacher’s sentences, 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’ own current language use. In this way student can learn new vocabulary and structures in context.

4) Feedback is a form of motivation
Feedback can be more motivating than marks or grades. It can encourage students to study and use 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.

5) 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 seeing those arguments, it can be inferred that actually giving feedback is not only correcting students’ errors, but it should also provide information for teachers and students, provides students advice about learning, language input, a form of motivation and it should lead students towards autonomy.

d. Forms of Feedback

Cohen (1999:109) proposes two forms of feedback. They are:

1) Written feedback

In written feedback, comments, correction and/or marks are given to students’ written work. The marks may be on words or quick symbols such as underlining, circles, and other signs.

This form fits well with older students (late elementary trough high school). Written information of students’ efforts are most helpful when they are personalized or stereotyped and when they provide constructive information.

2) Oral feedback

Oral feedback, also known as oral conference, refers to personal consultation between teacher and student during the evaluation of communication activities. The major problem in
conducting this feedback is that the teacher needs to have sufficient time. Oral feedback fits well in younger students to pinpoint and correct the misconception immediately.

e. Sources of Feedback

Lewis (2002: 15-23) writes that there are three sources of feedback, namely, teacher feedback, peer feedback and self evaluation, which is equivalent with self-directed feedback.

1) Teachers

Teachers have been the main source of feedback both in oral or written languages in many classes (Lewis, 2002: 15). This situation also occurs in speaking lesson and according to Harmer (2001) when students have completed an activity, it is vital that teacher allows them to assess what they have done and then tell them what in teacher’s opinion went well.

The best question in this case is when and how to give feedback in speaking lesson. It can be answered by considering carefully the effect of possible different approach. In line with this, Harmer also states that when students are in the middle of 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 misunderstanding and hesitations and everything depends upon teacher tact and appropriate of the feedback they give in particular situations.

2) Peer

Liu and Hansen (2005: 31) define peer feedback as the use of learner or peers as sources of information and interactions for one another in such a way that the learner themselves take roles or responsibilities which are normally taken and done by teachers or trained tutors in commenting or criticizing their speaking.
3) Self-Evaluation (self-directed feedback)

Self-evaluation means the students correct and evaluate their own mistake. It has some advantages, there are it may increase students’ independence as they are supposed to find their own mistakes. Next, by finding their own mistakes, the students are expected to remember what mistakes they have done so they will not make the same mistakes later on. Moreover, self-evaluation saves time in a large class.

f. Types of Feedback

1) Immediate feedback

Immediate feedback refers to teachers’ comments delivered on the spot when a mistake or a good point is made by students. Rodgers (2001) proposes that this feedback type is employed by teachers when the aim of the stage of the lesson is to promote accuracy, particularly during the drilling of the target language and during guided practice. Richards (1992) who was concerned about spontaneous correction asserts that it can help learners aware of the mistake straight away. The advantages of using immediate feedback are that it enables teachers to give support or encouragement when students are confused about their making mistakes, when students need to be motivated and also the opportunity for immediate feedback to make sure the message was understood. Although immediate feedback has some advantages, it also has a weakness that is miscommunication. Sometimes what the students hear is not what is meant. The simplest words, for example, have a different connotation for the students. As stated by Richards (1992), he puts emphasis on the fact that sometimes immediate feedback type discourages learning from speaking as they may feel that every word in their speech is being judged.

2) Delayed feedback
Immediate feedback is not recommended in the fluency stage of a speaking lesson. In this case, delayed feedback should take place. Seeing that spontaneous feedback can backfire sometimes, it is suggested that techniques of delivering should be employed. Ur (2006) recommends that spontaneous feedback should be “unobtrusive” to avoid the interruption students’ “flow”. Another point as stated by Rodgers (2001) who may distinguish on-the-spot from delayed feedback is that whereas the former one tends to be used for individuals’ performance, the latter is for group work. Although delayed feedback has the advantage that is it is not backfire the students, this kind of feedback also has the weakness. Teachers give delayed feedback after the students’ performance; it means that the feedback is too late to be received by the students. And in the speaking activity sometimes students forget the mistakes that they have made.

As mentioned before feedback can be delivered immediately or with delays. By looking to the advantages and disadvantages of each types of feedback the researcher concerns on the giving of immediate oral feedback by the teachers. This concern is based on the limitation of the study in Chapter 1 and also in reality in the classroom speaking activity the teachers often use immediate oral feedback to give comment, correction and also praise to the students to make sure that the feedback would be accepted.

**g. Types and Contents of Teacher Immediate Oral Feedback**

The way of providing feedback orally and spontaneously can mostly be found in some studies about feedback. There are the details of the types and contentsof teachers immediate oral feedback:

1) Types of teacher immediate oral feedback
The terms of immediate oral feedback, according to Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Diane (1998), can be divided into six types, namely recasts, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic cue, and repetition. There are the details of the terms:

a) Recasts

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), recast is an implicit corrective feedback and in this type of correction, teacher implicitly reformulates all part of the students’ utterance. An example of recast:

S: Dangerous? (phonological error: /dangeˈrus/)

T: Yeah, good. Dangerous. (recast) You remember? Save and dangerous. If you walk in the street, you…

(Adapted from Lyster and Panova, 1998)

b) Explicit correction

Lyster and Ranta (1997) state explicit correction is teachers’ explicit provision of the correct form after clearly indicating that what students said was incorrect. For example:

S: The day……………..tomorrow. (lexical error)

T: Yes. No, the day before yesterday. (explicit correction)

(Adapted from Lyster and Panova, 1998)

Explicit correction is also characterized by “Oh, you mean …”, “You should say …”, “Use this word …” given by teachers.
c) Elicitation

According to Diane (1998), elicitation means that teachers directly elicit the correct form from students and prompt them to self-correct. Lyster and Ranta (1997) identify three ways of eliciting the correct form from students.

- Pausing and letting students complete the utterance. For example:

  S: “…Well, there’s a stream of perfume that doesn’t smell very nice…”
  
  T: “So, a stream of perfume, we’ll call that a…? (elicitation)
  
  (Adapted from Diane, 1998)

- Asking an open question. For example:

  T: In a fast food restaurant, how much do you tip?
  
  S: No money. (lexical error)
  
  T: What’s the word? (elicitation)
  
  (Adapted from Lyster & Panova, 1997)

  Another question that is often used is “How do we say that in English?” and according to Danie (1998), the different between elicitation and meta-linguistic cue that it requires more than a yes/no response.

- Requesting reformulation of the ill-formed utterance from students.

  S: Yes, yes, I like it.
  
  T: Well, say that again. (elicitation)
  
  (Adapted from Slimani, 1992)
d) Clarification requests

Lyster and Panova (1998) define the purpose of clarification request is to elicit reformulation or repetition from students with respect to the form of the ill-formed of the students’ utterance. Here is the example of clarification request:

\[ S: \text{As a child, I live in that house. (grammatical error)} \]
\[ T: \text{Now? (clarification request)} \]
\[ S: \text{Yeah ... I lived. (repair)} \]

(Adapted from Lyster and Panova, 1998)

Further, this type of feedback also seeks the clarification of meaning:

\[ S: \text{I want practice today. (grammatical error)} \]
\[ T: \text{I'm sorry? (clarification request)} \]

(Adapted from Lyster and Panova, 1998)

In fact, “I’m sorry?”, “Pardon me”, “I don’t understand”, or repetition of the error as in “What do you mean by?” etc. are seen as typical feature for this type of feedback.

e) Metalinguistic cue

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997: 46), metalinguistic cue refers to “comments, information, or questions related to the well-formed of the students’ utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.” An example of metalinguistic cue comes as follow:

\[ S: \text{“Uhm, the, the elephant. The elephant growls.”} \]
\[ T: \text{“Do we say “the elephant”?”} \]

(Adapted from Danie, 1998)
f) Repetition

According to Lyster and Panova (1998), in this type of oral feedback, teacher repeats the ill-formed part of the students’ utterance, usually with a change in intonation to draw student’s attention to it, as illustrated in this example:

S: “The...the giraffe?”

T: ”The giraffe?”

(Adapted from Danie, 1998)

2) Contents of teacher immediate oral feedback

Contents of teacher immediate feedback focuses on both mistakes on form and mistakes on meaning. In terms of mistakes on form, Beare (2003) proposes that there are a number of mistakes’ types that students tend to make frequently, namely grammatical mistakes, vocabulary and pronunciation mistakes. Accordingly, the contents of teachers’ immediate oral feedback should focus on these things. Specifically, with grammatical mistakes, teachers are supposed to pay attention to mistakes of verb tenses, preposition uses, etc. With vocabulary mistakes, teachers feedback should cover students’ incorrect collocations, idiomatic phrase usage, etc. whereas students’ errors in basic pronunciation, word stressing in sentences, rhythm and pitch, etc. should be put focus on teachers’ feedback on pronunciation.

As for mistakes on meaning, Edge (1998) investigates two situations that this mistake type occurs. Firstly, it occurs when a speaker uses a correct linguistic form that does not mean what he wants to mean. Secondly, it is when the speaker uses a correct but socially unacceptable linguistic form; the problem here concerns the politeness. Mistakes on meaning concerns idea organizations and logic of ideas. As for mistakes on idea organizations, teachers’ pay attention to the way students organize their strings of ideas to make sure that such idea organizations make it easy for the hearer to follow or catch the main points. With
teachers’ correction focuses on the logic of students’ ideas if their strings of ideas are not coherent enough.

3. Perception

a. The Definition of Perception

Kreitner and Kinicki (1992: 126) define perception as a mental and cognitive process that enables people to interpret and understand the surroundings. Another psychologist, Altman (1985: 85) describes perception as the way stimuli are selected and grouped so they can be meaningfully interpreted. It is a person’s view of reality. Furthermore, Mozkowitz, and Orgel (1969: 126) argue that perception is a global response to a stimulus or a set of stimuli. From those definitions of perception is viewed as the response to stimulus or to surroundings. Then, these responses will be interpreted as meaningful information about stimuli.

Warga (1983: 207) states that perceptions are based on the past experience. Supporting this idea Mahmud (1990: 41) defines perception as the act of interpreting information which has been kept in human brain. In this study, the researcher uses teacher immediate oral feedback as the past experience, in which the stimulus will be brought to the receptors. Then, the receptors will bring the stimulus to the brain to be processed in shaping perception.

Actually, the process of perception still has further outcome. Cook (1994: 90) remarks that perception is the selection, organization an interpretation of sensory data. It is a critically important process that helps people define their worlds and guides their behavior. Further, Kreitner (1992: 126) adds that perception will lead to the change of attitude, motivation, and behavior. In conclusion, perception may create this outcome within individuals.

b. The Process of Perception

Mahmud (1990: 41) proposes that perception process involves the sensation process, that is the acceptance of stimuli through the sense organ and perception stage. Similarly, Chaplin
in Kartono (1997: 358) says that perceptual process begins with attention, which is called selection process. The second stage is called perception, i.e. further step in observing the environment that is directed to know or to understand object and event. In line with that, Halsey and Shores (1976: 510) call the sensation as the sensory experience, that is, one or more of the body’s sense receptors must be stimulated. For example, the person must see, hear, smell, taste, and feel something. It will be followed by the interpretation of the sensation to reach certain meaning.

In more details, Dakir (as quoted by Sujiyana, 2001: 7) categorizes the perception process into three steps. First, there is selection on the stimuli by the sense organs. The second step is the interpretation, i.e. the process is then followed by reaction. It is a form of one’s behavior as a result of the interpretation process. The reaction can be positive or negative.

In addition Moskowitz and Orgel (1969: 175) explain that perception is a complex process. They divide the process into three kinds. Those are physical, psychological, and psychological process. They are as follows:

1) The process is physical when an object arouses stimuli which are caught by a receptor. This is what some experts usually call sensation.

2) It is psychological when the stimuli are sent to the brain by the sense organ.

3) It is psychologically when the brain processes stimuli. Then, the individual realizes what is received by his/her brain.

c. Factors Influencing Perception

By seeing the definition above, it can be inferred that perception is a process of someone’s understanding and comprehension of the environment situation. Some experts believe that there are some factors that affect person’s perception. Davidoff (1991: 122) states
that perception as a complex process depends on environment. During perception, knowledge about a world combines with the perceiver’s constructive abilities, psychologies and experience. Meanwhile, Bootzin, Bower, and Zajonc (1987: 26) state that person’s perception is affected by his/her expectation, motivation, and previous experience.

In addition, Depdikbud (1988: 126) divides factors that affect one’s perception into two. They are:

1) Internal factors that come from the students themselves, such as thought, feeling, willingness, sex, needs, motivation, and
2) External factors that come from outside of students, such as educational background, experience, environment, culture, belief.

In addition, Levin (1978: 154) says a person’s perception depends on three following issues:

1) The function of sense organs and physical condition of the body in transmitting the information to the nerve system.
2) Subjective in individual needs, desire, and motivation, and
3) The experience of learning

d. Students’ Perception towards Teacher Immediate Oral Feedback

In this study the researcher is interested in knowing the students’ perception on the teacher immediate oral feedback. The students are supposed to have the positive perception toward teacher immediate oral feedback so that they will keep learning in speaking. However, the students’ perception towards teacher immediate oral feedback may be different from one to another which can be positive or negative.
In order that oral feedback results in the positive effect there are some conditions which are needed. One of them is that the feedback should be clear. The feedback would be more understandable if the students can receive the corrections or comments that the teacher is likely to use. It means clearly is very important to create students’ perception towards teachers oral feedback.

Moreover, Konold et al. (2004) state one purpose of feedback is providing important information and helping students become effective and efficient learners. Then, teacher oral feedback should help the students to improve their speaking ability. By seeing those arguments, it can be inferred that assistance is a vital element in feedback.

Then, Lewis (2002: 3) states one purpose of feedback is providing information for teachers and students. He states that feedback is like the way of telling the students about the progress they are making and also facilitate them in the area of improvement. It means feedback given must be objective so it will let the students know how they have done, what parts are they lack of, and what parts are they good.

Also, Lewis (2002: 4) states that the purpose of feedback is a form of motivation. Feedback can be more motivating than marks or grades. It can encourage students to study and to use language to the best of their ability by taking onto account whatever teachers know about the learners’ attitudes. Therefore, motivating or encouraging aspect must be included in feedback. However, Truscott in Lyster, Lightbown, and Spada (2000) believe that feedback is somehow detrimental especially for student development since it only causes embarrassment, anger, inhibition, and feeling of inferiority. Actually, this controversial claim can occur in students’ feeling if feedback given is excessive. Therefore, the proportion should be considered by teachers in giving oral feedback.

By seeing those facts, it can be concluded that to create positive perception of students, teacher oral feedback should be clear, helpful, objective, encouraging, and proportional.
B. Conceptual Framework

Speaking is one of the skills in the language learning and it is essential in communication. Speaking has a complex process that consists of three parts. In the communicative activities, teacher feedback is needed by students to revise their speaking because mistakes must appear in students; speaking for English is a foreign language for them. It is quite hard for the students to correct their own mistakes for example their pronunciation in their speaking. That is why, teacher oral feedback can be used as guidance for the students to correct their mistakes and make their speaking better.

Many studies show that feedback can effectively reduce students’ errors in speaking. Students’ perception is a vital part in the learning process. Students’ perception will affect the students’ response and attitude in the learning process. There are some main factors that affect it, such as students’ expectation, motivation, and previous experience. In this case, students’ experience will be teacher oral feedback. If the students’ perception is positive, the acceptance information of the teacher feedback will be affective but if the students’ perception is negative, the acceptance information of the feedback will be disturbed. It means that students’ perception will give a big influence to the success of feedback. This study, therefore, concerns students’ perception towards teacher immediate oral feedback.

Some experts’ point of views are used as the reference to answer the research problems. Those points of views play a significant role in exploring, identifying, and analyzing the teacher oral feedback and students’ perception.

Theories of feedback helps to identify the types and contents of teacher immediately feedback. The types of teacher immediate feedback consists of recast, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification request, metalinguistic cue, repetition. Contents of teacher immediate feedback can be categorized into two, they are form and meaning. Feedback on form concerns on grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation while feedback on meaning concerns
idea organization, and logic of ideas. Furthermore, theory of feedback and students’ perception suggested helps to reveal the students’ perception towards teacher oral feedback. Students’ perception may focus on the clarity, the objectivity, the assistance, the encouragement and the proportion of oral feedback by the teacher.