

**STUDENTS' AWARENESS OF MISTAKES IN NEGOTIATION
OF MEANING**

(A Thesis)

**By
FERAYANI ULRICA**



**MASTER IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING STUDY PROGRAM
LANGUAGE AND ARTS EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
TEACHER TRAINING AND EDUCATION FACULTY
LAMPUNG UNIVERSITY
BANDAR LAMPUNG
2016**

ABSTRACT

STUDENTS' AWARENESS OF MISTAKES IN NEGOTIATION OF MEANING

By

FERAYANI ULRICA

Grammar in traditional methods is usually taught through explanations given by the teacher in a deductive way followed by meaningless activities that the students have to write. The classes do not emphasize the use of English in class nor do they emphasize communication among students and/or teacher. Language awareness can challenge learners to ask questions and involve them in exploring themselves of how language works. In relation to learning English at school, in order to lead the students to acquire communicative skills especially verbal communications, the teacher should be able to encourage the students to get involved in the interaction. This is because through interaction the students can use communication strategies, for example; they may use negotiation of meaning. The aims of this research were to find out the mistake that learners make during negotiation of meaning and analyze the students' awareness of mistakes in negotiation of meaning.

This research was qualitative descriptive research. The population of this research was the second grade students of SMA Negeri 5 Bandar Lampung (XI IPA 1) that was consisted about 33 students. In collecting the data, the researcher recorded and interviewed students' interaction. She tried to analyze students' awareness of mistakes in negotiation of meaning. The students made mistakes in grammar (74%), pronunciation (17%), and vocabulary (9%). The result showed the extend of students' awareness in responding a mistake in negotiation of meaning was low. It could be sum that only 16 incorrect utterances (30%) could be corrected by the students. It was divided into two sides; willingness and unwillingness to correct. There were 7 incorrect utterances that willing to be corrected by the students while 9 utterances were not corrected even the students knew the incorrect utterances occurred. The rest, 38 utterances (70%) were not corrected because the students were not aware of the mistakes that made by their interlocutor. From the mistake that could be corrected, only 4 utterances became an input. Most students were not aware or did not pay attention on the mistake during interaction because of some reason, such as the learner focused on meaning and they were in the same proficiency level. The condition of the class also influenced the result.

**STUDENTS' AWARENESS OF MISTAKES IN NEGOTIATION
OF MEANING**

**By:
FERAYANI ULRICA**

A Thesis

Submitted in a partial fulfillment of
The requirements for S-2 Degree



**MASTER IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING STUDY PROGRAM
LANGUAGE AND ARTS EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
TEACHER TRAINING AND EDUCATION FACULTY
LAMPUNG UNIVERSITY
BANDAR LAMPUNG
2016**

Research Title : **STUDENTS' AWARENESS OF MISTAKES IN
NEGOTIATION OF MEANING**

Student's Name : **Ferayani Ulrica**

Student's Number : **1423042050**

Study Program : **Master in English Language Teaching**

Department : **Language and Arts Education**

Faculty : **Teacher Training and Education**



Advisor

Dr. Flora, M.Pd.

NIP 19600713 198603 2 001

Co-Advisor

Mahpul, M.A., Ph.D.

NIP 19650706 199403 1 002

The Chairperson of
The Department of Language and Arts Education

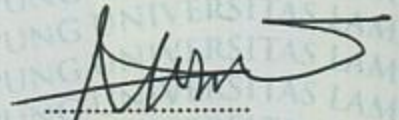
Dr. Mulyanto Widodo, M.Pd.

NIP 19620203 198811 1 001

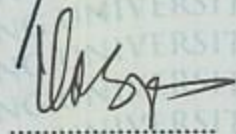
ADMITTED BY

1. Examination Committee

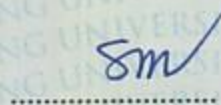
Chairperson : **Dr. Flora, M.Pd.**



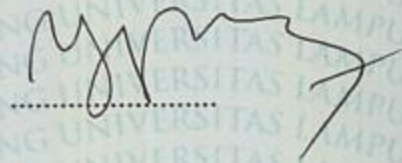
Secretary : **Mahpul, M.A., Ph.D.**



Examiners : I. **Prof. Dr. Patuan Raja, M.Pd.**



II. **Hery Yufrizal, M.A., Ph.D.**



The Dean of Teacher Training and Education Faculty



Dr. Muhammad Fuad, M.Hum.

NIP. 19590722 198603 1 003

3. Director of Postgraduate Program



Prof. Dr. Sudjarwo, M.S.

NIP. 19530528 198103 1 002

4. Graduated on : **December 22nd, 2016**

LEMBAR PERNYATAAN

Dengan ini saya menyatakan dengan sebenarnya bahwa:

1. Tesis dengan judul "Students' Awareness of Minstakes in Negotiation of Meaning" adalah hasil karya sendiri dan saya tidak melakukan penjiplakan atau pengutipan atas karya penulis lain dengan cara tidak sesuai tata etika ilmiah yang berlaku dalam masyarakat akademik atau yang disebut plagiatisme
2. Hal intelektual atas karya ilmiah ini diserahkan sepenuhnya kepada Universitas Lampung

Atas pernyataan ini, apabila dikemudian hari ternyata ditemukan adanya ketidakbenaran, saya bersedia menanggung akibat dan sanksi yang diberikan kepada saya, saya bersedia dan sanggup dituntut sesuai hukum yang berlaku.

Bandar Lampung, Desember 2016
Yang membuat pernyataan,



Ferayani Ulrica
NPM 1423042050

CURRICULUM VITAE

The writer's name is Ferayani Ulrica. She was born in Bandar Lampung on January 17th, 1991. She is the youngest daughter of Mr. Drs. Fauzan, S.H., and Mrs. Dra. Maryani.

She joined Kartika II-6 Kindergarten in 1996. Then she entered Elementary school in SD Kartika II-5 in 1997 and graduated in 2003. She continued her study in SMPN 25 Bandar Lampung and graduated in 2006, after that, she was registered at Senior High School in SMAN 5 Bandar Lampung and graduated in 2009.

She entered the S1 program at The English Education Department of the Teacher Training and Education Faculty (FKIP) in Lampung University 2009. In June 2013, she graduated in Lampung University.

Her working experience in English language teaching was started in Smart Global Education in Bandar Lampung in 2011. In 2013, she started joining Bimbel Profesional. In 2014, she joined Elmo Education for 1 year experiencing teaching in the institution.

MOTTO

The only way to do great work is to love what to do. If you haven't found it
yet, keep looking. Don't settle.
(Steve Job)

DEDICATIONS

This thesis is lovingly dedicated to:

My beloved father and mother,

Drs. Fauzan, S.H and Dra. Maryani
who always give me power, endless love,
support, and a lot of prayer.

My sister and brother,

Fenny Andriani, S.H.,M.H., and Ferdy Andrian,
S.H.,M.H.
who always keep loving and supporting me.

Students of MPBI Unila 2nd batch

who always give me support, love, and be there in
any condition.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

All praises be to Allah SWT, the Almighty and the most Merciful, peace be upon the beloved final prophet Muhammad SAW. *Alhamdulillah Rabbil 'aalamiin*, I thank to Allah SWT for His blessing and strength to me to accomplish this thesis. Sincerely, I am deeply indebted to the following people who have contributed in various ways in this study, that I would like to appreciate and address my gratitude to:

1. Dean of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Lampung University, for his approval in writing this thesis.
2. Head of English Education Department of Graduate School of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Lampung University, for his approval and support in writing this thesis.
3. Dr. Flora, M.Pd., the first consultant, for the advice, guidance, patience, and support in accomplishing this thesis.
4. Mahpul, M.A., Ph.D., the second consultant, for the advice, guidance, patience, and support in accomplishing this thesis.
5. Prof. Dr. Patuan Raja, M.Pd., the first examiner, for the the advice, suggestion, and critic in accomplishing this thesis.
6. Hery Yufrizal, M.A., Ph.D., the second examiner, for the the advice, suggestion, and critic in accomplishing this thesis.
7. All the lecturers of English Education Department of Graduate School of Lampung University who have guided, taught, and motivated during the years of the study.
8. Drs. Akhyauddin., the Headmaster of SMA Negeri 5 Banfar Lampung, and Drs. Mahpul, M.Pd., the Head of Curriculum Affair of SMA Negeri 5 Bandar Lampung, for the permission and help to carry out the research in the school.
9. Drs. Sugita, M.Pd., the teacher of XI IPA 1 in SMA Negeri 5 Bandar Lampung, for his permission, help, and support in conducting this research.
10. The second grade students of SMA Negeri 5 Bandar Lampung especially XI IPA 1 in the academic year of 2014/2015, for their cooperation and willingness as the respondents in this research.
11. All of my friends from kindergarten degree, elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, English Education 09 Lampung University, and friends of MPBI Unila 2nd batch.
12. Lastly, my big family.

Finally, I expect that this thesis will be useful for the readers. I do expect any criticism, ideas, and suggestions from others for this thesis.

Bandar Lampung, December 2016

Ferayani Ulrica

LIST OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|--|------|
| ABSTRACT | i |
| CURRICULUM VITAE | ii |
| DEDICATION | iii |
| MOTTO | iv |
| ACKNOWLEDGMENT | v |
| LIST OF CONTENT | vi |
| LIST OF TABLES | vii |
| LIST OF APPENDICES | viii |
| | |
| I. INTRODUCTION | |
| 1.1. Background of the Problem | 1 |
| 1.2. Research Problem | 5 |
| 1.3. Objective of the Research | 5 |
| 1.4. Uses of the Research..... | 6 |
| 1.5. Scope of the Research..... | 6 |
| 1.6. Definition of Term | 6 |
| | |
| II. FRAME OF THEORIES | |
| 2.1. Interaction..... | 8 |
| 2.1. 1. Types of Classroom Interaction | 9 |
| 2.2. Language Component in Speaking Skill | 10 |
| 2.3. Language Awareness | 12 |
| 2.3.1. Cognitive Aspects of Language Awareness..... | 14 |
| 2.3.2. Explicit and Implicit Learning..... | 14 |
| 2.4. Concept of Negotiation of Meaning..... | 16 |
| 2.4.1. Negotiation of Meaning in Second Language Acquisition..... | 26 |
| 2.4.2. Negotiation of Meaning in Second and Foreign Language Setting.... | 27 |
| | |
| III. RESEARCH METHOD | |
| 3.1. Research Design | 29 |
| 3.2. Subject of the Research | 29 |
| 3.3. Data Collecting Technique | 30 |
| 3.3.1. Task..... | 30 |
| 3.3.2. Interview..... | 31 |
| 3.4. Validity of the Data | 33 |
| 3.6. Research Procedure | 34 |
| 3.7. Data Analysis | 35 |

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Result of the Research.....37
4.2. Research Findings.....38
4.3. Discussion51

V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. Conclusions.....60
5.2. Suggestions.....61

REFERENCES

APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLE

| Tables | Page |
|---|-------------|
| 3.1 Specification of Students' Mistake..... | 31 |
| 3.2 Specification of Students' Awareness of Mistakes..... | 32 |
| 3.3 Specification of Comprehensible Input..... | 33 |
| 4.1 The result of language aspect..... | 39 |
| 4.2 The analysis of students' wrong utterances in correcting a mistake..... | 40 |
| 4.3 Result of Comprehensible Input..... | 42 |

LIST OF APPENDICES

| Appendix | Page |
|---|-------------|
| 1. Task | 69 |
| 2. Transcription | 70 |
| 3. Students' Mistake during the Interaction | 84 |
| 4. Interview | 86 |
| 5. Analysis of Students' Awareness in Correcting Mistakes | 99 |

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses certain points, i.e., introduction that deals with backgrounds of the problem, research problem, objective of the research, uses of the research, scope of the research, and definition of term.

1.1 Background of the Problem

Grammar in traditional methods is usually taught through explanations given by the teacher in a deductive way followed by meaningless activities that the students have to write. Among these activities, students have to translate English texts into Indonesian. The classes do not emphasize the use of English in class nor do they emphasize communication among students and/or teacher. Lin (2011: 124) states that a feel of inadequacy comes when learner can make all the correct sentences following the grammar rules but cannot communicate in the appropriate manner – not knowing the message conveyed by or embedded in the words they have learnt, not sure how to carry on a topic, not understanding the humor, and thus not effectively involved in the everyday talking with native speakers.

Bourke in his research (2008: 12) states that in the 1980s and 1990s positive results for grammar instruction in the classroom are reported and techniques are developed

whereby students would be able to notice grammar, often spontaneously in the course of a communicative lesson, and especially if the grammatical problem impedes comprehension. This process is called language awareness. That is, learners are able to notice and learn how a grammar feature works.

Therefore, it is clear that grammar instruction should be considered a must in second language acquisition. Bourke (2008: 13) also defines language awareness as linguistic problem-solving. Moreover, he states that language awareness involves learners, individually or in groups, in exploratory tasks, very often on bits of language that need repair. Language awareness can challenge learners to ask questions and involve them in exploring themselves of how language works. In a classroom where learners notice for themselves the features of a certain language, they become positive and curious learners.

Awareness in classroom is important to help learners construct their own grammar from personal exploration and trial and error tasks. Students' language awareness cannot occur without interaction between at least teacher and student or among students. Interaction exists, for example, when teacher gives question to student and student then gives an answer to teacher. It is done when the information flows from the source to its destination. According to Anton (as cited in Joanna, 2003: 16) language learning takes place when students actively attempt to make conversational adjustments and language modifications to transform information efficiently in the process of interaction. Moreover, given the constant negotiation role, students can

check the comprehensibility of what they themselves say, request clarification, confirmation, or reiteration of what the other has said, and modify and adjust their speech toward greater clarity and comprehensibility (Pica, 1991: 55). This way is regarded as the best strategy in learning the target language.

In interaction, students are expected to get comprehensible input and can improve their English ability appropriately. In fact, when process of interaction is practiced, utterances expressed by the speaker often cannot be understood by listener because of, for example, background noise or the speaker's accent or the L2 listener may hear a speaker's speech adequately but fail to understand the message because of serious problems with syntax or semantics of the foreign language (Anderson & Lynch, 1988: 5-6). Consequently, misunderstanding about information conveyed may occur. In relation to learning English at school, in order to lead the students to acquire communicative skills especially verbal communications, the teacher should be able to encourage the students to get involved in the interaction. This is because through interaction the students can use communication strategies, for example; they may use negotiation of meaning. Negotiation of meaning allows learners to make up for a lack of mastery of the language and to make communication more effective. Based on the idea above, it is clear that negotiation of meaning have important role in the process of communication.

As discussed above, negotiated interaction is seen as the basis for the provision of comprehensible input and later for the production of comprehensible output.

Unfortunately, there is no guarantee that interaction between native and non native speaker by using negotiation of meaning can be comprehensible. Flora (2013) in her research found that correction given by NS does not guarantee that NNS has internalized it since s/he did not give any response. It seems that input in the form of correction given by the NS is still questionable; whether or not it can be comprehensible (i+1) for the NNS. During the interaction, students focus more on meaning. In other words, they do not pay attention or aware of the accuracy at the language components, such as structure and vocabulary.

Carter (as cited in Hernandez 2011: 265) states that awareness involves at least a greater self-consciousness about the forms of the language we use. We need to recognize that the relations between the forms and meanings of a language are sometimes arbitrary, but that language is a system and that it is for the most part systematically patterned. Hawkins (in Soons, 2008: 8) explains learners in foreign language learning should be stimulated to ask questions about language, how it functions and what role it plays in people's lives.

The uses of language awareness help students discover the grammar feature being studied and can improve their learning of the target language. As Restrepo (2006: 21) proved that a language awareness approach to grammar instruction helped the learners acquire a better understanding of the language. Her research considered the use of explicit explanation as a way of reassuring students' discovering of the language.

This investigation is important because it intends to contribute with ideas to help learners assimilate another language by identifying, comparing, contrasting, and analyzing specific features of the target language in different conversational exchanges. In other words, it is important because it helps students discover how the language works considering not only its form and function but also its meaning (Gavidia 2012:1).

Following the expert's claim, this study was guided by the belief that language awareness enhances learning. Another belief underlying this study is that to help learners become aware, they should experience learning themselves. Therefore, this study wants to investigate the language awareness of students in mistakes during the interaction.

1.2 Research Problem

Considering the background of the study, the problems of this research are:

1. What mistakes do the learners make during the interaction?
2. To what extent are students aware in responding a mistake in negotiation of meaning?

1.3 Objectives of the Research

In accordance with the problem statements, the objectives of the study are:

1. To find out the mistakes that learners make during the interaction.
2. To analyze the students' awareness of a mistake in negotiation of meaning.

1.4 Uses of the Research

The uses of this research hopefully can:

1. Theoretically, it might be beneficial for supporting the theories of communication. Moreover, this research also can be used as a reference for the next researcher who will concentrate on the similar scope of research.
2. Practically, it might be beneficial for giving information about students' language awareness in responding a mistake during negotiation of meaning.

1.5 Scope of the Research

This research would be conducted at SMAN 5 Bandar Lampung. The subject of this research was second grade students of the school. The sample of this research would be randomly chosen. The researcher would try to analyse and describe the students' awareness of mistakes in negotiation of meaning at the second grade of SMAN 5 Bandar Lampung. The researcher would record classroom interaction and interview the learners to get the data needed.

1.6 Definition of Terms

Language awareness is explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use (The Association of Language Awareness (ALA), 1994, quoted in Soons 2008: 10)

Mistake occurs when learners fail to perform their competence; That is, it is the result of processing problems that prevent learners from accessing their knowledge of

a target language rule and cause them to fall back on an alternative, non-standard rule that they find easier to access. (Corder, 1967 in Ellis, 1994: 51)

Negotiation of meaning is defined as series of exchanges conducted by addressors and addressees to help themselves understand and be understood by their interlocutors (Yufrizal, 2007: 14).

II. FRAME OF THEORIES

This chapter discusses several points, i.e., literature review that deals with concept of classroom interaction, types of classroom interaction, language component in speaking skill, concept of language awareness, cognitive aspect of language awareness, concept of negotiation of meaning, negotiation of meaning in second language acquisition, and negotiation of meaning in second and foreign language setting. They are explained in the subtopics as follows.

2.1 Interaction

Tsui (as cited in Sari, 2005: 29) states that the term of classroom interaction refers to the interaction between the teacher and learners and amongst learners in the classroom. Hall and Walsh (in Sari 2015: 29) define classroom interaction as one of the primary means by which learning is accomplished in classroom. Another definition comes from Dagarin (2004: 128) who proposes classroom interaction as a two-way process between the participants in the learning process in which teacher influences the learners and vice versa. Eriba and Achor (2010: 49) state that classroom interaction refers to a technique consisting of objective and systematic observation of the classroom events for the study of the teacher's classroom behavior and the process of interaction going on inside the classroom. Richards and Schmidt

(2010: 74), quoted in Sari (2015: 29) assert classroom interaction as the patterns of verbal and non-verbal communication and the types of social relationships which occur within classrooms. Muhlisin (as cited in Sari 2015: 29) adds that classroom interaction is the action performed by the teacher and students during interaction interrelated.

From the definitions above, it can be concluded that classroom interaction is a two-way process between the teacher and learners and/or amongst learners during interaction in the learning process in which teacher influences the learners and vice versa in the classroom. In this study, interaction amongst learners would be focused.

2.1.1 Types of Interaction

In general, classroom interaction consists of two types: non-verbal interaction and verbal interaction. The explanations of non-verbal interaction and verbal interaction are:

a. Non-verbal interaction

It is related to behavioral responses in classroom. It refers to teacher's or students' interaction through their behaviors such as head nodding, hand raising, body gestures, and eye contact.

b. Verbal interaction

On the contrary, it contains written interaction and oral interaction. Written interaction is the style of interaction in which students write out their ideas and

thoughts through written words, documents, and so forth in order to interact with others. Meanwhile, oral interaction implies that students interact with others by speaking in class, answering and asking questions, making comments, and taking part in discussions (Tuan, 2010: 30).

Successful interaction may promote involvement between teacher and student or among students, enhance learning, and motivate students. In addition, when students are engaged in direct classroom activities, they will learn better. The students who are active in classroom through taking turns may develop their language. Meanwhile, those who are passive in classroom will have less opportunity to learn language.

2.2 Language Component in Speaking Skill

Speaking is used to interact and communicate by someone to other. Speaking is needed in all of life activities. This aspect of speaking will make our speaking or use of language well. As proverb says “practice makes perfect”. Therefore, students must practice to speak English as often as possible so that they are able to speak English fluently and accurately. A part of that, to speak English, we have to know some important component. The component is what aspect to be mastered by the people in speaking English. According to Syakur (1987:5), speaking is a complex skill because at least it is concerned with components of grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, and fluency.

1) Grammar

It is needed for students to arrange a correct sentence in conversation. It is student's ability to manipulate structure and to distinguish appropriate grammatical form in appropriate one. The utility of grammar is also to learn the correct way to gain expertise in a language in oral and written form.

2) Vocabulary

Vocabulary means the appropriate diction which is used in communication. Without having a sufficient vocabulary, one cannot communicate effectively or express their ideas in both oral and written form. Having limited vocabulary is also a barrier that precludes learners from learning a language. Language teachers, therefore should possess considerable knowledge on how to manage an interesting classroom so that the learners can gain a great success in their vocabulary learning. Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.

3) Pronunciation

Pronunciation is the way for students' to produce clearer language when they speak. It deals with the phonological process that refers to the components of a grammar made up of the elements and principles that determine how sounds vary and pattern in a language. There are two features of pronunciation; phonemes and supra segmental features. A speaker who constantly

mispronounces a range of phonemes can be extremely difficult for a speaker from another language community to understand.

4) Fluency

Fluency can be defined as the ability to speak fluently and accurately. Fluency in speaking is the aim of many language learners. Signs of fluency include a reasonably fast speed of speaking and only a small number of pauses and “ums” or “ers”. These signs indicate that the speaker does not have to spend a lot of time searching for the language items needed to express the message.

In this study, the researcher focused on the three types of language component that used by the students. They are grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. When the student asked a question to his/her friend, the other directly responds by giving possible answer depended on the real situation of the matter. Then researcher analyzed students' awareness in correcting a mistake during the interaction.

2.3 Language Awareness

In language awareness there is the cognitive connotation, which in itself opens up for various questions. Before treating the cognitive aspects of language awareness, the most frequent definitions of LA will be mentioned. The National Council in the UK for Language in Education (N.C.L.E) which supported research on language awareness in the beginning of the LA movement, gives the following definition in 1985, language awareness is a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the

nature of language and its role in human life (Donmall, 1997: 21). Language Awareness also can be defined as explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use.

Bourke (2008: 13) defines language awareness as linguistic problem-solving. Moreover, he states that language awareness is different in that it involves learners, individually or in groups, in exploratory tasks, very often on bits of language that need repair. Language awareness makes use of cognitive strategies such as noticing, hypothesis testing, problem solving, and restructuring to favor the students language learning.

Gavidia (2012: 27) states that language awareness techniques are based on the communicative and constructivist approaches to language learning which consider the student as the center of the learning process, so that he/she takes an active role in their learning. For these approaches, the teaching/learning process is dynamic, participative, and interactive. The teacher guides students once he/she has activated their previous knowledge, to construct new and significant knowledge to be incorporated into their long term memory.

Our minds are very powerful, so I firmly believe that if we help our students become aware of their mistakes, they will remember these errors and the feedback received. If they can recall feedback, they will avoid these faulty structures or wrong words in future compositions, and their English will improve. The study focuses on exploring

language awareness of the accuracy at the language components, such as structure and vocabulary. In order to find out more about natural levels of awareness, I set out to develop an interview that could be presented in language. The interview bore the title: “How *sensitive* are you about language?”. The questions are based on the recording of students’ interaction in the classroom.

2.3.1 Cognitive Aspects of Language Awareness

To understand the role of awareness in learning, it is important to see the contrasts between implicit and explicit learning. According to Norris & Ortega’s (2000) in Svalberg (2007: 290) analysis of 49 published studies on the matter, there is evidence that explicit learning is more effective than implicit learning. However, as Svalberg points out, it is important to see what kind of explicit knowledge is most facilitative and also in relation to what kind of language features. For example, in a study carried out by Robinson (1995) cited in Svalberg (2007: 290) learning seemed to occur with more success when the learners themselves have to realise and verbalise a certain grammatical rule (inductive method), instead of having it as part of an instruction from a teacher.

2.3.2 Explicit and Implicit Learning

In explicit learning the learner is aware of and actively involved in processing the input. Explicit language learning is necessarily a conscious process and is generally intentional as well. Explicit learning becomes crucial in the classroom, because it stimulates language awareness and enhances language acquisition.

The term implicit learning is first used by Arthur Reber (1989: 219) to describe a process during which subjects acquire knowledge about a complex, rule-governed stimulus environment without intending to and without becoming aware of the knowledge they have acquired. In contrast, the term *explicit learning* refers to a process during which participants acquire conscious (explicit) knowledge; this is generally associated with intentional learning conditions, e.g., when participants are instructed to look for rules or patterns.

Language awareness is a mental and internal capacity which the learner gradually develops by giving motivated and conscious attention to language in use to discover its patterns. The major function of language awareness approach is that learners find out language for themselves. Language awareness is not an explicit way of instruction or it is not taught by teacher or the book, it is developed by the learner himself. The important aspect of language awareness is that it helps to develop a spirit of investigation in learner because learners put their all mental energy and intellect in the learning process.

Allport (1988) in Gilakjani & Ahmadi (2011: 438) states that three conditions are necessary for a person to be aware of a given experience;

1. The person must show a behavioral or cognitive change as a result of experience. For example, the learner might begin using –ed endings as result of having been exposed to input that targets the past tense.

2. The person might report that he/she was aware of the experience at the time it took place. For example, the learner might report having been aware of –ed endings in the verb at the time of exposure.
3. The person must be able to describe the experience. For example, the learner must be able to articulate the morphological rule underlying the regular past tense.

The focus on this research was language awareness. Language awareness as defined by Bourke (2008: 13) is linguistics problem solving. Before doing the task, the researcher reminded the participants in many times to be aware and made correction of the mistake that they faced during the conversation. So, the awareness that the researcher meant was students' sensitivity in noticing and helping their friends to solve the problem of utterances that occurred during the interaction. The students hopefully could be aware of their friends' incorrect utterances and help them to get an input from the feedback that given by the interlocutor.

2.4 Concept of Negotiation of Meaning

Negotiation of meaning is defined as series of exchanges conducted by addressors and addressees to help themselves understand and be understood by their interlocutors (Yufrizal, 2007: 14). In this case, when native speakers and non native speakers are involved in an interaction, both interlocutors work together to solve any potential misunderstanding or non understanding that occurs, by checking each others' comprehension, requesting clarification and confirmation and by repairing

and adjusting speech (Yufrizal 2007: 17). According to Pica at all (1989) in Yufrizal (2007: 17) there are basically four components in negotiation of meaning, namely:

1. Trigger

Trigger is the utterance is contains elements that create communication breakdown. It can also be defined as prime of negotiation of meaning which invokes or stimulate incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer. A trigger exists when a speaker:

- a) Shows uncertainty or hesitation about the expressions going to be used. For example:

A : *and I need very energetic person that uh ...
can what it can ...*
B : *can attract*

- b) Produces a comprehension check that requires further clarification work from the listener. If a comprehension check can be responded by the listener in a short confirmation or negation, then the comprehension check itself serves as a signal for negotiation of meaning. However, when a comprehension check is produced by a speaker and it causes the listener to produce a confirmation check or clarification request, then the comprehension check serves as a trigger for a negotiation of meaning.

- The example of the comprehension check is a signal:

A : *do you see what, what I mean?*
B : *yes, uh ...what time is it ..., uh ..., what time?*

- The examples of comprehension check is a trigger:

1. A : *who run in the sand of the beach ... You know sand of
beach, hu uh*
B : *no what is the mean sand it the beach*
A : *you know like uh what we call in Lampung we have uh*

Pasir Putih or

2. A : *and the ..., the right cupboard right cupboard is uh ..., the first first shelf on the right is a ..., uh hmm set up cup setdo you know a cup set?*
 B : *in the right?*
 A : *yes yes three cup set uh ..., and the next ..., ..., there are uh ..., three glass*

- c) Produces an utterance that contains something the interlocutor perceives as a mistake. This perception of a mistake in one of elements of the utterance causes the listener to correct or to elaborate the utterance. For examples:

1. A : *the mouth is like uh the people uh, ... when when the people hungry maybe*
 B : *angry you mean?*
 A : *angry oh ... I'm sorry angry*
2. A : *yeah but the man uh ... he use glasses wh, uh circlr glasses*
 B : *with ehm glasses, with a circle fram? Circle frame?*
 A : *circle fram ... frame*

- d) Produces an utterance which contains an unclear word or phrase. For example:

- A : *after that, and ..., there's ... uh ..., have knife, on the ..., what, what*
That's knife and knop
 B : *I beg your pardon? ...*
 A : *knife*

- e) Produces an utterance which contains an idea that is unclear to the listener. For example:

- A : *uh how about the what is it the button in this coat there their what how many button in your picture in your picture I think*
 B : *pardon me?*
 A : *in his in his coat in your picture the man use coat right?*

f) Produces utterances in the speaker's L1. For example:

- A : he has uh ... one ..., ... one [*kancing*] in Indonesian
 B : [*kancing*]? One uh ... you mean on the blazer
 A : u..hu.
 B : Oh, I see ...

2. Signals

This component refers to an indicator from a listener that understanding is not complete. Signal as an indicator from a listener that understanding is not complete. This indication is triggered by a speaker's previous utterance. In many studies of negotiation of meaning signals have been closely linked to two concepts: confirmation checks and clarification of requests.

Signals are divided into confirmation checks and clarification requests. The detail explanation is discussed below:

a. Confirmation check

It is defined as listener's inquiry as to whether correct or not their expressed understanding of the speaker's previous utterance. According to Pica et al (1989), confirmation check could occur in the three ways:

- a) Confirmation check through repetition is the interlocutor repeats all of parts of the speaker utterance. The dialogue example is:

Student A: Café it's too in South Street
Student B: South Street?
Student A: Next to grocers

b) Confirmation check through modification is the interlocutor corrects or completes what the previous speaker has said. The dialogue example is:

Student A: Uh the story it tell about the man who wants to.....

Student B: To trip?

Student A: To trap a bear but he.....

c) Confirmation check through completion is the interlocutor elaborates or modifies what the speaker has said in order to confirm whether his/her understanding of what speaker has said is correct. The dialogue example is:

*Student A: He see a frog is on the water..., yeah, it seems it's on uh...
what is it kind of leafs on the water and then just... she just
smile the girl is stand on the left side of the picture.*

Student B: Do you mean that she's watching the frog?

Student A: Yeah she was watching the frog

b. Clarification request.

A clarification request is a request for further information from an interlocutor about a previous utterance (Foster: 1998). Unlike confirmation checks where the listener listened to the speaker's utterance with some degree or non understanding, in clarification the listener has totally not understood what the speaker has said. A clarification request can be expressed in the form of a wh-question or a yes/no question with rising intonation. For example:

A : so the title?

B : what?

A : so the good title of it?

A clarification request can also be expressed through special expressions such as 'pardon', or 'I beg your pardon?'. For example:

A : uh where is the car park?

B : *pardon?*
A : *car park*

Sometimes a clarification request is expressed in a back-channel clue. For example:

A : *oh, I mean uh ... you just move here?*
B : *yeah?*
A : *where do you come from?*

3. Response

It refers to a speaker's attempt to clear up what the listener has said (unaccepted input). In many studies of negotiation of meaning responses were related to the discussion of the repair, that is, corrections made by non-native speaker as a response to a modification of input action by native speaker.

There are five categories of response. They are self-repetition, other-repetition response, self modification, other-modification response, and confirm of negate response.

a. Self-Repetition Response

It refers to a response produced by a speaker in the form of part or all an utterance produced in the trigger (Pica: 1989). The dialogue example is:

Student A: Now I in pub.
Student B: What... pub?
Student A: Pub

b. Other-Repetition Response

It is category, the speaker repeats what the listener says in the signal (Pica: 1989). In the speaker's response to the signal, we can see that the speaker has changed his

output based on the input from the listener. Since the listener's signal is triggered by inability to interpret the speaker's utterance, the signal always modifies the trigger toward the listener's assumed interpretation. Therefore in this case, the speaker has produced modified output. The dialogue example is:

Student A: I think like a suit, us, usual

Student B: Like usual suit

Student A: Yes, usual suit

c. Self-Modification Response

This category, the speaker modifies the trigger as a response to the listener's a signal of negotiation of meaning. The modification made by the speaker can be at level phonology, morphology, or syntax, or at the semantic level. The dialogue example is:

Student A: And then uh... . I think this picture tell tell us about ironic ironic picture.

Student B: Can you spell it.

Student A: Ironic ironic ironic in Indonesia ironi.

d. Other-Modification Response

Other-modification response is a modification by the speaker to reflect the signal given by the listener. The dialogue example is:

Student A: Uh...uh...what they have done?

Student B: What has she done...

Student A: What has she done to the frog.

e. Confirm or Negate Response

It refers to a response in form of confirmation or negotiation. A 'yes' confirmation response is usually short. The dialogue example is:

Student A: Yes I see...what about his hair?

Student B: His hair...

Student A: Yes

In cases where the answer is a negation, there might be some modifications by the speaker. For example:

A : uh ... you you you have told me that you have a lot of experience in another countries. And may I know your ... your reason. Why you leave the comp these company?

B : uh ... my reason to join this company?

A : no no no no to join our company but why you leave

4. Follow-Up

It refers to information about whether the modifications have been successful or not in communication. In a long negotiation of meaning, interlocutors usually repeat the signal-response exchanged until an agreement is achieved. For example:

Student A : On the top of cooker

Student B: Pardon?

Student A: On the top of the cooker

Student B: Yes, on the top of the cooker

Varonis and Gass (1985) cited in Yufrizal (2007: 16) proposed a simpler model for exchanges that create negotiation of meaning. The model consists of four primes called:

- a) Trigger (T) which invokes or stimulates incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer;
- b) Indicator (I), which is hearer's signal of incomplete understanding,
- c) Response (R) is the original speaker's attempt to clear up the unaccepted-input, and

- d) Reaction to the response (RR), which is an element that signals's hearer acceptance or continued difficulty with the speaker's repair.

In the development of studies in negotiation of meaning, Alcon, Shortreed, Martyn and Van Den Branden have broadened the concept of negotiation of meaning, such as by inserting some ideas from studies in communication strategies into the basic concept of negotiation of meaning. Alcon (1996) in Yufrizal (2007: 19), for instance, included some elements of communication strategies in their studies of negotiation of meaning, such as appeals for assistance, appeals for verification of meaning, definition requests, appeals indicating lexical uncertainty for the component of signals; foreignization, literal translation, code switching, approximation for responses. Another extension of negotiation of meaning is by Van den Branden (1997) in (Yufrizal 2007: 19) who distinguished three definitions of negotiation: negotiation of meaning, negotiation of form and negotiation of content.

Firstly, Van den Branden (1997) in Yufrizal (2007: 19) defined negotiation of meaning as side sequences to the main flow of conversation aimed at signaling and solving problems of message comprehensibility that is aimed at restoring mutual understanding. Under this category, Van den Branden divides the negotiation of meaning into two elements: *indicator and response*. *The indicator* includes clarification request, confirmation of request with trigger unmodified, confirmation of request with trigger modified, non verbal indicator. *The response* includes switch to the new topic, repetition of trigger, modification of trigger, repetition of indicator,

modification of indicator, confirm of negate indicator, inability to respond, ignore the indicator, response unnecessary.

Secondly, Van den Branden defines the negotiation of form as side sequences to main flow of conversation aimed at drawing the participant's attention to formal aspect of description, and encouraging 'self repair' or, at the very least, acknowledgement of the formal modifications that the listener suggested. The negotiation of form also consists of two elements: indicator and response. The indicator includes request of rephrasal, prompt, confirmation request unmodified, confirmation modified, and metalinguistic comment. The response includes repetition of trigger, modification of trigger, repetition of indicator, modification of indicator, confirmation or negation of indicator, inability to respond, ignore indicator, and response unnecessary. Thirdly, negotiation of content as stretches of interaction aimed at pushing the participants to provide more information spontaneously offered in the description. This type of modification also consists of two elements: indicator and responses. The indicator includes clarification request, confirmation request unmodified, confirmation request modified, and confirmation request elaborated. The response includes giving additional information, repetition of trigger, modification of trigger, repetition of indicator, modification of indicator, confirm or negate indicator, inability to respond, ignore indicator, response unnecessary, and switch to a new topic.

Through the definitions and examples above, Van den Branden (1997) in Yufrizal (2007: 22) shows that the concept of negotiation is still a widely open area of study.

Many things can be explored from the interactions between NS and NNS or among NNS. Van den Branden shows that negotiations can cover not only negotiation of meaning but also about form, and content. However, the basic idea of negotiation has not changed; that is, the negotiation occurs because of the communication breakdown or the potential for a breakdown to occur. How each interaction participant reacts to the communication breakdown is still open to be studied. Van den Branden (1997) as well as Alcon (1996), Shortreed (1993) in Yufrizal (2007: 22-23), show that although negotiation of meaning can be manifested in various ways and forms, the basic idea of negotiation of meaning is still the same, that is, it is a way to overcome potential communication breakdown.

2.4.1. Negotiation of Meaning in Second Language Acquisition

According to Pica (1996) in Yufrizal (2007: 23) admitted that although there has been no empirical evidence of a direct link between negotiation of meaning and second /foreign language development, research studies in negotiation of meaning for the last two decades have shown that there are two obvious contributions of negotiation of meaning to second language acquisition . Firstly through negotiation of meaning (particularly in interactions involving native speakers) non native speaker obtain comprehensible input necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interaction without negotiation of meaning. Secondly, negotiation meaning provides opportunities for non native speaker to comprehensible output necessary for second language acquisition much more frequently than in interactions without negotiation of meaning. Another important role of negotiation of meaning

which may not have a direct impact on second language acquisition but it is also an important element for second language learning through communication is that negotiation of meaning can function as an indication of pursuit of communication.

2.4.2 Negotiation of Meaning in Second and Foreign Language Setting

The majority of interaction studies deals with interactions involving native speakers and non native speakers have been conducted in the target language setting. A set of research papers by Pica (1985a;1985b; Pica and Doughty, 1985, 1986; Pica, Young and Doughty, 1987; Pica et al, (1989); Pica et al, 1991 and Pica et al (1996), cited in Yufrizal (2007: 30-31) has shown than when non native speakers indicate that they don't understand message, expressed through comments such as 'pardon me', *uuh?* 'What?' 'Excuse me?' 'I ...don't understand', the native speaker help non native speakers to comprehend by modifying their utterances.

A communicative interaction in a foreign language setting, in which non native speakers interact with other non-native speakers from the same L1 background, might result in different pattern of interaction from those in a second language setting and from interaction which involves a native speaker. In the former setting, the interaction takes place for the sake of language practice rather than for communicative purpose.

Language input is usually confined to classrooms and communication with foreign language teachers. The participants usually have a shared L1 knowledge, which some time hinders them from negotiating of meaning and/ or permits them to use an alternative channel of communication. In the latter setting, the participants are usually

geared toward purely communicative purpose, i.e. to understand or be understood by their interlocutors. Language input is not confined to teachers and classroom situation but is abundant from social life outside the classroom. The participants in conversation usually have a gap in linguistic knowledge, the native speakers being in the position of superior and non native speakers being in the position of inferior. Consequently, there are some strategies applied by either the speaker or interlocutor in order to understand or to be understood.

The opportunities of meaning negotiation help the language learners in three main ways. First, as suggested by Long and others, it helps learners to get comprehensible input that is to say it facilitates comprehension. One way in which this takes place is when the negotiation breaks down and learners seek to segment the input into units so that they can understand them. Second, negotiation of meaning provides learners with feedback on how to use the second language. For example, teacher very often corrects students' mistakes when they negotiate so that they use the second language accurately. Finally, negotiation of meaning encourages learners to adjust, manipulate, and modify their personal output, because a successful negotiation occurs when learners produce outputs that are comprehensible and therefore target-like (Yufrizal, 2007: 34-36).

III. RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter discusses certain points, i.e., research method deals with research design, subjects of the research, data collecting technique, validity of the data, and data analysis. They are explained in the subtopics as follows.

3.1 Research Design

In this research, the researcher used a qualitative research in form of case study. In this research the writer used model of qualitative decriptive research design. By recording and interviewing students' interaction, the researcher tried to analyze students' awareness of mistakes in negotiation of meaning. Researcher would provide a task that is considered to stimulate students in producing negotiation of meaning. The task that would be used is information gap.

3.2 Subjects of The Research

The subjects of this research were one class of second grade students of SMA Negeri 5 Bandar Lampung. SMA Negeri 5 Bandar Lampung was one of favorite senior high schools in Bandar Lampung. The researcher used XI IPA 1 that was consisted of 33 students. Many researchers had been done in this school. But, the researcher had not found any research focusing on analyzing language awareness in this school. That

was why the researcher chooses this school as the subject. It was expected that this research was able to be one of reflection and evaluation media for teachers and students during the process of teaching and learning. This research would be selected by using random sampling.

3.3 Data Collecting Technique

In this research, the data were collected in form of qualitative data. It was used to obtain the data needed about the classroom interaction at the second grade students of SMA Negeri 5 Bandar Lampung. The data collecting techniques used by the researcher were:

1. Task

Before taking interaction the researcher gave a type of tasks (information gap task). The interactions discussed about the tasks. To obtain the data, the researcher would record the students' utterances by using recorder application in the cell phone. In fact, the students could record the utterances produced with their own cell phones. The researcher did not take much role and also did not communicate with the participants. The researcher had no effort to control the process of teaching and learning process, but simply recorded the classroom interaction naturally. The researcher recorded the interactions between participants from the beginning until the end. Before taking interaction the learner would be given a type of tasks (information gap task). The interactions discussed about the tasks. Then the researcher transcribed all dialogue,

made a kind of codes, and divided the mistake based on language component, such as syntax, pronunciation, and vocabulary.

Table 1. Students' mistake during the interaction

| Task | Aspects of Language | | | Total |
|-------------------|---------------------|---------------|------------|-------|
| | structure | pronunciation | vocabulary | |
| Group 1 | | | | |
| Group 2 | | | | |
| Group 3 | | | | |
| Group 4 | | | | |
| Group 5 | | | | |
| Group 6 | | | | |
| Group 7 | | | | |
| Group 8 | | | | |
| Group 9 | | | | |
| Group 10 | | | | |
| Group 11 | | | | |
| Group 12 | | | | |
| Group 13 | | | | |
| Group 14 | | | | |
| Group 15 | | | | |
| Group 16 | | | | |
| Frequency | | | | |
| Percentage | | | | |

The criteria of the mistake that made by the learner

0%-20% = very low

21%-40% = low

41%-60% = average

61%-80% = high

81%-100% = very high

(Source : Riduwan (2009: 89))

2. Interview

In this research, the researcher applied semi-structured interview with open-ended questions to students. Semi-structured interview allowed participants freedom to express their views in their own terms. The questions were constructed around: the classroom activities and the factors that affect interaction in classroom. The researcher interviewed students. It was conducted in Indonesian using audio-recorded. The interview was based on the students' utterances and their

comprehensible input during negotiation of meaning. For example the interview in

Group 13:

R : Diah juga bilang “yes, I free. Menurut Mareta gimana? Benar atau salah?

M : ya iya udah bener karena dia bilang dia gak ada kegiatan

R : jadi “yes, I free” benar ya?

M : benar

R : Diah also said “yes, I free”. According to you, is it true or false?

M : true because she said she did not have any activity

R : so, is it (yes, I free) true?

M : true

Table 2. The analysis of students’ awareness

| Name | Incorrect Utterances | Awareness | | Unawareness |
|-------------------|----------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------|
| | | Willingness to correct | Unwillingness to correct | |
| Group 1 | | | | |
| Group 2 | | | | |
| Group 3 | | | | |
| Group 4 | | | | |
| Group 5 | | | | |
| Group 6 | | | | |
| Group 7 | | | | |
| Group 8 | | | | |
| Group 9 | | | | |
| Group 10 | | | | |
| Group 11 | | | | |
| Group 12 | | | | |
| Group 13 | | | | |
| Group 14 | | | | |
| Group 15 | | | | |
| Group 16 | | | | |
| | | | | |
| Percentage | | | | |

The criteria of students’ awareness in correcting a mistake

0%-20% = very low

21%-40% = low

41%-60% = average

61%-80% = high

81%-100% = very high

(Source : Riduwan (2009: 89))

After doing an interview and concluding the result into the table above, the researcher would analyze students' awareness in correcting a mistake. She would see student's comprehensible input based on the wrong utterances that could be corrected by the students during the interaction.

Table 3. Comprehensible Input (i+1)

| Task | Corrected | Comprehensible Input (i+1) |
|--------------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Group 1 | | |
| Group 2 | | |
| Group 3 | | |
| Group 4 | | |
| Group 5 | | |
| Group 6 | | |
| Group 7 | | |
| Group 8 | | |
| Group 9 | | |
| Group 10 | | |
| Group 11 | | |
| Group 12 | | |
| Group 13 | | |
| Group 14 | | |
| Group 15 | | |
| Group 16 | | |
| Total | | |
| | Percentage | |

The criteria of students' comprehensible input

- 20% - 39% : Poor
- 40% - 59% : Enough
- 60% - 79% : Good
- 80% - 100% : Very Good

3.4 Validity of the Data

To ensure the trustworthiness of this research, there were some strategies used to obtain the trustworthiness of the data. In qualitative research, the researcher employed triangulation method. Triangulation was a manner of collecting the data by combining two or more methods in order to have more accurate conditions. (Setiyadi,

2006: 11). In this research, the writer used time triangulation. Time triangulation was used to collect the same data which is the teaching learning process occur at different time but in the same class. The data of this research was gotten from the task and interview.

3.5 Research Procedures

In conducting this study, the researcher conducted the following procedures:

1. Providing the task (information gap) to each group. Information gap task contained about the information of several films.
2. Giving the task to each group. Each group consisted of two participants. In information gap task the students would be required to make a dialogue. In this case the two students discussed what films that is interesting for them to watch. Then decide which would be the best film for them to watch according to the discussion.
3. Instructing the participants to take interaction. The students were asked to be aware of the mistake in doing the task and corrected the mistake produced by interlocutor. After receiving task, participant took conversation about the topic that had been determined in task.
4. Recording the interactions by using students' gadget. During the participants took interaction the researcher recorded their conversation from the beginning until the end.

5. Transcribing the interactions that have been recorded. After recording the participants' interaction the researcher transcribed it well. Because it was qualitative research so the researcher would focus on the process of interaction not in statistical data.
6. Coding each transcription of conversation. It was necessary for the researcher to give code for each conversation so it could be easily understood by the reader.
7. Analyzing all data from transcriptions of interactions among participants. The researcher would analyze the data from transcriptions of interaction completely to find out what the researcher is looking for.
8. Doing an interview to the students after the instruction to get the accurate data.
9. Reporting results of analysis. It was important for researcher to report the results of analysis. The result would be explained.

3.6 Data Analysis

The data analysis used by the researcher is descriptive qualitative. This research was done in order to analyze students' language awareness of mistakes in negotiation of meaning that occurs during the process of interactions. So it meant that the researcher focuses on description technique not in statistic technique. After giving the task and asking the students to record the dialogues used their gadget. The researcher transferred the files to her own gadget. She described conversations during the

students' interaction process of SMAN 5 Bandar Lampung, giving coding and making notes. The next step was analyzing the transcriptions. Then the researcher interviewed the students in pair. The questions of interview were based on the students' incorrect utterances. When the data was received, the researcher used Likert scale. It was useful in measuring latent constructs - that was, characteristics of people such as attitudes, feelings, opinions, etc. In analyzing the data that was gotten from students' activities, the steps were as follows:

- a. Counting the number of incorrect utterances done by the students
- b. Calculating the percentage of the students' mistakes, the following formula is used:

$$\% A = \frac{A}{N} \times 100\%$$

V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In line with the result of the research, the conclusions and suggestions are formulated as follows.

5.1 Conclusions

Referring to the discussions of the research findings, the researcher comes to the following conclusions:

1. All of the students actively involved the activity. During the interaction, they made many mistake in language components, such as grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Based on the observation from the task that had been done by the researcher, grammar became the highest frequency mistake with 74%. The second place was pronunciation with 17%. The last was vocabulary with 9%.
2. The students hopefully developed their awareness to participate actively in the process of learning. However, the result of this research showed that students' awareness of mistake that willing to correct in this research was low. Most of them did not pay attention of the mistakes. Students were aware of 16 incorrect utterances (30%). It was divided into two sides; willingness and

unwillingness to correct. There were 7 incorrect utterances that willing to be corrected by the students while 9 utterances were not corrected even the students knew the incorrect utterances occurred during the dialogue. The rest, 38 incorrect utterances (70%) were not corrected during the interaction because the learners were not aware of the mistakes that made by their interlocutor. Then, from the utterances that corrected, only 4 utterances became an input for the students. It happened because of some reasons, such as the learners focused more on the conveying meaning, and they were in the same language proficiency level. The condition of the class also influenced the result of this research.

1.2.Suggestions

Apart of those conclusions, the writer would like to propose some considerable suggestions:

1. Much time and expertise has been devoted to make language learners more competent in communicating since English became a world language. The writer is supposing language awareness, as a means of helping learners to help themselves upon a principle and objective in all language lessons if adopted by curriculum developers, materials writers and teachers. Prepare the students perfectly ready to activate their awareness is a must. The teacher also should notice and concern with the condition of the class. The noisy class makes the learners difficult to hear the utterances of their partner.

2. There is limitation with this study. In this research, the researcher gave freedom for the participants to choose their partner. So, this study only examined participants of same language proficiency without including intermediate proficiency. Thus, the performance of low level learners when they are grouped with learners of other levels/native speakers, their results on Language Awareness and Negotiation of Meaning remains an open question.

REFERENCES

- Alcon, E. 1996. Negotiation, Foreign Language Awareness and Acquisition in the Spanish Educational Context. *International Journal of Psycholinguistics* 10, 83-96.
- Al-Khasawneh, F. M. 2012. Vocabulary Learning Strategies: A Case of Jordan University Of Science And Technology. *English for Specific Purposes World*, Issue 34, Volume 12.
- Anderson, A., & Lynch, T. 1988. Listening. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Andrew, S. 2007. *Teacher Language Awareness*. Cambridge: CUP
- Baker, J., & Westrup, H. (2003). *Essential Speaking Skills: A Handbook for English Language Teachers*. London: Continuum.
- Bourke, J. 2008. A Rough Guide to Language Awareness. *Teaching Forum*, 1: 12-21.
- Canale, M. 1983. *From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy*. In J. Richards & R. Schmidt (eds.), *Language and Communication* (2-27). London: Longman.
- Dabao, A. M. F. 2001. *The Effect of Language Proficiency on Communication Strategy Use: A Case Study of Galician Learners of English*. Galicia: Universidade de Santiago de Compostela Press.
- Dagarin, M. 2004. *Classroom Interaction and Communicate Strategies in Learning English as a Foreign*. Ljubljana: Birografika Bori.
- Danuarwindo, F. 2014. *Grammatical Error Analysis in Speaking of the Second Semester English Students*. Jawa Timur: IAIN Tulungagung Press.
- DeKeyser, R. 2005. What Makes Learning Second-Language Grammar Difficult? A Review of Issues. *Language Learning*, 55(S1), 1-25.
- Donmall, B. G. 1985. *Language awareness: NCLE reports and papers 6*. London: Centre for Information and Language Teaching.

- Ellis, R. 1994b. A Theory of Instructed Second Language Acquisition. *Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages* (pp. 79-114). London, England: Academic Press.
- Eriba, J. O & Achor, E. E. 2010. *Effects of School Type and Teacher Gender on Classroom Interaction Patterns in Integrated Science Classes*. Brunei Int. J. of Sci & Math. Edu, 2(1), 48-58.
- Foster, P. 1998. *A Classroom Perspective on the Negotiation of Meaning*. Applied Linguistics 19 (1), 1-23.
- Gavidia, J. L. 2012. *Using Language Awareness Techniques to Improve the Level of Achievement in the English Skills of the Students Taking a Master's Program in Education in a Private University*. Thesis: Universidad De Piura, Lima, Peru.
- Gilakjani, A.P & Ahmadi, S. M. 2011. Role of Consciousness in Second Language Acquisition. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 1, No. 5, pp. 435-442.
- Guz, E. 2014. Gauging Advanced Learners' Language Awareness: Some Remarks on the Perceptual Salience of Formulaic Sequences. *Awareness in Action*. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
- Hall, J. K. & Walsh, M. 2002. *Teacher-Student Interaction and Language Learning*. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 22, 186-203.
- Harris, D. P. 1974. *Testing English as a Second Language*. New York. Mc. Grow Hill.
- Hawkins, E. 1984. *Awareness of Language: An Introduction*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Hernandez, M.S. 2011. Raising Student Awareness about Grammatical and Lexical Errors via Email. *Revista de Lenguas Modernas*, 14, 263-281.
- Joanna, P. T. C. 2003. *Effects of Negotiation for Meaning Towards The Improvement of Classroom Interactional Skills*. Kuala Lumpur: Putra Malaysia University Press.
- Jones, L. 2007. *The Student-Centered Approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Kawaguchi, S. & Ma, Y. 2012. Corrective Feedback, Negotiation of Meaning and Grammar Development: Learner-Learner and Learner-Native Speaker Interaction in ESL. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, 2(2), 57-70.
- Krashen, S. 1982. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. London, England: Pergamon.

- Lin, Y. 2011. *A Language Awareness Approach to English Language Teaching in Joint Programs in China*. Proceedings of the 16th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics, 123-128.
- Long, M. H. 1983. *Input, Interaction, and Second Language Acquisition*. In H. Winitz. (Ed), *Native Language and Foreign Language Acquisition*. Annals of the New York Academy of Science 379: 259-278.
- Long M. H. 1996. *The Role of the Linguistics Environment in Second Language Acquisition*. In W.C. Ritchie and T.K. Bhatia (Eds), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 413-486). New York: Academic Press.
- Muhlisin, M. 2011. *Teacher and Students' Interaction in English Conversation Class*. IKIP PGRI Semarang: Unpublished Paper.
- Nainggolan, F. 2013. *Negotiation of Meaning: An Analysis of Oral Communication*. Bandar Lampung: Anugrah Utama Raharja.
- Nassaji, H., & Swain, M. 2000. A Vygotskian perspective on corrective feedback: The effect of random versus negotiated help on the learning of English articles. *Language Awareness*, 9, 34–51.
- Norris, J., & Ortega, L. 2000. Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 50, 417-528.
- Poullisse, N. 1990. *The Use of Compensatory Strategies by Dutch Learners of English*. Dordrecht: Foris Publications
- Pica, T. Holliday, L. Lewis, N. Berducci, D. And Newman, J. 1991. *Language Learning through Interaction: What Roles does Gender Play?* Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13 (2), 323-376.
- Pica, T. Holliday, L. Lewis, N. And Morgenthaler, L. 1989. *Comprehensible Output as an Outcome of Linguistics demands on the Learner*. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 11, 63-90.
- Reber, A. S. 1967. Implicit learning of artificial grammars. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 6, 317– 27.
- Restrepo, A. I. *Implementing a Language Awareness Approach to Grammar Through Topics*. Medellin: Universidad de Antioquia.
- Riduwan. 2009. *Dasar-dasar Statistika*. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- Richards, J. C. & Schmidt R. 2010. *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, 4rd edition. London: Longman.

- Riswanto & Haryanto, E. 2012. *Improving Students' Pronunciation through Communicative Drilling Technique at Senior High School (SMA) 07 South Bengkulu, Indonesia*. Retrieved from International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol. 2 No.21.
- Robinson, P. 1995. *Aptitude, Awareness, and the Fundamental Similarity of Implicit And Explicit Second Language Learning*. In Schmidt (ed.), 303–357.
- Rohmatillah. 2014. *A Study on Students' Difficulties in Learning Vocabulary*. Lampung: IAIN Press.
- Samigan, A. 2016. *First Language Interference in EFL Students' Composition of IAIN Salatiga*. Salatiga: Muhammadiyah Univerisity of Surakarta Press.
- Sari, F. M. 2015. *An Analysis of Classroom Interaction In The English Language Teaching Process*. Surakarta: Unpublish Thesis. UNS.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1995). *Consciousness and Foreign Language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning*. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and Awareness in Foreign Language Learning* (pp. 1-65). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Setiadi, Ag. B. 2006. *Metodologi Penelitian untuk Pengajaran Bahasa Asing, Pendekatan Kuantitatif dan Kualitatif*. Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu.
- Shiu, L. J. 2011. *EFL Learners' Perceptions of Grammatical Difficulty in Relation to Second Language Proficiency, Performance, and Knowledge*. Ontario: University of Toronto Press
- Swain, M. 1985. *Communicative Competence: Some Roles of Comprehensible Input and Comprehensible Output in Its Development*. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (Pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Shortreed, L. M. 1993. *Variation in foreigner talk input: The effects of task and proficiency*. In G. Crookes & S.M. Gass (Eds.), *Tasks and language learning: Integrating theory and practice* (pp. 96-122). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Soons, M. P. *The Importance of Language Awareness*. Sweden: Malmö högskola.
- Spromberg, S. 2011. *Communication Strategies Used by High School English Language Learners in Multilingual Classrooms*. New York: University of New York Press.
- Syakur.1987. *Language Testing and Evaluation*. Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.

- Svalberg, A. M-L. 2007. Language awareness and language learning. *Language Teaching* 40(4), 287-308.
- Tsui, A. B. M. 2001. Classroom Interaction (Chapter 17). In Carter, R. & Nunan, D. 2001. *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tuan, L. T. & Nhu. 2010. *Theoretical Review on Oral Interaction in EFL Classrooms*. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 1(4), 29-48.
- Tuan, N. H. & Mai, T. N. 2015. Factors Affecting Students' Speaking Performance at LE Thanh Hien High School. *Asian Journal of Educational Research*, 3(2), 8-23.
- Ur, P. 1996. *A Course in Language Teaching (Practice and Theory)*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Van den Branden, K. 1997. *Effect of Negotiation of Language Learner's Output*. *Language Learning*. 47 (4), 589-636.
- Varonis, E. M. And Gass, S. M. 1985. *Non-Native/ Non-Native Conversations: A Model for Negotiation of Meaning*. *Applied Linguistics*, 6 (1), 71-90.
- Wilkins, D. (1972). *Linguistics in language teaching*. Cambridge: CPU.
- Yule, G., & Tarone, E. 1991. The Other Side of The Page: Integrating The Study of Communication Strategies and Negotiated Input in SLA. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, M. Sharwood Smith, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Foreign/Second Language Pedagogy Research: A Commemorative Volume for Claus Færch* (pp. 162–171). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Yufrizal, Hery. 2007. *Negotiation of Meaning by Indonesia EFL Learners*. Bandung, Pustaka Reka Cipta.