

**THE EFFECT OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TOWARDS
STUDENTS' SPEAKING PERFORMANCE
RELATED TO LEARNING STYLES**

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TOWARDS STUDENTS' SPEAKING PERFORMANCE RELATED TO LEARNING STYLES

By:

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This research was intended to identify the effect of corrective feedback, to identify to what extent students with different learning style benefitted from corrective feedback, and to find how corrective feedback affected the students' development.

The subjects of the study were the students of Diploma program of Lembaga Bahasa Inggris (LBI) Bandar Lampung. This study took 22 students as the subject of the research in getting the data of corrective feedback. The data were taken by using oral tests scored by two interraters. The classification of the students' learning styles, namely concrete, analytic, communicative, and authority-oriented, was done based on Willing's Learning Style Questionnaire (1988). The students were asked to make oral production based on series of pictures in simple present tense and simple past tense.

The first result found that generally, corrective feedback contributed to students and increased the students' speaking performance. The second, it was found that concrete learners gained more benefit from corrective feedback than the other learning styles while the authority-oriented learners gained very little or did not get any benefits from corrective feedback. The third result showed that not all uptakes led to students' development, but the noticed corrective feedback might lead to development for concrete learners. It showed that the effectiveness of corrective feedback might be depended on the students' personal character, in this case, depended on their learning style.

**THE EFFECT OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TOWARDS
STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILL RELATED TO
LEARNING STYLES**

**By:
ADHI NURHARTANTO**

A Thesis

Submitted in a partial fulfillment of
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In

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Teacher Training and Education Faculty



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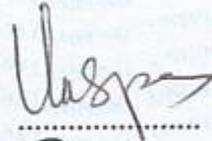
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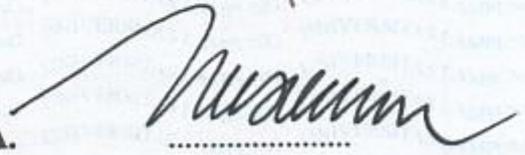
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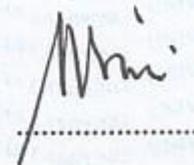
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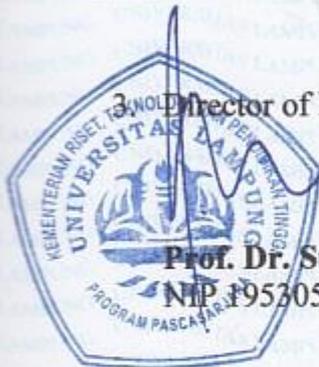
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LEMBAR PERNYATAAN

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CURRICULUM VITAE

The writer of this research is Adhi Nurhartanto. He was born in Blora, on June 1st 1982. He is the first child of Ir. Mulyo Hartono and Nuryani Woro Hastuti, S.Pd. He is also a husband of Ratna Oktarina Handayani, S.P. and a father of Kayasa Aimi Nurhartanto. He attended his formal education in TK Kuntum Mekar Bukittinggi. He then continued his study at SDN 1 Pengajaran, Teluk Betung and graduated in 1994. In primary level, he studied at SMPN 3 Bandar Lampung and graduated in 1997. In secondary level, he continued his study at SMUN 3 Bandar Lampung and graduated in 2000. In tertiary level, he continued his bachelor degree at Lampung University majoring Agriculture Cultivation. He finished his bachelor degree in 2007. In 2014, he was registered as a student of the 1st batch of Master of English Education at Lampung University. He finally managed to finish his master's degree in three years and graduated in 2018.

Motto

Do not train children to learn by force or by harshness; but direct them to learning
by what amuses their minds, so that you may be able to discover
with accuracy the peculiar bent
of the genius of each

(Plato)

DEDICATION

I hereby dedicate this thesis for :

- My parents: Nuryani Woro Hastuti, S.Pd. and Ir. Mulyo Hartono
- My beloved wife: Ratna Oktarina Handayani, S.P.
- My precious daughter: Kayasa Aimi Nurhartanto.
- My siblings: Erlangga Febrianno and Riani Devi Wiraswati.
- My students.
- My comrades of MPBI first batch.
- My fellow teachers.

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Finally, this thesis is expected to be able to provide useful knowledge and information to the readers. And the writer is pleased to accept more suggestion and contribution from the reader for the improvement of the thesis.

Bandar Lampung, September 2017
The Researcher

Adhi Nurhartanto

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DAFTAR PUSTAKA

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I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the background of the problem which includes the reasons for conducting the research, the problems in giving the corrective feedback, and the possibility of giving correction which is needed to improve the students' performance in speaking. This chapter also describes the identification of the problems, the limitation of the problems, the formulation of the problems, the objectives of the research, the significance of the research, the scope of the research, and the definition of terms.

1.1. Background of The Problems

Giving direct correction to a student's performance is debatable. Some might say that, direct correction, especially when it is done in front of the student's friends, in the classroom, is affecting his/her confidence. The serious danger of correction includes embarrassment, anger, inhibition feelings of inferiority, and a generally negative attitude toward the class and possibly toward the language itself (Truscott, 1999 p. 5). This implies that correcting directly tends to ruin the students' pride and giving hurtful memory and for worse, they might hate the teacher or the subject. Otherwise, other opposite opinions say that correcting is

accelerating the students' knowledge. Ellis and Sheen (2006, p. 588) have summed the evidence that exposing learners to recasts can lead to acquisition. The importance of recast as a form of corrective feedback is believed to act like an alarm to the learners so they know that they make mistakes and in another occasion, the mistakes will be reduced.

From the writer's observation in many occasions in the classroom activities, especially in the speaking assignment, when the students are performing their assignment orally, whether it is in the form of monologue or dialogue, when students are making mistakes, the teacher is probably hesitant to interfere or interrupt the speech. Teachers are generally not very successful in their attempts to provide high quality oral correction (Chaudron cited in Truscott (1999, p. 8)). To reduce the problems, teachers have used delayed correction, recording students' speech or taking notes during class and then presenting them to students outside of normal class activities (Truscott, 1999 p. 8). In some teacher training programs conducted by some courses attended by the writer, the trainers suggest not to interrupt the students' speech even though they make errors. Instead, the teacher should discuss and correct the errors made by the students before leaving the class without pointing on who made the errors.

It is probably agreed that one of teacher's roles is to give feedback to correct the students' error. In the 80's, Krashen's (1982, p.31) Affective Filter Hypothesis mentions the need to lower the affective filter because a strong affective filter may result in the not-optimal learner's acquisition. In acquiring the language, it is believed that learners will produce language when they are ready to produce the language. Therefore, error correction has little or no effect in subconscious

acquisition because the error correction tends to interrupt and heighten the affective filter and tends to be assumed as negative input which is harmful for learner's acquisition process.

However, there is a tendency that Krashen's hypothesis seem to put students under unlimited time to acquire the language, whereas, teachers need to deal with academic year, students' length of stay in English classes, and target achievement stated by the curriculum. The target achievement is broken down into some target languages that are delivered in several sessions. Correction session in class is useful to highlight the targeted language that is being taught. One way proposed by second language researchers is through corrective feedback. Ellis (2005, p. 20), mentions that corrective feedback plays an important role in developing accuracy in L2.

It cannot be neglected that the teaching of English in the classroom gives attention to the form of the language. Even when the teaching gives focus on meaning, it must also help learners to find the clue to produce the language with the right form. Form is also the base in giving school tests and even national examination. The widely accepted tests such as TOEFL or IELTS also have grammar section which relies on form. Therefore, corrective feedback directs learners to the correct form whatever teaching method is used in the classroom.

Based on real experience, when giving corrective feedback in students' monologue test in *Lembaga Bahasa Inggris* (LBI) Bandar Lampung, the researcher found that the students' acceptance of corrective feedback, represented by recasts as a form of implicit feedback is still low. In total, from 10 students,

only 31% of recasts are repaired by the students. If we look to each student closely, then it can be seen that the acceptance of feedback in each person is different from each other. Therefore, it might be necessary to investigate the students' individual difference in learning, especially on their acceptance or response to corrective feedback. The question raised is whether feedback is beneficial only on students with certain individual character or not.

The studies on corrective feedback have shown learner's better performance if corrective feedback is integrated in classroom activities than those which learn the language from class activities without corrective feedback (Carrol and Swain, 1993 cited in Ellis et.al. (2006, p. 344); Muranoi, 2000, cited in Ellis et.al. (2006, p. 345); Ellis, et.al (2006,p. 361); Goo, 2012 cited in Goo & Mackey (2013, p. 145)). It is agreed by Second Language Acquisition researchers that giving corrective feedback can contribute to learning and can assist learning (Ellis, 2005, p. 22). The importance lies in showing real evidence of the non-target-like form produced by students in L2 and the target-like form of the target language (Long & Robinson, 1998 cited in Kim, 2004 p. 1). The gap between correct production and incorrect production of language is believed to be a booster in activating the self awareness in producing the language. Learners need to know when they make errors and what errors they have made. The data above showed that the acceptance on corrective feedback, in this case, recasts, is varied on each students.

The data have also showed that there is probability that individual variability may affect learners' acceptance on feedback. Sheen (2008, p. 864) mentions that there is a relationship between a psychological internal learner factor and modified output, which influences the effect that recasts (as one form of interactional

feedback) have on L2 learning. This statement shows that correcting students' errors is not only the matter which type is more acceptable. Correcting errors is also a matter of considering each student's psychological internal factor. Therefore, in some cases, corrective feedback seems to be ignored by the students.

To the writer's knowledge, the previous researchers have analyzed the mechanical factors of corrective feedback but the attention on learners' individual acceptance on corrective feedback, especially based on learners' learning style, has not been given much attention. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to further the understanding of the role played by corrective feedback in language learning, especially in the practice and production phase, by exploring the role of learners' individual variable (learning style) in how learners learn from corrective feedback. The research emphasizes on the effect of learners' learning style on the learners' ability to get benefit from corrective feedback.

1.2. Identification of the Problems

Based on the background of the problems, the writer identifies the problem as follows;

- a. Students make errors in producing the language orally.
- b. Teacher is hesitant to give corrective feedback.
- c. Corrective feedback is contributive to language learning.
- d. Researches on corrective feedback are still dealing with the mechanics of corrective feedback.

- e. The response of corrective feedback in each student is different from one another.
- f. The effect of corrective feedback on learners' with different learning styles has not been discussed.
- g. Corrective feedback can be used in any teaching methods.

1.3. Limitation of the Problems

From the identification of the problems met on the classroom, this study limits the problems into the learners' individual acceptance (based on learners' learning style) on various corrective feedback at the first semester students of *Lembaga Bahasa Inggris* (LBI) Bandar Lampung. Based on the identification of the problems, this study covers the effect of corrective feedback towards students with different learning styles.

1.4. Formulation of the Problems

Based on background of the problem mentioned previously, the problems are formulated as the research questions as follows:

1. What is the effect of corrective feedback on students' speaking performance?
2. Is there a difference in students' speaking performance between the groups of students with different learning styles after corrective feedbacks were applied?
3. How do corrective feedbacks affect students' development?

1.5. Objectives of the Research

The objectives of this research are:

1. To investigate whether there is significant difference before and after corrective feedbacks were applied to learners' speaking performance.
2. To describe whether or not there is difference between the groups of students with different learning styles.
3. To investigate how corrective feedbacks affected students' development based on the learning styles.

1.6. Significance of the Research

The uses of this research are:

1. Theoretically, the result of this study can support the previous theories on corrective feedback to develop learners' speaking skill in the classroom by using an appropriate corrective feedback based on the learners' learning styles.
2. Practically, to inform the readers, English teachers, language researchers, and practitioners of how to improve the students' speaking skill through corrective feedback based on the learners' learning styles.

1.7. Scope of the Research

This research was focusing on the students' speaking performance for students of high-school graduates. The oral pre-tests had been done at the beginning of the class before the treatment was implemented. The classroom activities and tests

were recorded and analyzed by interraters. The language learning style questionnaire which was taken from Willing (1988) as cited in Yufrizal (2007, p. 93-96), was given at the first meeting of the class to categorize the students in certain dominant learning strategies category. It was hoped that in each class all categories of language learning strategy users, namely; concrete, communicative, authority-oriented, and analytic were represented in each class.

The materials were arranged from the notional-functional syllabus which discusses mostly form-based materials. The learning process was divided into 1) presentation phase to introduce the target language, 2) practice phase to practice students' understanding to the language based on receptive skills such as listening and reading, and 3) production phase which was where corrective feedbacks were given in students' oral production. One target language was delivered in two meetings. The number of uptakes and repairs made by the students in the classroom activities was counted from the recordings. After eight meetings, oral test were conducted to measure their development from the pre-test. The results of pretest and posttest were scored by inter raters.

1.8. Definition of Terms

Definition of terms aims at avoiding misunderstanding about the terms in the research. The definitions of terms are:

Learning Style

Learning style is a term used to portray individual differences in the way that people prefer to learn. Learning styles are typical patterns individuals use to

process information or approach learning situations. These learning style preferences are thought to occur naturally. According to learning style theory, when an individual's learning preferences are met, the individual learns more easily and effectively.

Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback, is defined as responses to learner utterances containing an error. *Corrective feedback* is claimed by Schmidt (1994) cited in Ellis (2005, p. 19) as the importance of noticing and noticing the gap in L2 acquisition.

Error

Error generally includes all nonnative-like uses of the language.

Contribution

Contribution means how different is the students' speaking performance before and after the treatment done.

Recast

Recast is defined as reformulation of all or part of a learner's utterance minus the learner's error.

Uptake

Uptake refers to a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspects of the student's initial utterance.

Repair

Repair is defined as any uptakes that results in the “repair” of the error which corrective feedback focuses on.

II. FRAME OF THEORIES

This chapter describes the concepts which are related to the research, such as the review of previous research and the review of related literature, such as the concept of teaching English as a foreign language, the concept of affective filter, concept of errors, the concept of feedback, the concept of corrective feedback, the concept of acquisition, the concept of second language, and the concept of oral corrective feedback. This chapter also describes the procedures of giving oral corrective feedback, theoretical assumption, and hypothesis.

2.1. The Review of Related Literature

2.1.1. Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback, is also defined as ‘non-targetlike use of the target language’ (Gass, 1997) cited in Kim (2004, p. 1), also described as ‘responses to learner’s utterances containing an error’ (Ellis, et.al., 2006, p. 340). Schmidt (1994) in Ellis (2005, p. 19) shows that corrective feedback is important to show the importance of noticing and noticing-the-gap in L2 acquisition. Ellis (2005, p. 19) mentions that the use of corrective feedback is motivated from the claim that L2 learners should be showed not only positive evidence but also negative evidence. It

means, as an addition from the expose of correct examples, students will also need to be showed what errors they have made.

Krashen (1982) mentions the use of corrective feedback is harmful. He adds that learners need comprehensible input to trigger acquisition. Krashen has pointed out that what is needed by L2 students is comprehensible input or positive input. Moreover, Krashen (1982) also mentions the need to lower the affective filter because a strong affective filter may result in the not-optimal learner's acquisition. In acquisition, it is believed that learners will produce language when they are ready to produce the language. Therefore, error correction has little or no effect in subconscious acquisition because the error correction tends to interrupt and higher the affective filter and tends to be assumed as negative input which is harmful for learner's acquisition process. The hypothesis seems to put the students under an unlimited time. They will only produce the language when they are ready. However, there is growing evidence that corrective feedback can influence acquisition (Ellis, 2005, p. 16). Therefore, it may accelerate acquisition.

Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 46-48) discuss the six common types of corrective feedback, namely;

1. *Explicit correction* which refers to the explicit condition of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, the teacher clearly indicates what the student said was incorrect.
2. *Recasts* involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of the student's utterance, minus the error.

3. *Clarification requests* indicate to students either the teacher has misunderstood their utterance or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a reformulation is necessary.
4. *Metalinguistic feedback* contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.
5. *Elicitation* has three different techniques
 - a. Elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to fill in the blank as it were.
 - b. Use questions to elicit the forms.
 - c. Teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterance.
6. *Repetition* refers to the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error.

The table below will show the types of corrective feedback with its example

Table 1 . Types of corrective feedback

Types of corrective feedback	Example
Explicit correction	S: On May. T: Not on May, In May. We say, "It will start in May." (Ellis, 2009, p. 9)
Recasts	S: I went there two times. T: You've been. You've been there twice as a group? (Ellis, 2009, p. 9)

Clarification requests	S: Est-ce que, est-ce que je peux fait une carte sur le... T: Pardon? (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.47)
Metalinguistic feedback	S: yesterday Joe and Bell ah went to to ah Bill's grandmother and visit their grandmother T: and visit, you need past tense S: Visited, yes (Ellis, et. al., 2006, p. 363)
Elicitation	S: Le chien peut court. T: Le chen peut court? Le chien peut ... [pause for elicitation] (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.48)
Repetition	S: Le... le girafe? T: Le giraffe? [repeat and change tone for repetition] (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.48)

2.1.2. Errors

Errors are the flawed side of the learner's speech or writing; and the deviate composition from some selected norm of mature language performance, no matter what the characteristics or what causes the deviation might be (Dulay et.al., 1982, p. 139). Errors are classified as nonnative-like uses of the language (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p. 46). Errors are sometimes distinguished from mistakes, due to the lack of knowledge (competence) (Thornbury, 1999, p.75).

From these two definitions, errors can be interpreted as any false use of the language based on the formulized grammatical rules. The false use can be in the form of lexical form, pronunciation form, meaning, or grammatical form in

spoken or written language. Errors can also be interpreted that learner does not have enough knowledge of the target language. Therefore, he makes errors when he is trying to speak the language. Meanwhile, the slip of tongue because of the demands of performance is called as mistake (Thornbury, 1999, p.75). The differences lie on whether the speaker makes an error because he does not know the language or his lack of attention causes him to make mistake.

2.1.3. Speaking

Bygate (2009, p. 412) mentions that historically, in English teaching methods, speech tends to have role as a medium rather than as a target skill. In opposite, Thornbury (1999 p. 208) states that speaking is generally thought to be the most important of the four skills. The thought comes from the consideration that speaking also reflects the proficiency of the language. These statements show that through time, there are changes in the perspective of how to see speaking in language learning. At the beginning, the grammar-translation method focuses on translating which neglects the skill of speaking the language. Many teachings and tests are done in written language. The use of speaking in class is always considered as a medium rather than a skill. Sometimes, the pattern of English itself, such as how to use present tense and present progressive tense, is considered more important and taught using the native language not using English as the media. In time, speaking is then considered as a skill which needs to be learned and practiced in a language class.

Thornbury (2005, p. 2) states that the production of speech is done in real time and it is essentially linear. Words follow words, and phrases follow phrases.

Likewise, at the level of utterance (that is to say, the spoken equivalent of sentences), speech is produced utterance-by-utterance, in response to the word-by-word and utterance-by-utterance productions of the person we are talking to. Moreover, Thornbury (2005, p. 2) states this contingent nature of speech, whereby each utterance is dependent on a preceding one, accounts for its spontaneity. This is not to say that speech is unplanned, only that the planning time is severely limited. The planning of one utterance may overlap with the production of the previous one.

These statements show that the planning of what to be spoken in a conversation is severely limited. In speaking, rapid response is needed because the person who is involved needs to have response as soon as possible. The overlaps between planning and production makes speaking become a challenge, especially when the spoken words are needed to be done in foreign language.

Brown (2001, p. 251) mentions that spoken language is not only a matter of mastering conversation, but monologue as in speeches, lectures, and the like. Brown (2001, p. 267) also states that unidirectional types of spoken language such as speeches and lectures are often followed or preceded by various forms of oral production on the part of students. These arguments show that speaking does not always mean conversation between interlocutor and prolocutor. Monologue can also be considered as speaking since the time to plan what to say and the time to produce the utterance is overlapping.

Moreover, Bygate (2005) cited in Bygate (2009, p. 415) adds there are at least two main parameters to define the construct of second language speaking namely; the

repertoire, which is explained as the range of features and combinations of features that it manifests, along with their respective probabilities; and the range of conditions which explain the occurrence of these features. The statement from Bygate highlights the need to show how the language can be used to the students of second language. The repertoire can be explained as the pattern of the language. Repertoire can also be described as how the language is constructed. While the range of conditions can be explained as the situation of how the patterned language may show up and be used in a communication. The language should be exposed and the possible pattern of the language should be showed to the learners. Moreover, the situation of how the language can be used in real life condition should also be informed to the students.

These arguments show that it is impossible to make people directly speak in second language in class. Even though when the class is entitled as a Speaking Class, the teacher needs to prepare the students with loads of language components such as vocabularies, the pattern of the sentences and in what occasion do the sentences can be used. They must be exposed to the language and must be prepared of what to be said. Therefore, the patterned speaking can also be considered as speaking if they may do it in real-time condition.

2.1.4. Learning Style

Learning styles and strategies have been variously described and defined. ‘Styles’ is the more general term, being “an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills” (Kinsella, 1995) cited in Wong and Nunan (2011, p. 145). These styles appear to be

relatively stable and will be deployed by individuals regardless of the subject being studied or the skill being mastered. There are numerous ways of characterizing styles. Christison (2003) cited in Wong and Nunan (2011, p. 145) distinguishes between cognitive style (field dependent versus field independent, analytic versus global, reflective versus impulsive); sensory style (visual versus auditory versus tactile versus kinesthetic) and personality styles (tolerance of ambiguity, right brain versus left brain dominance).

In relation to language learning styles, Willing (1994) cited in Wong and Nunan (2011, p. 145) identified four major styles: communicative, analytical, authority-oriented and concrete. These styles were derived from learner strategy preferences, which, in Willing's data, clustered in the following ways.

Communicative: These learners were defined by the following learning strategies: they like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English, watching television in English, using English out of class, learning new words by hearing them, and learning by conversation.

Analytical: These learners like studying grammar, studying English books and newspapers, studying alone, finding their own mistakes, and working on problems set by the teacher.

Authority-oriented: The learners prefer the teacher to explain everything, having their own textbook, writing everything in a notebook, studying grammar, learning by reading, and learning new words by seeing them.

Concrete: These learners tend to like games, pictures, film, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs, and practicing English outside class.

Harmer (1998, p. 79) mentions that based on the learning style, some students are fantastically quick at picking up language just by looking and listening, while, for other students, it may take a little longer. Moreover, in explaining about why writing is taught, he adds that for many learners, the time to think through, to produce language in slower way, is invaluable. It can be concluded from Harmer's statements that the differences in learning style may result in different acceptance of the use of the language some students may directly use the language being learned, while some other students are more reflective and need some time to be able to use the language. Harmer's arguments may show the differences in individuals in learning second language. Students' internal aspects may become teacher's consideration in teaching the language.

2.2. The Review of Previous Research

The following section is used to review the previous studies which relate to the use of corrective feedback and its possible effects on learners. Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (1982, p. 32) demands teachers to provide input and to help students to make it comprehensible under low anxiety situation. This hypothesis has probably given a new view in the field of second language acquisition. In the previous teaching methods used before, errors are corrected directly until the students correct the errors. Krashen (1982) claims that the teaching methods used back then, tend to neglect the factors of affective filter or students' anxiety level and may become obstacles in the process of language acquisition. When the student is stressed or anxious, the affective filter goes up, causing unavailable for acquisition (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p.37). Since then,

students' affective filter and anxiety level had become something to be considered to conduct teaching learning activity in the classroom. Moreover, Krashen (1982) points out that error correction has the immediate effect of putting the students on the defensive. This theory has since made the use of direct correction restricted.

The previous studies of corrective feedback, pioneered by Lyster and Ranta, have classified the types of corrective feedback such as explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p. 46-48), the new improvement of feedback with an additional sound to increase notification ("Ah!" or "Oh!") to make students more aware of the correction (Asari, 2012), and corrective feedback in the form of instructed second language learning (Mackey, 2006, p. 405).

With the number of findings in the research, the roles of corrective feedback are still debatable to the contribution to learners' acquisition of second language. Lyster and Ranta (1997, p.46-48) classify corrective feedback into six different types, namely; *explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition*. In their research in four French immersion classrooms, Lyster and Ranta's (1997, p. 53-54) study mentions that even though recasts appeared to be the most common error correction used by teachers, 55% of the corrective feedback uses recasts, it is found to be ineffective since only 31% of the recasts are followed by the uptake (immediate response to the feedback) by the students while the other 69% goes unnoticed. The study also reveals that recasts lead only on 18% of student-generated-repair, which is the lowest, while four

other feedback types - *clarification requests*, *metalinguistic feedback*, *elicitation*, and *repetition* – lead to better student-generated-repair.

Since then, the studies which compare recasts with other types of corrective feedback have been done which mostly compare between recasts with other type of feedback. In their research in low-intermediate of second language class, Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) apply *recasts* as *implicit feedback* and *metalinguistic explanation* as *explicit feedback* in correcting students' errors in regular past tense. Their research concludes that explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic information is more superior than the implicit feedback in the form of recasts in oral imitation test, grammaticality judgment test, and metalinguistic knowledge test in delayed posttest.

In other research, Mackey (2006) discusses feedback in the form of instructed second language learning which inserts feedback in a game-show quiz activity involving questions, plurals, and past tense forms. Mackey mentions that the purpose of the study is to determine whether the interactional feedback is associated with learners' reports about noticing. The study concludes that there may be association between noticing and learning.

Other study from Sheen (2008) discusses the level of language anxiety related to learners' ability in improving the accuracy when the learners are provided with corrective feedback in the form of recasts. The result shows that the low anxiety group which is treated by recasts as the corrective feedback scores significantly higher than high-anxiety-recast- group and the control group. The finding shows

that language anxiety is a factor that influence not only whether recasts lead to modified output but also whether they promote learning.

In their library study, Goo and Mackey (2013, p.157) mentions that comparing recasts with other types of corrective feedback seems to be standing in shaky foundation for some reasons because recasts are operationalized as single type while the others often used in multiple types. Moreover, they argued that recasts and prompts-like clarification requests, metalingusitic feedback, and elicitation-are not to be compared and may work synergistically to effect positive changes in L2 development (Goo and Mackey, 2013, p. 158). Again, Goo and Mackey (2013, p.159) propose research on the interaction of the effectiveness of corrective feedback to individual differences in cognitive capacity.

The type of recasts such as stated by Mackey and Philp (1998) as cited in Asari (22, p. 3)

NNS : what what they doing?
 NS : what are they doing? (recast)
 NNS : yeah
 NS : they're signing a contract

seems to let the student under confusion because it seems like responding to the student's speech and does not give opportunity for the students to make an uptake and repair the error while the other types of feedback gives more information such as 'Pardon?' (clarification request), 'you need another preposition' (metalinguistic feedback), 'to her?' (repeat and change of tone in repetition). Based on this view, the research might be expanded, not only to compare the types of feedback, but also to explore on how corrective feedback is effective.

From the previous studies, it seems the previous researches have not touched the learners' acceptance on corrective feedback based on their individual differences. Therefore, this study is focusing on whether individual differences is a factor that influence whether corrective feedback lead to modified output but also whether corrective feedback is effective to promote learning. In this study, learners' learning style is the individual factor to be observed from the learners' acceptance on corrective feedback.

Oxford (1990) as cited by Kaminska (2014, p. 5) sees learning style as encompassing four aspects: (1) cognitive style, as defined above; (2) typical attitudes and interests that influence the learner's choice as what to pay attention to in a learning situation; (3) an inclination towards seeking situations compatible with an individual's ways of learning; and (4) consistencies in choosing some learning strategies, as well as avoiding others. Dornyei (2008, p.121) mentions that the concept of learning styles represents a profile of the individual's approach to learning, a blueprint of the habitual or preferred way the individual perceives, interacts with, and responds to the learning environment. Learning style is used in this research because it is determined by personal cognitive and behaviors that affect the learner's perception and response to the learning environment. Therefore, learning style has broader term and involves all aspects.

Therefore, this study is aimed to investigate the effectiveness of corrective feedback on students based on their dominance in using language learning style categories, namely; concrete, communicative, analytical, and authority-oriented Willing (1994) as cited in Wong and Nunan (2011, p.145).

III. RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter describes the design of the research, how to collect the data from the subject of the research and how to analyze the data. This chapter also describes the research setting, the research participants, the research design, the data collecting techniques, the validity and the reliability, the hypothesis of the research, and the data analysis.

3.1. Research Design

In this research, the writer intended to find out the effect of corrective feedback towards students' speaking skill related to their learning style. This research was conducted in Diploma 1 program of Lembaga Bahasa Inggris (LBI) Bandar Lampung. The program has Speaking as a subject in the curriculum. The institution was also chosen since the students had exposure in English for approximately 10 hours a week in different subjects.

The research was conducted in the second semester of 2015/2016 academic year from April 2016 – July 2016. The research was done in 8 meetings which took 8 weeks.

3.2. Subject of The Research

The subjects of the research were taken from all students of LBI in the academic year of 2015/2016 consisting 22 students. The grouping was done based on their dominant choice used by the student based on the questionnaire. The subjects were expected to be classified into four groups which reflected the four styles of learning style based on Willing's classification. The research was conducted based on the observation from the researcher that the students mostly ignored corrective feedback and repeated the same error during their daily performance.

In answering the first research question about the effects of corrective feedback to the students generally, the scores from all students were taken to be analyzed. In answering the second research questions, the learning style questionnaire was used to determine each student's dominant learning style. The learning style questionnaire was taken from Willing's learning style questionnaire which had been adapted to suit Indonesian learners. This questionnaire was used to identify each student's type of learning style. The questionnaire was taken from Yufrizal (2007). This questionnaire contained 40 items. 10 items belonged to Analytic learning style, 10 items were based on Concrete learning style, 10 items covered Communicative learning style, while the other 10 belonged to Authority-oriented learning style. Every learning style was represented by 10 statements.

Analytic learning style was represented by item number 1, 5, 10, 16, 18, 21, 27, 31, 34 and 39. Concrete learning style was represented by item number 2, 6, 12, 13, 20, 23, 26, 30, 35 and 38. Communicative learning style was represented by item number 3, 7, 11, 14, 19, 24, 28, 32, 36 and 40. Meanwhile, Authority-

oriented learning style was represented by item number 4, 8, 9, 15, 17, 22, 25, 29, 33 and 37.

The result of the questionnaire was used to determine the students' dominant learning style. The table below showed the dominant learning style which was occupied by the 22 students tested in the classroom. The complete result of the questionnaire can be seen in the table below.

Table 2. The Population of The Research

No.	Students' Code	Learning Style
1.	AFI	Undecided Concrete-Communicative-Authority-oriented
2.	ATI	Mixed (Concrete-Communicative)
3.	CEL	Communicative
4.	CLA	Mixed (Communicative-Authority-oriented)
5.	DAM	Authority-oriented
6.	DES	Communicative
7.	DEV	Communicative
8.	DEW	Authority-oriented
9.	DIK	Communicative
10.	ELM	Mixed (Communicative-Authority-oriented)
11.	ICH	Concrete
12.	KIN	Mixed (Concrete-Communicative)
13.	LEN	Concrete
14.	MAR	Concrete
15.	MUT	Mixed (Concrete-Communicative)
16.	NOV	Authority-oriented
17.	RIA	Communicative
18.	ROH	Concrete
19.	SAR	Mixed (Concrete Authority-oriented)
20.	SEP	Mixed (Communicative-Authority-oriented)
21.	VER	Communicative
22.	VIN	Concrete

After the data of Learning Style questionnaire was taken, it can be seen that there were not any students belong to Analytic learning style. Meanwhile, 5 students belonged to Concrete learning style, 6 students belonged to Communicative learning style, 3 students belonged to Authority-oriented learning style. Meanwhile, 7 students occupied mixed learning style and 1 student could not be decided to be in any learning style. For further analysis, the students which had mixed learning style could be separated into; 3 students of Communicative and Authority-oriented learning style, 3 students of Concrete and Communicative learning style, while 1 student belonged to Concrete and Authority-oriented learning style. The percentage of the learning style is shown in the table below.

Table 3. Student's Learning Style Category

Learning Style		Number of Students	Percentage
Analytic		0	0%
Concrete		5	22.72%
Communicative		6	27.27%
Authority-oriented		3	
Mixed	Communicative-Authority-oriented	3	13.64%
	Concrete-Communicative	3	13.64%
	Concrete-Authority-oriented	1	4.55%
Undecided		1	4.55%
Total		22	100%

Furthermore, the class could be divided into 5 groups where in each group consisted of 3 students.

To answer the second research question, the next step was dealing with which predominant learning style gives the best response to corrective feedbacks. After the learning style questionnaire was done by the students, the students were then

classified into five groups, namely: (1) Concrete, (2) Communicative, (3) Authority-oriented, (4) Mixed 1 (Communicative Authority-oriented), and (5) Mixed 2 (Concrete Communicative). The Concrete and Communicative group which consisted of respectively 6 and 7 students were only be taken 3 students for each group. The 3 students for these two groups were chosen based on the result of the speaking pre-test.

Furthermore, to classify each member of the group, the students are put based on their result. After the tests were done, 1 student (student's code: AFI) was classified as undecided since his score was dominant in three of four learning style category. While the other one belonged to concrete-authority oriented (student's code: SAR). Because she was the only one who had the type, therefore, she was excluded. Meanwhile, there were not any students belong to Analytic style. The members of each group were presented in the table below.

Table 4. Students' Classification Based on Learning Style

Concrete	Communicative	Authority-oriented	Communicative-Authority-oriented	Concrete-Communicative
ICH	CEL	DAM	CLA	ATI
LEN	DES	DEW	ELM	KIN
MAR	DEV	NOV	SEP	MUT
ROH	RIA			
VIN	VER			
	DIK			

From the result of the pretests, the lower students in the simple present tense test were CEL, CLA, DEW, ELM, MAR, MUT, SAR, and VER. While in the simple past tense test were CEL, CLA, ELM, SAR, VER, and VIN. SAR had been eliminated since she was the only one who belonged to concrete-authority

oriented style. From the Authority-oriented group, Mixed 1 (Communicative-Authority-oriented), Mixed 2 (Communicative-Concrete), all three students from each group were taken, while in the communicative and concrete group, the students taken as the members were the students who had pretest scores more than average. The lower students were the students who got less than 31.0248 for present tense test, and 30.4367 for past tense test. RIA from communicative group was also eliminated since her score from pretest were already good. Therefore, ICH, LEN, and ROH were taken as representative from Concrete group and DES, DEV, and DIK were taken as representative from Communicative since they had scores better than the lower limits.

To answer the third research question, the data of pretest, the corrective feedback session, and the data of posttest were transcribed. The data of the uptakes done by the students in the corrective feedback session were compared to the data of the words or phrases that were used in the pretest and the posttest. The data taken were the same words or phrases which were corrected in the corrective feedback session and then were used in the posttest session to see whether the students developed or not.

3.3. Research Setting

To answer the research questions, a case study research design was used to find the effect of corrective feedback towards students' speaking skill related to their learning style. This research was a quantitative study which used *pretest-posttest design*.

Based on students' responses to a learning style questionnaire, the learners were classified based on their learning style. The set that yielded the highest total was considered as the predominant style of the student. The person could be identified as belonging to the type of learning style group defined by the set of questions (Yufrizal, 2007).

The design of the research could be illustrated as follows.

T11	X1	T21
T12	X1	T22
T13	X1	T23
T14	X1	T24
T15	X1	T25

T11 : Pre-test for concrete group.

T12 : Pre-test for communicative group.

T13 : Pre-test for authority-oriented group.

T14 : Pre-test for Mixed 1 (communicative and authority-oriented) group.

T15 : Pre-test for Mixed 2 (concrete and communicative) group.

X1 : Corrective feedback.

T21 : Post-test for concrete group.

T22 : Post-test for communicative group.

T23 : Post-test for authority-oriented group.

T24 : Post-test for Mixed 1 (communicative and authority-oriented) group.

T25 : Post-test for Mixed 2 (concrete and communicative) group.

3.4. The Data Collecting Technique

Data collecting technique was describing about how the data were collected for this research. In collecting the data, the score was given accurately and consistently based on the same procedure and criteria. In this research, oral test was used for all groups to measure the students' oral achievement. The scoring was done by two inter raters.

Operationalizations

Explicit Correction Treatment Sequences

To identify explicit correction treatment sequences that occurred during the oral tests, the teacher provided the correct form. The teacher clearly indicated that something had contained error(s). The phrases used are “You mean ...”, “Use this word”, “You should say ...” (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p. 46).

- (1) Learner : He take bath
- (2) Researcher: Oh, you mean “takes”/you should say “he takes a bath”
- (3) Learner : He takes a bath

In this model, the researcher explicitly pointed the error made by the learner by repeating the error and supplied the correct form in point (2). The uptake by the student could be seen in point number (3) and it was also considered as repaired.

Recasts Treatment Sequences

Recasts were operationalized as teacher's reformulation of students' utterance. Recasts were done partly or completely. Ellis et. al (2006, p.353) showed the operationalization of recasts which was done partly.

(1) Learner : ... they saw and they follow... follow... follow... him

(2) Researcher : Followed

(3) Learner : Followed him and attacked him

In point (1), learner did not produce the correct *-ed* for the verb, and it was partly corrected by the researcher in point (2), instead of making complete recast such as *they followed him*. Point (3) showed that learner made the uptake and the error was repaired.

Clarification Requests Treatment Sequences

This feedback indicated to student that their utterance had been misunderstood or ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation was required (Spada and Frohlich, 1995) as cited in Lyster and Ranta (1997, p.47). It included phrases such as “Pardon me” or “What do you mean by ...?”

(1) Learner : ... they saw and they follow follow follow him

(2) Researcher : Pardon?

Metalinguistic Feedback Treatment Sequences

This feedback contained either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the students’ utterance without explicitly providing the correct form (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p.47). Treatment was used in the form of metalinguistic feedback which provide information (Ellis et. al., 2006, p.353).

(1) Learner : He kiss her

(2) Researcher: Kiss – you need past tense

(3) Learner : He kissed

In this model, the researcher explicitly pointed the error made by the learner by repeating the error and supplying the metalinguistic information in point number (2).

Elicitation Treatment Sequences

Elicitation was used to elicit completion of the student's utterance by strategically pausing to allow student to "fill the blank" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p. 48).

- (1) Learner : He kiss her
- (2) Researcher: He kiss her? He ...
- (3) Learner : He kissed

Repetition Treatment Sequences

This feedback referred to the teacher's repetition of the student's erroneous utterance. In most cases, teacher adjusted their intonation to highlight the error (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p. 48).

- (4) Learner : He kiss her
- (5) Researcher: **Kiss?**
- (6) Learner : He kissed

Uptake and Repair

Uptake referred to a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constituted a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspects of the student's initial utterance (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p.49). Moreover, they added that there were two types of uptake (a) uptake which resulted in the 'repair' of the error on which the feedback focused, and (b)

uptake that resulted in an utterance that still needs repair. Sheen (2008, p.841) added the other result of uptake which resulted in (c) no modified output with only answer such as 'yes'.

3.5. Report of the Teaching Process

This research was conducted in 8 meetings. The first meeting was used to give pretests to the students. In the application, the pre-tests were done in four sessions, where in each session 7-8 students were tested. These sessions were done in one-week range since the classes were done only once a week. The second meeting was used to give questionnaire of Learning Style to the students and to guide the students about the description of the items in the questionnaire. The third meeting where the target languages were given was done three weeks after the second meeting. This was done to meet the need of the syllabus from the institution.

The treatment was done during the third meeting to the seventh meeting. There were two target languages taught to the students during the treatment phase, which were present tense and past tense. The third and the fourth meetings were used to deliver present tense. The fifth and the sixth meetings were done three weeks after the fourth meetings. These two meetings were used to deliver past tense as the target language. The seventh meeting was used to apply the treatment of corrective feedback in order to convince that each student received the treatment. In this meeting each student was given two series of pictures to practice their understanding of present tense and past tense. The first series of pictures represented the daily activities of someone and the second series of pictures

represented some moments in the past. Again, as what were conducted in the pretests these tests were done in 4 sessions. The post test was done to all students in the last meeting.

3.6. Validity

3.6.1. Validity of Learning Style Questionnaire

The Learning Style questionnaire used in this research was originally developed in Australian context by Willing (1988) cited in Yufrizal (2007, p.93). Willing was able to relate the four language learning styles to cognitive models developed in psychology by Kolb (1976) as cited in Wong and Nunan (2011, p. 152). The questionnaire was adapted to Indonesian EFL learners by Yufrizal (2007, p.94). Therefore, the construct validity in this research is developed by doing expert judgment. The questionnaire is also widely used as in Yufrizal (2007 p. 96) and Wong and Nunan (2011, p. 156). Seeing the result of expert judgment, it was found that all of the items were in line with theories and it can be concluded that this questionnaire can be used to gather the data in this research.

3.6.2. Validity of Speaking Test

To have a valid test, content validity has been done by doing expert judgment. In this research, the speaking test is instructed to match the theories of speaking and the indicators of oral production. The test that was used, was taken from Heaton (1991, p.93). Picture of a scene or an incident can be used for examining the total oral skills (Heaton, 1991. p. 92) So, it can be said that the series of pictures used in this research are valid instruments.

3.7. Reliability

3.7.1. Reliability of Learning Style Questionnaire

Before the Learning Style Questionnaire was used as an instrument, it had been analyzed by using the Cronbach Alpha Formula. The table below shows the reliability of learning style questionnaire after the results were tested by using SPSS.

Table 5. Reliability of Learning Style Questionnaire

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.885	.880	40

After the questionnaire was analyzed, the Alpha coefficient was found to be 0.885, which meant that the questionnaire was reliable and it could be used as an instrument to determine the students' learning style.

3.7.2. Reliability of Speaking Test

To prevent or reduce the subjectivity in judging the students' speaking skill, the inter rater reliability was applied to score the students' speaking skill. The reliability of the scoring was scored in the pretests (present tense and past tense) and the posttests (present tense and past tense). In this research, Azwar (2012, p.88) suggests the use of interrater reliability. It meant that the observation was done by two or more observers. The raters were Mr. Refdi Akmal, M.Pd. and the researcher himself who was a senior teacher in the institution and a lecturer in State Polytechnics of Lampung. The first rater was graduated from Post Graduate Study in English Education Faculty of Indonesia University of Education while

the second rater was taking his master degree in English Education Department of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Lampung University. The judgment was done by listening to the recording of the students' speaking performance. Thus, the final score was the combination of pretests and posttest which included both of the subjects tested namely; present tense and past tense of both raters.

After getting the score from both raters, the statistical reliability was tested by using Pearson correlation. The correlation between the two raters for the pretest was shown in the table below.

Table 6. Interrater Reliability in Pretest

		Rater1	Rater2
Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.865**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	22	22
Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.865**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	22	22

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation between the two raters for the posttest was shown in the table below.

Table 7. Interrater Reliability in Posttest

		Rater1	Rater2
Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.811**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	22	22
Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.811**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	22	22

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

After the scores were accepted, it can be seen that there were not any excessive scores given by the raters. The inter-rater reliability was counted by using SPSS. The correlation between both raters in the pretest was 0.865, while the correlation between both raters in the posttest was 0.811. According to Azwar (2012) limitation of the difference of the analyzed result between raters is within 0.0 – 1.0. It means that there is consistency between raters and the test is reliable. When the test reached the range of 0.80 – 1.00, it meant that the scores from both raters had very high reliability. Therefore the third rater was not needed.

3.7. Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis testing tested was as follows. For the first research question:

H_{01} = there was no significant difference before and after corrective feedbacks were conducted in learners' speaking performance.

H_{A1} = there was a significant difference before and after corrective feedbacks were conducted in learners' speaking performance.

For the second research question, the hypothesis testing was as follows.

H_{02} = there was no significant difference in mean between the groups of students with different learning styles after corrective feedbacks were applied.

H_{A2} = there was a significant difference in mean between the groups of students with different learning styles after corrective feedbacks were applied.

H_0 is rejected if the significant (p) value obtained from the calculation in SPSS program is less than the significant level (0.05). However, H_0 is accepted if the significant (p) value obtained from the SPSS program is greater than the significant level (0.05). The result of the hypothesis testing is presented in the next chapter.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter presents the conclusions based on the results that have been elaborated in the previous chapter. Moreover, the suggestions based on the research are presented briefly. The suggestions are intended to teachers and future researchers.

5.1. Conclusions

This study was done as an attempt to find a relationship between the usage of corrective feedback orally with students' personality which was represented by their learning style. To be concluded, the study found at least two things.

1. First, it proves the role of corrective feedback in influencing the students' L2 acquisition. Corrective feedback, generally, plays a positive role in promoting student's L2 learning. The results reveal that corrective feedback strengthen student's understanding of the language, especially focus-on-form technique.
2. Second, it is found that the reception of corrective feedback was different in each student depending on their learning styles. The results reveal that concrete learners have the most progress or benefited the most from

corrective feedback compared to other types. Otherwise, authority-oriented learners are found to have no benefits from corrective feedback.

3. Third, concrete learners are more attentive and are more aware to interaction. The results reveal that uptakes may lead to students' development in concrete learners. Whereas, authority-oriented learners are weak to corrective feedback since corrective feedback are performed through interaction.

Mackey and Goo (2007) in Lyster and Saito (2010, p. 267) emphasize “the need for greater theoretical specificity or practical motivations in making claims about the superiority of one feedback type over another”. Meanwhile Sheen (2008, p.864) mentions “there is relationship between a psychological internal learner factor and modified output which influences the effect that recast (as one form of interactional feedback) have on L2 learning. This current study contributes to these lines of research which emphasize the effectiveness of corrective feedback related to each learner's psychological condition, which reflected by the differences in learning style. It shows that the reception of corrective feedback to each student is affected by his/her personality, in this case, his/her learning style.

5.2. Suggestions

In line with the result and conclusions of the research, the researcher would like to propose some suggestions for teachers and future researches.

1. For teachers

It is effective to give corrective feedback to the students. Even though, the ones who get the benefit may not only be the ones performing the language. The obstacles in this research were the time limit. The research was done by the writer himself. The students did not get the test at the same time. There were possibilities that the test materials had already been leaked.

2. For future researchers

Corrective feedback used in this research was done personally to the students individually and was not done in front of the class. The problem occurred during the research was when corrective feedback was given to a particular student, the feedback done was quite random, therefore the distribution of the feedback was not in the same number. From all six types of feedback, it was also found that one or two types of feedback were not given to particular students due to less number of errors or the researcher's spontaneity in correcting the errors. It will probably be more meaningful to perform corrective feedback in the classroom during the practice session and the distribution of feedback can be made more accordingly.

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