

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 The Notion of Speaking

In language teaching, we often talk about the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) in terms of their direction. Brown (2001) states that language which is generated by the learners (in either speaking or writing) is considered productive, and language directed at the learners (in reading or listening) is known as receptive language.

Thus, speaking is the productive skill and is very important part of second language learning. The ability to communicate in a second language clearly and efficiently contributes to the success of the students in school and success later in every phase of their life. It is believed that speaking skill is a measurement of knowing a language. The more understand the better fluently they will be.

Several definitions of speaking have been formulated by many experts.

Clark (1977) states that speaking is basically a means of taking an action.

Speakers may influence their listeners by declaring things to alter their state of knowledge. By speaking, they can request their listeners to give

them information. They also can ask them to do something for them.

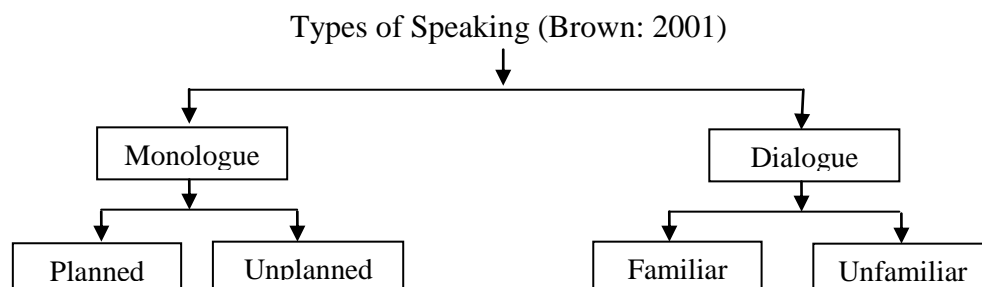
According to Bailey (2005) speaking is a process of interaction where speakers intend to build meaning through producing, receiving and processing information.

Speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts (Chaney, 1998). In line with the statement above, Kartimi (1986) state that speaking is the ability in using oral language to explore idea, intention, thought and feeling to other people as a way to make the hearer can understand the message clearly.

In sum, speaking is a way to convey information, idea, thought or feeling to others. However, people may implement speaking in different ways. Hence, it is necessary to know the types of speaking.

2.1.1 Types of Speaking

People speak to extend their ideas either in discussion or only in the transmission of ideas without any responses. According to Brown (2001) there are two types of speaking. They are will be described by the diagram below:



Types of speaking are used to establish the way of someone in transferring their ideas. The circumstance or situation can influence the outcome of communication, whether the ideas can be presented well or not. Therefore, everyone should have the ability of speaking appropriately by knowing the characteristics of speaking.

2.1.2 Characteristics of Speaking

Harmer (2001) presents some elements in spoken language. First, is connected speech. It means that good speaker can sound not only the individual word correctly but also the sounds of word to each other.

Second is an expressive device. It means that speakers can use pitch, stress of particular parts of utterances in appropriate way to show their feeling. Third is lexis and grammar. It means that speaker should use the appropriate phrases depending on the language function such as a job interview. Last is negotiation language. It means that speaker can create the effective speaking from negotiator language to get clarification and to display the structure of our talking.

The characteristics of speaking are significant in order to make a good communication. It is necessary to convey the message or idea clearly. In other words, it is important to consider speaking aspects in conducting good communication.

2.1.3 Speaking Aspects

People tend to grade a person who has good speaking ability from their pronunciation. Meanwhile, according to Brown (2001:406) there are 6 aspects of speaking proficiency. The aspects are pronunciation, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension, grammar, and task.

2.1.3.1 Pronunciation

In speaking aspect, pronunciation is viewed as the crucial part (Brown,2001). Teaching pronunciation in the class helps students to be able to understand the language they hear and to make they understand.

In speaking skill, students are expected to be able to alter native-like pronunciation, yet the students may have difficulty in producing or understanding it. Therefore, they need to be given feedback on their pronunciation to make them know whether have pronounce the word well or still need correction.

2.1.3.2 Vocabulary

In indonesia, English is foreign language for students. This demands the teacher to introduce the vocabularies that are relevant to students' need. It is because vocabulary serves as the major resource of language use (Cameron,2001).

Students who have low mastery of vocabulary may have difficulty in speaking the word (for example, they use wrong words). The teacher can help them by giving feedback to make students speak in foreign language correctly. By knowing the

words of a foreign language, the students will be easier to communicate with other people using that language.

2.1.3.3 Fluency

The third aspect of oral proficiency is fluency. Nunan (2003 as cited in Kayi, 2006) defines fluency as a state in which person can use the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses. It means that the students also have to be to speak English quickly and confidently.

2.1.3.4 Comprehension

In speaking skill, comprehension is viewed as the students' ability to understand the questions, statements, and conversation (Brown, 2001). Someone is said to have good comprehension, if she/he is able to understand any topic of conversation at normal rate of speech.

2.1.3.5 Grammar

Grammar relates to the structural form of English. In speaking skill, Brown (2001) states that someone who has good grammar is viewed as the person who is able to use the language with sufficient structural accuracy in both formal and informal conversation.

2.1.3.6 Task

In this aspect, someone is said to master the task aspect if she/he is able to participate actively in conversation both in formal and informal situation on practical, social, and professional topic (Brown, 2001). Moreover, the

person is also able to respond to the conversation in unfamiliar situation. In short, the speaking proficiency of her/him is equivalent to native speaker.

Futhermore, Cameron (2001:230) emphasizes that there are three aspects in assessing oral language skills of young learners. The three aspects are vocabulary, discourse, and grammar. Vocabulary includes the ability in understanding meaning, recalling, choosing, and pronouncing the words and chunks accurately and appropriately. Discourse aspect relates to the ability in talking fluency, understanding discourse in sentence level, and producing extended discourse. The last aspect is grammar; it includes the ability in recognizing the complex clause and phrase, using grammar accurately, and producing morphology and syntax accurately.

From those three aspects, this research only focuses on feedback toward three speaking aspects, pronunciation, comprehension, and vocabulary.

In learning speaking, the students' speaking performance can be correct and incorrect. According to Suherdi (2010), in responding to the instruction, students' responses can be categorize as *accept* or relevant response, no response, and irrelevant response. The three categorizations were coded as follows: 1. relevant responses (Rr), 2. no responses (Ro) and 3. irrelevant responses (Irr). This research adopted the three categorizations in analyzing the data.

2.1.4 Speaking Difficulties

A good deal of EFL learners still believe that speaking is the hardest one to be master. Pinter (2006) states that speaking fluently and accurately is the hardest thing to do by the students because they should think and speak at the same time. Moreover, Brown (2001, 270-271) presents several aspects which mentioned the seven items, they are, first, clustering, fluent speech is phrasal, word by word. Learners can arrange their output both cognitively and physically through such clustering. Second, redundancy, the speaker has an opportunity to make meaning clearer through the redundancy of language. Learner can capitalize on this feature of spoken language, third, reduced forms, there are some special problems in teaching spoken language such as construction, elisions, reduced vowels, etc. somehow, teachers need to find out the solve of the problems including teach students about colloquial construction. Fourth, performance variables, one of the advantages if spoken language is the process of thinking as the speaker speaks allow him/her to manifest a certain number of performance hesitations, pauses, backtracking and correlations. Fifth is colloquial language. It is better for teachers to use a colloquial language in teaching and learning process. It allows students to follow and use it in their daily conversation. Sixth, rate of delivery, one of the important characteristics of fluency is rate of delivery. One important task in teaching English is to help students achieve an acceptable speed along with other attributes of fluency. Seventh, stress, rhythm and intonation, this is the most important characteristic of English pronunciation to give the message clearly. Last, interaction, it will create the richest component in conversation.

On the other hand, those difficulties influence the quality of communication, whether the students can cover or minimize the difficulties or not. Thus, teachers should find the best method in teaching speaking to overcome such difficulties by understanding the principles of teaching and learning speaking beforehand.

2.2 Teaching Speaking

Nowadays, the goal of teaching speaking should improve students' communicative skills because students can express themselves and learn how to use a language (Kayi, 2006). According to Nunan (2003), teaching speaking means that teaching students to be able to speak the language. This means that teacher should teach the learners to be able to speak fluently and has good pronunciation. The teacher also has to be able to use the appropriate words and use it confidently. By having good speaking ability, the teacher can teach speaking to the students well.

Teaching speaking to young learners is different teaching speaking to adult learners since they have different needs and characteristics. It demands the teacher to apply the appropriate method in teaching speaking to young learners. One of young learners' characteristics is they repeat exactly what they hear. The phenomenon demands the teacher to be aware in giving clear and correct pronunciation. The result is the students' pronunciation will be better and their awareness of language will improve.

Kayi (2006) states that while teaching oral language, English language teachers should do some guidance such as involving every student in every activity, reducing the teacher talk and giving students more time to speak in the class, diagnosing the problem faced by the students, and providing feedback to the students.

By noticing the guidelines, the teacher can recognize the students' ability and know which students who have difficulty in speaking. Those problems can be reduced by providing the students more opportunities to practice the spoken language and providing feedback toward students' speaking.

In relation to the teacher's feedback, the teachers should consider the appropriate feedback in each circumstance. The teacher should also consider the appropriate feedback to be given for each student in order to avoid the negative effect of feedback toward students.

2.3 The Nature of Feedback

In teaching English, the teachers have to consider many aspects affecting the result of teaching-learning process. The teachers should also be able to choose the right and appropriate method in presenting the material, supporting, and assisting students in the learning process. It is important because those activities can influence the students' understanding and comprehension of the lesson. Harmer (2002) states that the teachers can use various strategies in assisting students, and one of them is by giving feedback. By giving feedback, they can support the students to learn better and improve their skills.

In education field, the source of feedback can be derived from teacher, students or even from themselves. The present study only focuses the research on feedback from teacher. In brief, this research deals with the teacher's feedback toward the students' performance.

There are many definitions and opinions about feedback. Feedback is viewed as the teacher's response both verbal and non-verbal that contains information between the actual level and the goal level to his or her students regarding their performance or ideas. Taylor and Nolen (2008) states that the effective feedback should also close the gap between actual performance and goal performance. The gap can be closed by enabling the learner to acquire a concept of the standard or goal, compare the actual level of performance with the standard, and engage in appropriate action.

The statements show that feedback should contain information about why the teacher gives the feedback. By knowing the information, the students will perceive it positively and it will motivate them to learn better. If the information or the reason is not delivered appropriately, the students will view it negatively and even reject it. For the purpose of the study, feedback are viewed as teacher's information toward the students' ideas or performance in which the students can confirm, restructure, or even reject it.

The statements also show that feedback are important in teaching and learning process. Feedback not only result in increasing students' achievement but

also result in increasing students' motivation, Hunt & Touzel (2009) state that feedback is useful to increase students' achievement and students' motivation. Moreover, feedback are also important in promoting learning (Hunt & Touzel, 2009).

In relation to promoting learning, the feedback given may demand the students to explore a new knowledge and it let them think and accelerate learning. Feedback cause the students to be creative and think critically to let them learn what teacher hopes for his/her students.

2.3.1 The Type of Feedback

There are several types of feedback. Different types of feedback can give different results and its effectiveness depends on it. The types can be classified based on its typology (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996:395-401), its focus (Hattie & Temperley, 2007:89-97), and its timing (Hunt & Touzel, 2009:123).

According to its typology, Tunstall and Gipps (1996:395-401) distinguishes the feedback into two types. Firstly is evaluative feedback which consists of rewarding (A1), approving (B1), punishment (A2), and disapproving (B2). Secondly is descriptive feedback which consists of specifying attainment (C1), constructing achievement (D1), specifying improvement (C2), and constructing the way forward-mutual appraisal (D2).

Table 2.1 Tunstall and Gipps' (1996:4, as cited in Knight, 2003:6) Feedback Typology

| | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Positive Feedback | | Achievement Feedback | |
| (Evaluative Feedback) | | (Descriptive Feedback) | |
| A1 Rewarding | B1 Approving | C1 Specifying Attainment | D1 Constructing Achievement |
| A2 Punishing | B2 Disapproving | C2 Specifying Improvement | D2 Constructing the way Forward |
| (Evaluative Feedback) | | (Descriptive Feedback) | |
| Negative Feedback | | Improvement Feedback | |

The typology is described as below:

1. A1: Rewarding - rewards/reinforcement

This type is the most positive of evaluative feedback. This type of feedback expresses teacher's desire to give reward toward students' effort in work or behavior.

- Symbols: smiley faces, stickers, stars, commendations, badges; 'You'll get a little frog'; 'beautiful work'.
- Treats: being allowed to sit in the big chair; going out to lunch first.
- Recognition of child's performance by a wider audience: being given a clap; work seen by the headteacher.

2. B1: Approving-verbal and non-verbal

B1 was feedback which was of an overall evaluative kind and was positive. B1 linked with the normative in relation to educational and social values; when

teachers judged that children were achieving in work or behaviour beyond that which they might have expected, B1 seemed to be the expression of that judgement. This feedback is the warm expression of teacher approval of the child's work or engagement. B1 quite often led on to rewards (A1) but was often a reward in itself.

a. Non-verbal

- Touch: when Curtis was congratulated on his maths work, Miss X held his arm and touched his face.
- Facial expression: 'If you want to give them positive feedback and praise them you smile a lot ... it's sort of non-verbal, positive strokes, whatever you like to call it.'
- Use of ticks.

b. Verbal

- Personal feelings: 'I'm very pleased with you.'
- Use of endearment: 'Doesn't matter, sweetheart, that's fine.'
- Use of labels: 'Brilliant ideas, the ideas person.'
- Use of comparisons: 'I think in fact this is probably the best one I've seen so far, that's wonderful.'
- Importance of effort: 'You're growing up, aren't you and you're trying very hard.'
- General praise: 'Very good. Well done, well tried. Good girl.'

3. C1: Specifying attainment-specific praise, use of criteria

This is the teacher's feedback which is categorized into descriptive that in identified in a specific way of successful attainment. CI was feedback which the project teachers used to provide information about what they considered to be the basis of competence. They used this feedback in identifying and labelling the successful components of attainment. CI seemed to be strongly linked with the mastery of small steps in learning. CI also seemed to be a part of teachers' clear expectations for work or behaviour since this type of feedback was often given in relation to a 'model' of some kind that the teacher provided and discussed

As with the evaluative types of feedback, in CI the interaction appeared to be mainly unidirectional: from teachers to children. For example:

- Identification of a range of specific criteria for success:

'This is extremely well explained. If Christopher tells this to somebody else who hasn't seen the experiment, then I'm sure they'll know exactly what happened';
 'You used some words that you didn't know about, and some description words, you're doing really well';
 '... you've got four different types of fruit, one in each of the glasses and you've tried to write a word underneath'.

- Providing models as a basis:

'We will ... try to write a sentence together with everybody helping with spelling.'

- Giving practice:

'Good girl, "a" "t", "at". If you put that sound there, you can make lots of small words-if you put a sound in front of the "at".'

4. D1: Construction achievement

Teachers sometimes deliberately adopted the role of equal learners in the classroom. With this type of feedback they drew the child into explaining or demonstrating achievement using the child's own work more extensively than in CI. 'Construct-ing achievement' feedback also seemed to draw on and develop children's own self-assessment to a greater extent. With D1, as with D2, children's 'voice' could be heard more than in any other type of feedback. Children seemed to move (a little) from recipients to active participators and to be seen, through teacher articulation, to be thinking, doing, expressing and making choices. For example:

- Feedback which enables the child to draw comparisons between present achievements and previous work: The teacher said 'A lovely story' and then asked Hannah 'Are there any improvements in this story from the one you wrote before ?' Hannah said, 'More interesting words' and together they identified 'beautiful' and 'luckily'. The teacher then said, 'What else have you done that's very good?' They both agreed a good setting, question marks and (teacher pointed) punctuation.
- Praise linked with future development: 'Well done, they're throwing it up, they're not throwing it very high but they're catching with two hands, once you mastered catching with two hands can you try and do it with one hand,

throw up and catch with one hand-good, well done, perhaps if you practise that Samuel, you'll get a little bit better.'

- Teacher joining in as a 'learner' in an activity.

5. A2: Punishing-negative comment, punishments

A2 is evaluative feedback at its most negative. A2 is feedback which teachers provided to signify complete disapproval. When A2 was used the norms of what was judged to be acceptable had been transgressed. Whatever form A2 took, the purpose seemed to be to stamp out whatever was considered unsatisfactory. This feedback was often related to physical action of some sort, either on the part of the teacher or of the child: the teacher was most likely to move towards the child to take action; the child was commonly moved to another place or sent out of the classroom.

Teachers used symbols of disapproval in a minor way in this sort of feedback; 'sad faces' were sometimes used but this was rare. A2 was accompanied by the most emphatic aspects of non-verbal feedback identified in B2. For example:

- Removal from social contact: 'Go and sit downstairs on your own.'
- Being deprived of something child enjoys: 'You're not going to go out to play until you've done more work than that.'
- Destruction of work: 'There are occasions when I have been known to lampoon a child for a piece of work and then ... publicly rip it up and bin it.'
- Removal of other children as friends: 'David, you're stopping your group from going out because you're talking.'
- Removal of teacher as friend: 'I'm not listening to children who don't listen ...'

6. B2: Disapproving

Teacher feedback B2 is of an overall evaluative kind and is negative. It links with the normative in relation to educational and social values; where the norms are judged to be contravened, B2 is the expression of that judgement. B2 sometimes led on to punishment (A2) for the child but the feedback often stood as a punishment in itself. This is the feedback which teachers give when they consider the child to be at fault; it is provided for behaviour and work, particularly where lack of effort or concentration is considered to be the cause of poor performance. B2 is rarely used about a child's work when the teachers believe that a child has tried.

This type of feedback was often strongly related to the general expression of personal feelings of disapproval by the teachers. B2 feedback appeared to aim to be corrective mainly of children's social skills and attitudes and the more conative aspects of their learning. The corrective approaches took the form of explicit sentiments of disappointment and annoyance on the part of the teachers; these were sometimes linked with disapproving statements, which might have embarrassed, humiliated or frightened the child. For example:

a. Non verbal negative feedback:

- Facial expression: 'They know my look. Eyebrows will be raised or lowered, or I will look aghast at something.'
- Tone of voice: 'I would use a firm tone and my voice would change.'
- Voice volume: 'RIGHT, THAT IS ENOUGH.'

- Voice modulation: 'Children, I've got to use my big voice again.'
- Physical gestures and action: pointing without speaking.
- Use of height: 'I'm towering over them.'
- Crossing through: a line through work.

b. Verbal negative feedback:

1. Expression of teacher negative personal feeling:
 - Expression of anger or disappointment: 'I'm very disappointed in you today.'
 - Expressions of annoyance: 'Oh for goodness' sake, put something sensible.'
 - Use of threats: 'If I say your name again you can work in the corridor.'
2. Expression of disapproval directed at the child personally:
 - Personal humiliation strategies: 'I remind them they are six not three any more.'
 - Negative expression directed at child in personal way: 'Have you left your brain at home?'
 - Accusations: 'You weren't listening then when I told everyone!'
 - Use of labels: 'Michelle who always interrupts'. 'You're a silly boy.'
3. Expression of negative evaluation of work:
 - Teacher judgement that work has no value: 'Put that in the bin and you can choose, and we'll sort this out later.'
 - Teacher judgement based on social values: 'I don't think we want any violence in our game. So I think we'll turn over and forget the bombs.'

7. C2: Specifying improvement-specifying what is wrong

C2 feedback was related by teachers much more to cognitive tasks than to personal attributes. It took the form of teachers pointing out to children what needed improving in their work. C2 also seemed to involve teachers directing children to engage in correcting activities themselves.

Like C1, C2 feedback used models as a basis for correcting work. Targets for improvement were sometimes set by teachers as part of C2 feedback but these usually consisted of practice in getting something right. The use of self-checking procedures appeared to be an important aspect of C2 feedback. Like C1, C2 feedback seemed to be unidirectional: from the teacher to the child. For example:

- Specifying what is wrong: 'Doesn't look like an 8, that's why I read it as 6, you see.'
- Correction: 'Is that "went"? Just try that one again. You've got the right letters, but they're the wrong way round aren't they? "Went". "W" "e" "n".
- Use of dots or crosses to indicate that something is wrong.
- Specifying criteria for success: 'Matthew, I want you to go over all of them and write your equals sign in each one. That's your equals sign there. You've got to write the equals sign there for each one ... That means you are pointing to the answer.'
- Expression of teacher expectation: 'Is that yours?-it's a beautiful drawing of the tank. OK? Got the stick, the froglets and the nets, it's labelled very nicely but you could have started to do some writing about the froglets, couldn't you,-if you hadn't been sitting having a chat for so long.'

- Provision of teacher models: 'Natalie you're trying very hard. Watch. Around and around. Good girl. You can when you practise. I want you to practise little a ... a ... a ... a. I'll draw you some.'
- Importance of self-checking: 'Those words that I've underlined I want you to go and find out how to spell them'; '... check them for "ing" 'cos you've done a few wrong there.'
- Importance of independent learning: 'I'm glad to see that you've started this, I didn't even have to ask you to, well done.'

8. D2: Constructing the way forward-mutual critical appraisal

The feedback was again of a type where the teachers acted as facilitators, making suggestions and questioning as part of discussion, rather than directing. This type of feedback provided children with strategies that they could adopt to develop their own work and encouraged children to assess their own work. For example:

- Articulating relevance of future development: whole class participation in discussion of improvements on the basis of recognition of achievement by individuals; working with the whole class and individuals to create the basis for understanding, e.g. in shared writing.
- Diagnosing with the child
- Specifying criteria and articulating standards as they emerged in children's work
- Involving children in evaluating standards
- Prompting and supporting children in examining their work.

- Comparison with previous performance
- Role reversal
- Discussion of strategies that help in developing work

In this typology, the type of A feedback is direct into classroom/individual management, the type of B feedback is direct into performance orientation, the type of C feedback is direct into mastery orientation, and the type of D feedback is directed into learning orientation. Tunstall & Gipps (1996:393) also suggest that feedback can change based on style, purpose, meaning and processes as it moves from evaluation to description. Therefore, it is better to deliver feedback more on descriptive form rather than evaluative form.

Meanwhile, based on its focus, Hattie and Temperley (2007:88) also observe that the effective feedback must contain three aspects. First, the effective feedback has to have a goal. The teacher should know what his /her goal in giving a feedback. Second, it has to show a progress that made toward the goal. By showing a progress, it's easy for teacher to know whether he/she is on the right track or not. Third, it arranges activities that lead to better progress. This way can make the teacher know whether his/her feedback effective or not.

Based on that statement, Hattie and Temperley (2007:89-97) propose that there are four major levels of feedback and the level in which feedback is directed influences its effectiveness. The four major levels are feedback about task (FT), feedback about process (FP), feedback about self regulation (FR), and feedback about "self" (FS).

There are similarities of the types of Tunstall & Gipps' feedback (1996:395-401) and Hattie and Temperley feedback (2007:89-97). FS (feedback at self) in Hattie and Temperley is same with A type of feedback in Tunstall & Gipps feedback. FP (feedback at process) is same with B type of feedback in Tunstall & Gipps feedback. FT (feedback at task/product) is same with C feedback in Tunstall & Gipps feedback. FR (feedback at self-regulation) is same with D type of feedback in Tunstall & Gipps feedback.

Hunt and Touzel (2009) also state that based on its timing, the feedback can be immediate or delayed feedback. Immediate feedback can be defined as the feedback which happens on the spot during the lesson. Immediate feedback is better since the longer the delay, the longer it may take to give feedback to the behavior identify that needs improvement. However, sometimes it is important to give delay feedback. It works best when students are involve in the complex, higher-level thinking. It lets students to think about the task and give them internal feedback concerning the correctness of their responses.

Hunt and Touzel (2009) also claim that difficult items are more possible to involve longer time in processing the task and delayed feedback is better way to be given for this situation. Meanwhile, easy items do not require this processing and the delay is unnecessary.

Moreover, Gipps et al. (2000, as cited in Vercauteren, 2005:160) state that the

choice of feedback strategies depends on teacher belief on how young learners learn. By realizing the students' characteristics, different forms of feedback, and applying the correct form given in the learning context, the teachers can improve students' performance. Therefore, feedback can be effective and the goal of feedback can be achieved.

This research investigated the feedback based on its typology which is proposed by Tunstall and Gipps (1996:395-401). The typology is useful to measure the quality of teacher's feedback.

2.3.2 Characters of Good Feedback

Feedback should be delivered properly so it can be effective and is not viewed negatively. It should focus on the types of feedback and the timing of giving feedback. It cannot be denied that sometimes teachers are confused about how and when they have to give feedback to the students. Therefore, there are guidelines in using the feedback:

A. The Way in Giving Feedback

- In the term of giving feedback, feedback should not be used to show the students' weaknesses or do not promote a negative self concept.
- The feedback should also be delivered consistently Therefore, the students will receive consistent feedback concerning how well they are performing (Hunt & Touzel, 2009:123).
- The feedback should be about the qualities of students' work and should avoid comparison with other students (Black & Wiliam, 1998, as cited

in Vercauteren, 2005:12)

- In giving praise feedback, the teacher should adjust it with students' characteristics. (Alderman, 2004, as cited in Hunt & Touzel, 2009:26)

Sometimes, it is important to give feedback in the form of questions. The Suffolk County Council (2001, as cited in Knight, 2005:13) argues questions can be a vital feedback tool. When the teacher asks questions to the students instead of confirming whether students' speaking is correct or not, the students are encouraged to develop their internal thinking. The questions are also used to test students' understanding.

B. The Time in Giving Feedback

- The way in giving feedback should be immediate and positive in order to build the self confidence of slow learner in the learning task.
- Immediate feedback work best when a student is working with factual information or learning a specific task.
- Delay feedback is beneficial for students who are involved in the complex, higher-level thinking. It lets students to think about the task and give them internal feedback concerning the correctness of their responses (Hunt & Touzel, 2009:123).
- Effective feedback increases students' learning by providing immediate, corrective, and specific information. It also gives positive effect to the students' achievement (Murphy et al. 1986, as cited in Hunt & Touzel, 2009).

By noticing into guidelines, it is expected that the teacher can give feedback

effectively so that it can motivate students to learn better. The most important thing to note is that the teacher should know what the effective feedback is.

2.3.3 The Effect of Feedback

In classroom interaction, teachers do not always give feedback that indicates positive; sometimes they also give feedback that indicates negative. Both positive and negative feedback can have beneficial effects on learning. Since, the students have different characteristics, the teacher is demanded to give the appropriate feedback to the students in appropriate circumstances. Therefore, the effect of positive and negative feedback may vary depends on the students itself and on the level at which the feedback is aimed and processed.

Related to feedback proposed by Hattie and Temperley (2007), figure out that both positive and negative feedback can also be related to self-efficacy in feedback at self regulation level. The concept of feedback at self regulation level is the same with descriptive feedback proposed by Tunstall and Gipps' feedback typology (1996:395-401). For highly self-efficacious students, feedback about initial success may indicate a talent or potential ability which leads to better coping in facing negative feedback. They relate the feedback to positive verifications of themselves as learners. Then, when the students get negative feedback, they make more optimistic predictions about their performance after initial failure than after initial success, and they seek specifically negative feedback to exceed at the tasks.

Meanwhile, for the low self-efficacious students, positive feedback about their success may show that they have weaknesses that need to be remedied, which can lead to a variety of reactions. They may learn better to remedy these “weaknesses” to reach the expected level of performance or may avoid tasks and feedback following initial success because they are afraid to get negative feedback on the next task. Therefore, negative feedback can have negative effect for low self-efficacious students. They tend to react to negative feedback by showing negative influence such as, feeling demotivated on a particular task and relating the feedback they got is caused by their effort is less than others.

2.4 Teacher’s Feedback in Teaching Speaking

In teaching speaking, the teacher’s feedback is required by the students to make them know about their speaking ability and to motivate them to learn better. There are several researchers who conducted a research related to feedback in teaching speaking. Kayi (2006) states that teacher is not recommended to correct students’ pronunciation while they are speaking. While they are speaking, it is better for the teacher to observe and note some important information about students’ performance. After students finish their speaking, teacher can give feedback immediately.

In addition, Saito and Lyster (2010) had conducted a study on the effect of corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation. Based on his study, it is important that teacher can immediately give feedback about students’ performance so the students can know and practice the correct form in response to their

teachers' model. They also emphasize that after students finish speaking, teacher should immediately give feedback. They found that there was a significant result and a beneficial effect on students' pronunciation development after the students receive corrective feedback.

In relation to the feedback in teaching speaking to young learners, the teacher is not necessary to respond to all errors in correcting students' speaking. Instead of correcting, it's better for the teacher to handle the error by modeling and providing the students with correct grammar and pronunciation (Bailey, 2005 as cited in Pinter, 2006:60, Cameron, 2001).

Moreover, Cameron (2001:212) adds that it is better for teacher to deliver feedback in foreign language. It helps young learners learn the phrases that they can use with their friends.

In short, the teachers need to give young learners constant and supportive feedback on their learning. The feedback helps young learners to understand how to control their own learning and progress.