CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDING AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the data obtained from students speaking performance in individual presentation and also the data of teachers’ feedback session will be presented and described as the research findings. The kind of self repairs and also the percentage of their occurrence among students will be shown in this chapter. Next, the data teachers’ feedback regarding of students’ speaking performance will also be delivered.

A. Research Findings

This sub chapter contains the data as the finding of these following research questions: 1) Percentage of students’ self repair among individual presentation in Spoken English class of UIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya, and 2) The kind of corrective feedbacks provided by the lecturer regarding of students’ individual presentation performance in Spoken English class of UIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya.

Among all four available classes of spoken English Course in English Teacher Education Department of UIN Sunan Ampel, only 29 students which are all females of one class are chosen for this study because in that class, the students are trained to be prepared for extensive speaking activity, as they do individual presentation as their final assessment. The data was taken in the moment of students’ final term as the result of Spoken English lecturer’s recommendation, as in that moment the students are in their peak condition to do their best in presentation since they have learned and practiced speaking, especially in the form of extensive speaking. Also, the lecturer of the class recommended Final Term presentation as the best timing to take the data since the speaking time for each students is fixed (max 6 minutes per student, though in the field there are some cases in which the students took more than 6 minutes for their presentation). Another reason is because in this time they have free topic to be delivered in their presentation,
so the students are expected to have superior knowledge about their material. Along the meetings, there are five oral feedback sessions given by the lecturer in class. The data was taken in 12th of June 2017, divided into two meeting sessions (morning and afternoon) contains of students’ final term presentation. Half of the students present their presentation in the morning session, while another half present theirs in afternoon session.

The data for students’ self-repair is taken from the documentation of their presentation (audio), while the data of teacher’s feedback is described based on video record in the class.

1. The Kind of Self-repairs in Students’ Speaking Performance

The Spoken English class students did presentation in which consumes a total of 2 hours 19 minutes for all 29 students. The mean value of each student’s presentation time is 4.79 minutes for each student, ranging from 2 minutes 18 seconds until 8 minutes and 18 seconds.

The occurrence of well-formed self-repairs among the students presentation is categorized into three kinds based on Levelt’s Theory: Different Information Repair (D-repair), Appropriateness Repair (A-repair) and Error Repair (E-repair). Among 29 students with total presentation time at 2 hours 19 minutes, all of the students did at least one self-repair. D-repairs occurred in 13 of 29 students’ presentations (44,8%), A-repairs were done by 21 students’ in their presentations (72,4%), while E-repairs occur in 28 of 29 presentations (96,5%). The smallest occurrence of self-repair is only 1 self-repair did by three students (student 1, 18, and 25), while the most self-repair occurrence is 14 repairs (did by student 11).

The mean value of the self-repair occurrence is 4.65 According to the data, almost every student did E-repair in their speech.

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75 Williem J.M. Levelt, “Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech”
Netherland: Elsevier Sequoia, 41-104, 1983 (page 51-55)
The second place is held by A-repair, then the fewest self-repair done by the students is D-repair.

Based on the total frequency of all self-repairs in students’ speech, the total N value for the data is 135. Among these self-repair utterances, D-repair occurred 17 times (12.6%), A-repair occurred 30 times (22.2%), and E-repair occurred the most, 88 times (65.2%). E-repair still hold the position of the most occurred self-repairs by utterance, followed by A-repair and D-repair.

The percentage of each self-repairs counted from the utterances can be shortly described in the following figure:

![Self-Repair Frequency](image)

*Figure 4.1 Self-repairs Frequency in student’s speaking performance*

The total occurrence of self-repairs varies among the students’ speaking files, starting from 0 self-repairs until 14 self-repairs per student. The mean of the self repair occurrence in total is 4.65 self-repairs per student. The mean value for self-repairs occurrence is 0.59 cases per student for D-repairs, 1.03 per student for A-repairs, and 3.03 for E-repairs. Detailed information about the occurrence of self-repairs in students’ presentation can be seen in *appendix 5* and *appendix 6*.

This section below is focused on the detailed information about each kind of self-repairs, with the
words/phrases in underlined format indicating the trigger and the words/phrase typed in bold format indicating the repair:

a. Different Information Repairs

In this study, the occurrences of D-repairs are the least common compared with other kind of self-repairs. Only 13 of 29 students did D-repairs (44,8%). The highest occurrence of D-repair in one student is 4 times (did by only one student, student 29), while the lowest number is 0, as stated that there are 13 students who didn’t do any D-repair. Also, among the total frequency of 135 self-repairs, D-repairs only appear 17 times (12,6%).

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Table 4.1 D-repair Occurrence in Each Student
The table above shows the occurrence of E-repairs among each presentation. Many students didn’t do any form of D-repair. And mostly, the students who did D-repair only did it once in their presentation (with the exception of student number 04 and 29).

The following phrases below are the example among D-repairs that occurred by the Spoken English Class students in their individual presentation:

**Example 1 (sample 05):**

“*Relationship is important because relationship can closer—relationship can be network for your success...*”

In this case, the speaker changes their message into different one. After the speaker says an utterance about relationship, the flow of speech stopped momentarily, followed by repair in the form of different information. As the result, the speech revised and continued with the different message.

**Example 2 (sample 10):**

“But the verb tell used for... a-aaa... usu—is usually followed by me, us, her, or else.”

The speaker made a mistake by forgetting to include negation to her previous utterance, leaving her speech completely off target from what she wanted to convey. Yet, she realized it and in the end she managed to convey the right message. Since the modification of the message has different meaning than her repaired previous one, this case of repair is included as D-repair.

**Example 3 (sample 17):**

“For the child, they have plan—play sand—aaa... they can play—play sand in the beach.”
The utterance above shows a big difference between the previous message and its correction. The speaker was indeed staggering a lot in her presentation, and in this example she changed her previous message about the children ‘having a plan to play sand’ into switching the use of word ‘have’ into ‘can’, showing the difference in the message encoded.

b. Appropriateness Repairs

The occurrences of A-repairs are rather common than D-repairs. 21 of 29 students did A-repairs (72.4%), the number is quite high. The highest occurrence of A-repair in one presentation is 4 times (did by student 29), while the lowest number is also 0, though there only 8 among 29 students who didn’t do A-repair. Though more than 2/3 students did A-repair, the percentage of A-repairs counted based on overall

Frequency of self-repairs is still rather low. Among the total frequency of 135 self-repairs, A-repairs appear 30 times (22.2%).

The following table below shows the occurrence of A-repairs among every student in each of their presentation session:

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**Table 4.2 A-repair Occurrence in Each Student**

The most cases of A-repairs happened in student number 27’s speech. Similar with D-repair, most students did A-repair only once in this presentation, though in here there are more varieties of the numbers.

The following utterances below are some notable examples in the data on A-repair occurrences:

**Example 1 (sample 08):**

“When you’re laughing your—inside your body produces an endorphin hormone.”

Commonest case of A-repairs in this study is when the speaker says additional word in order to create less ambiguous message. In this case, the speaker modified the message in order to erase the ambiguity in the word ‘your (body)’. Word ‘inside’ is used since it is referred that the hormone works inside the body.

**Example 2 (sample 15):**

“The first is watch T—English TV or movies and listen to English music on radio.”

This clear example of A-repair shows that the speaker gave modification to the word ‘TV’ before she finished the word. After the short pause, the speaker modified the noun with adding word ‘English’ before it to
make it clear about which TV channel the audience should watch in order to improve their English.

**Example 3 (sample 20):**

"You can try to play a game—small game—small game..."

In this utterance, the speaker clearly tried to modify her speech in order to give clearer information about the game. She stumbled in the middle of repairing process though, misspelled the word ‘game’ at the first attempt on self-repairing her speech. However, quickly after that she was able to correct her misspelled word, making her correction valid.

c. **Error Repairs**

E-repairs happened the most in term of occurrence in presentation and in term of total frequency. Almost every student in the class did E-repair. Among 29 students there was only 1 student who didn’t do any E-repair in her presentation. It means that 96,55% of the students did E-repair. The occurrence frequency in each student also shows quite big number. While the lowest number is 0, it is only one student who did no E-repair. Meanwhile, the most occurrence of E-repair within single presentation is 10 (was done by student 11). In term of frequency, E-repairs happened 88 times, dominating the self-repair frequency on 65,2%.

Among E-repairs there are three categories: lexical repair, grammatical repair, and phonological repair. Lexical repair happened 8 times, grammatical repair happened 21 times and phonological repair happened at most on 59 times.

The table below will show more detailed report of E-repairs’ occurrence within each student:
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| Frequency | 8 | 8 |

**Table 4.3 E-repair Occurrence in Each Student.**

Below are attached some notable examples of E-repairs spotted in students’ speech (examples phonological E-repairs will be accompanied with phonetic symbols in order to make the explanation clearer):

**Example 1 (sample 02):**

“...between instructor and the (/ðə/)—the(/ðiː/) other students.”

This is one example on E-repairs in phonological level. The speaker misspelled word ‘the’, using the spelling for consonant noun while in her sentence, the word following ‘the’ began with vowel. Hence, the speaker changed the way of her spelling from /ðə/ into /ðiː/. This
exact case of E-repairs happened a few times in different students’ case.

**Example 2 (sample 20):**

“And the last is drawing something on the piper (/piːpər/)—aaa, paper (/ˈpeɪpər/).”

Similar with previous example, this one is E-repair on phonological level. The speaker misspelled the word ‘paper’. The pause happened when the monitoring process occur was also followed by filler. In the end, the speaker was successful in correcting the pronunciation of her utterance.

**Example 3 (sample 19):**

“When she was said—aaa... she was saying—she said that “Yesterday I go to school”.

This one is the example of E-repair in grammatical level. The right form of the sentence was supposed to be in simple past tense in active form, according to the context of the speaker’s speech. However, she accidentally used passive form in this sentence, resulting on the difference about the meaning of her utterance. Hence, after a short pause she changed the grammatical formula in active form, as shown in the example.

**Example 4 (sample 14):**

“Many benefit for... many benefit of water—mineral water for our body....”

In the example above, the speaker made E-repair in lexical level. The speaker misused the preposition by using word ‘for’. In this case, after a long pause the speaker changed the preposition into a correct one: ‘of’.
2. Teacher’s Corrective Feedback regarding of Students’ Individual Presentation in Spoken English Class

In the class, the lecturer did total of five feedback sessions in interval between students’ presentations. The feedback was done orally. The voice records shows that the total time for these feedback sessions are 13.14 minutes, with each short feedback session took times approximately two minutes. The interaction type of the feedback is T → Ss. The teacher took notes on points that should be delivered on feedback session while observing students’ presentation. The teacher didn’t do any interruption in students’ speaking, the feedback sessions are separated from presentation sessions.

Among kinds of oral feedbacks done by the lecturer in the meetings, this study limits the observation into finding types of corrective feedbacks. Regarding of the availability of corrective feedback within all five feedback sessions, there are only three sessions containing occurrences of corrective feedback. The lecturers gave corrective feedback by: (1) directly reminding the students about the errors and corrected it by herself, or (2) asking the students to remember their previous mistakes and asked them to correct the mistake together.

Lyster and Ranta show that there are six types of corrective feedback: explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. However, among these types there are only two types of corrective feedbacks occur in the feedback sessions. There are explicit correction and elicitation. Among five lecturer’s feedback sessions, only feedback 1, 3, and 4 contain corrective feedback. Feedback 2 and 5 didn’t show any occurrence of corrective feedback (although the content of the feedbacks can be included in other oral feedback kinds instead of corrective feedback).

Total occurrences of corrective feedbacks among the sessions are 13 occurrences. In first feedback sessions there are
two cases of explicit correction. In third feedback session, there are two explicit corrections and three elicitations. Last, in the fourth feedback there are five explicit corrections and one elicitation. The following bar shows the occurrence rate of explicit corrections and elicitations in each session:

**Occurrences of Explicit Correction and Elicitation**

![Bar chart showing occurrence of explicit correction and elicitation](image)

**Figure 4.2 Occurrence of explicit corrections and elicitations in lecturer’s oral feedback**

Among two types of corrective feedback available in the class explicit correction dominate the feedback in 69%, while the rest corrective feedback is delivered in elicitation.

**Types of Corrective Feedback...**

![Pie chart showing types of corrective feedback](image)

**Figure 4.3 Types of Corrective Feedback Occurrence Rate**
This section below will show the findings regarding two kinds of corrective feedbacks available in lecturer’s feedback.

a. Explicit correction

Explicit correction is a form of corrective feedback in which the lecturer gives correction to the students in explicit way, with mention of students’ errors. Based on the data, there are 9 cases involving explicit correction within feedback session in this class. The indication of explicit correction is when the teacher clearly states that students’ utterance is incorrect.

The following examples below are explicit correction that identified from the research data:

Example 1 (feedback 1):

T: “Typical, not tipical.”

In this example, the lecturer gave correction to mispronunciation from previous presentation in the middle of her feedback, and restated about how the student previously spelled the word ‘typical’, giving clear indication about the incorrectness of the word phonologically.

Example 2 (feedback 3):

T: Could you mention the error pronunciation of your friends?

Ss: Yes

T: For example some of them?

Ss: Effect

T: Effect (Mispronounced word), yes it should be effect.
In here, the teacher first asked the students to remember about pronunciation mistakes in previous presentations. When the students answered by one example, the lecturer restate the error part first and then give correction to the mispronounced word.

**Example 3 (feedback 4):**

*T: And then?*

*Ss: Andvironment (Misprounounced as and-vironment)*

*T: Andvironment, it should be environment.*

Similar with example 2, in here the lecturer asked the students to name example of errors from previous presentations. When the students mentioned one, the lecturer immediately restate the word and correct its pronunciation.

**b. Elicitation**

Elicitation happened in fewer times than explicit correction in this study. There are only 4 cases of elicitation within teacher’s oral feedback. All of the elicitation data from this study shows that the lecturer’s elicitations come in a form of using question in order to elicit correct information from the students.

Below are the examples of elicitation that happens within the feedback sessions:

**Example 1 (feedback 3):**

*T: And then what else?*

*Ss: Prophet~! (the ‘phet’ is pronounced like ‘vet’)*

*T: It should be?*

*Ss: Prophet.*
In here, the lecturer didn’t give direct correction. Instead, she let the students to correct the shown message together. The lecturer use question as a way to elicit students’ right answer.

**Example 2 (feedback 4):**

T: Okay good. Okay One of your friend say ‘are you like shopping’ it should be?

Ss: Do you like.

In this example, the lecturer stated the erroneous utterance, and asked the students to give correction by themselves. The students were successfully correcting the grammatical error.

**B. Discussion**

This section serves as the bridge to lead the reader of this research into the researcher’s interpretation of the findings by correlating the data into theories. The very purpose of this section is to let the reader into same interpretation of the findings with the researcher. In the text below, the way to categorize the kind of self-repairs and also the feedbacks will be explained thoroughly with supports from the correlating theories via the discussion based on the findings of this research.

**1. Kind of Self-repairs in Students’ Speaking Performance**

This research has main objective to categorize the kind of students’ self-repairs from their presentation and to find the percentage of each kind of self-repair. Self-repairs in the data were categorized into three categories, following Levelt theories that are being used in many studies, including Kormos, Sato, and Geordiadou’s studies. The kinds of self-repairs defined in this research are: Different Information Repair, Appropriateness Repair, and Error Repair.
This study counts the percentage of based on two perspectives. The first is the percentage based on the availability of certain kind of self-repair, showed that almost all students did E-repairs (96.6%), followed by A-repairs (72.4%) and D-repairs (44.8%). The percentage based on Frequency also shows rather similar rank, 65.2% for E-repairs, 22.2% for A-repairs, and 12.6% for D-repairs.

When the percentage based on rank data from this study compared with Sato’s result, these two studies show similar result. Sato’s study shows from the total 111 case of self-repair, there are 78% E-repairs, 14% A-repairs, and 8% D-repairs. The similarity of the occurrence rank may happen because the subjects of both studies are EFL learners, and also in only slightly different education level (in this study, 1st year of university while in Sato, the subject are Japanese high school students at the age of 16-17 years.). However, Geordiadou’s study shows totally different result since the highest case of repair in his study was D-repair (198), followed by E-repair (145) and A-repair (75).

a. Different Information Repair

There are two reasons on why people doing D-repair in their speech: the first is when the speaker realizes that parts of their messages need to be said in different way, and the second is when the speaker realizes that their message is incorrect or

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76 Rintaro Sato, “Self-initiated Self-repair Attempts by Japanese High School Learners while Sepaking English” (page 21)

inappropriate. D-repairs occurred only few times in this study. However, from the small amount of data, there are some notable examples that need to be showed:

**Example 1 (sample 05):**

“Relationship is important because relationship can closer—relationship can be network for your success...”

**Example 2 (sample 10):**

“But the verb tell used for.. a-aaa... usu—is usually followed by me, us, her, or else.”

**Example 3 (sample 17):**

“For the child, they have plan—play sand—aaa... they can play—play sand in the beach.”

**Example 4 (sample 29):**

“You have to umm learn about that and you choose... no... try to understand what the vocabulary and phrases that you don’t know.”

**Example 5 (sample 03)**

And we, we should—we usually feel many thing

From these examples, it can be shown that example 2-5 contains editing term in the editing phase. However, example 1 still shows indication of self-repair because there is repetition on previous utterance after interruption. In fact, only 4 among 17 self-repairs occur with no editing term available in the editing

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phase. Levelt stated that among the process of self-repairs, there editing phase can be available in a form of short or long pause, or filled with sounds (aa, eee, umm), or with words.\footnote{Williem J.M. Levelt, “Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech” (page 44-45)}

Among the utterances, most of the repair D-repair cases comes in the form of full sentence with subject reattached like example 1, 3, and 5 (9 cases), while the other D-repair recreate a sentence without attaching any subject.

b. Appropriateness Repair

As Kormos stated in his taxonomy, A-repairs are the case when the speaker modifies the message in order to make more specific, more detailed, or less ambiguous information through the new message.\footnote{Judit Kormos as quoted in Effrosyni S. Geordiadou, “The Role of Proficiency, Speaking Habits and Error-tolerance in the Self-repair Behaviour of Emirati EFL Learners”, UAE: Asian EFL Journal Research Articles. Vol. 18 No. 4 December 2016. (page 126)} Levelt stated that there are three aspects of appropriateness that the speakers monitor while doing A-repairs: The ambiguity of the context within message, the appropriateness of the terminology level used in the message, and the coherence between the current message and previously used terms in the previous messages.\footnote{Williem J.M. Levelt, “Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech” (page 52)}

More than half students did A-repairs (21 of 29 students). Even though many students did A-repair, the occurrence is still rather low in 22.22%.
Below are some notable examples of A-repairs:

**Example 1 (sample 08):**

“When you’re laughing **your—inside your body** produces an endorphin hormone.”

**Example 2 (sample 15):**

“The first is watch **T—English TV** or movies and listen to English music on radio.”

**Example 3 (sample 19):**

“Listen to the same story again and **tell—and try to tell** in the different time, with the other or by yourself.”

**Example 4 (sample 20):**

“You can try to play a **game—small glame—small game**...”

**Example 5 (sample 28):**

“**Music affects the bod—music affects the brain** in many positive way.”

Most of A-repairs happened in the data focused on modifying noun of the sentence. Example 1 and 2 shows the repair of noun which the monitoring process happened while the triggers have not finished to be spoken, while example 3 shows a form of A-repair after the trigger word has been completed. A-repair did in modifying the sentence with addition of word/phrase dominate the data of this study. There are 70% cases of A-repairs which the repair comes in a form of word/phrase addition of the previous utterance (the trigger). The data shows that 6 of 30 A-repairs (20%) are case of changing one word / phrase into more appropriate one like showed in example 5 and 6 above.
Leveld stated that Appropriateness repair doesn’t mean to be done in order to correct a mistake. Instead, the repair is made for further specification of the utterance. So, whenever students redo their previous utterance to make their message more specific, it is counted as A-repair. The example 5 especially shows this pattern since the speaker specified word ‘body’ into ‘brain’. the other examples shows that the modification of the utterance is done in order to make the phrases become more specific. For example ‘TV’ becomes ‘English TV’, ‘game’ become ‘small game’, and so on. Kormos also stated that A-repair may occur after the speaker encodes inaccurate or ambiguous information that needs to be more specific, incoherent terminology, or utterances that are pragmatically inappropriate. Example 6 indicates this, by changing term ‘director’ into ‘narrator’ in order to give more appropriate term based on context. Through these triggers, when the speaker do self-repair in the form of modifying the previous information into less ambiguous one it is called as A-repair.

c. Error Repair

In this study, E-repairs have the most occurrence rate among students. Kormos stated that that highly proficient speaker make less error that lower proficiency speaker, resulting in the lower amount of E-repairs. it can be inferred that the

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82 Williem J.M. Leveld, “Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech” (page 71)

83 Williem J.M. Leveld, “Monitoring and Self-repair in Speech” (page 125)

students of Spoken English Class have relatively low proficiency. However, it can also become indication of the high awareness on doing monitoring process in erroneous utterance. Things regarding of this matter will be confirmed in the discussion of RQ2, using the data from lecturer’s feedback to make justified assumption.

Kormos’ self-repairs identification table in Geordiadou’s study shows that there are three subcategories of Error repairs: in the grammatical, lexical, or phonological. In this study, as explained in the findings, all subcategories of E-repairs have occurred among the Spoken English class members. Some examples below show some notable E-repairs that have been done by the students:

**Example 1 (sample 02):**

“...between instructor and the (/ðə/)—the (/ði:/) other students.”

**Example 2 (sample 20):**

“And the last is drawing something on the piper (/piːpə/)—aaa, paper (/ˈpeɪpə/)”

**Example 3 (sample 2)**

“Outline learning is system of a learning and teaching that use a computer and internet access to—internet to access the websites of online learning.”

**Example 4 (sample 19):**

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“When she was said—aaa... she was saying—she said that “Yesterday I go to school”.

Example 5 (sample 02):

“Nowadays, there are so many variety of courses like scientist—eh, science, or social, or art...”

Example 6 (sample 13):

“I think you can—I think you should manage that because it is very dangerous for your life.”

Most of E-repairs occurred in a form of phonological correction, 59 times among the total frequency. The cases of example 1 and 2 clearly show that the students made phonological mistake in pronouncing some words. The data of phonological repair also shows that students made repairs in various words: long word, short word, in vowel, consonant, verb, noun, article, etc. However, there is a notable data regarding the repair of weak and strong ‘the’ sound. Phonological repairs alternating within these two words like example 1 happened 7 times.

Grammatical error in this study happened in the form of repairing scrambled word order as in example 3, correction of verb form, and also correction of conjunction and determiner, and another word classes.

2. Teacher’s Corrective Feedback regarding of Students’ Individual Presentation in Spoken English Class

The section below will discuss in details about the types of corrective feedback from the finding, correlating it with the theories regarding of the field, and also analyzing whether there are any notable pattern regarding of the data.
From the corrective feedbacks available within lecturer’s feedback sessions, 10 among 13 of them are feedbacks in regard of students’ pronunciation. When connected with the self-repairs’ occurrence, it can be inferred that the lecturer gave bigger attention to students’ pronunciation since they did E-repairs in especially phonetic E-repairs the most. It is natural for the lecturer to take a big note regarding of students’ pronunciation when it is clearly visible that they have most struggle in that field by looking at the occurrence of phonetic E-repairs.

a. Explicit Correction

Single criterion for explicit correction is the availability of statement indicating that the students have made an error. The way to indicate the error is by directly say utterance that addresses their error (e.g., “Oh, you mean,” “You should say”). Some of the utterances spoken by the lecturer contain ‘it should be’ as the phrase indicating the explicit correction. The other is ‘it is (correction word), not (error word). The comparison between the frequency of these two phrases is 5:4 (55,55% and 44,44%) Besides of these two utterances, the teacher didn’t show any other form of difference utterance to address explicit correction.

The data from the research uniquely shows that among nine explicit corrections occurred in the data, all of them are aimed on correcting mispronunciation. There are various word class that is corrected using explicit correction including adjectives (33,3%) and nouns (66,6%).

In the section below, part of the examples will be correlated to the theories of Explicit correction:

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Example 1 (feedback 1):
*T*: “Typical, not typical.”

Example 2 (feedback 4):
*T*: And then?
*Ss*: Andvironment (Mispronounced as and-vironment)
*T*: Andvironment, it should be environment.

As stated in the finding, the words ‘not’, and ‘it should be’ serve as the cue in order to show that there was a mistake in student’s utterance. There are several phrases that can be used in order to let students know that there is a mistake in their speech. In Lyster and Ranta, the word or phrases found are “Oh, you mean…”, “You should say…”, “I want you to use…”, “No…” etc.\(^{87}\) There is even example of long advice that can be given in Lyster and Ranta’s study.

The examples from several studies (Lyster and Ranta, Bari) show that the only requirement of Explicit correction is the availability of the phrase/word which clearly indicating the error, not by repeating the error utterance itself. However, the finding shows that the lecturer always restates the erroneous words, which may become a wise option in order to make her students remembered both the error and the right forms. It is also possible that the lecturer gave more explicit correction in order to utilize the time usage, since the feedback time is indeed limited and the feedbacks didn’t only contains corrections.

b. Elicitation

Lyster and Ranta stated that there are three strategies that can be used by the teacher in order to give elicitation to the students: by strategically pausing to allow students to “fill in the blank”, using questions to elicit correct forms, or asking students to reformulate their utterance. Based on the data, the lecturer did 75% of her elicitation by using questions to elicit the correct form from the students. The lecturer used questions to elicit students’ answer. The commonest form is by saying ‘It should be?’ in questioning intonation in order to make elicitation question (75%). The other way is the use of fill in the blank cue (25%). Among one of her elicitation, the lecturer said “Don’t say and etcetera, just say...” the pause in her sentence made students instinctively completed the sentence by giving the right words: “Etcetera~!”.

Examples below shows two of Elicitations found which delivered in slightly different way in this study:

Example 1 (feedback 4):

T: Okay good. Okay One of your friend say ‘are you like shopping’ it should be?

Ss: Do you like.

Example 2 (feedback 3):

T: Okay, if you are going to produce etcetera don’t say and etcetera, just say...

Among three techniques of Elicitation that has been stated by Lyster and Ranta, the lecturer used questions (75%) and fill in the blank (25%) techniques. The lecturer used questions and fill in the blanks strategy. The lecturer, however, didn’t use the strategy of asking students to repeat their utterance.

The other four types of Corrective Feedback that didn’t appear within the lecturer’s feedback are Recast, Clarification Request, Metalinguistic Feedback, and Repetition.

In this study, the most Corrective Feedback occurred is Explicit Correction, and the second is Elicitation. The rank is similar with the result in Lyster and Ranta’s. In their study, Explicit Correction occurred 55% while Elicitation occurred 14%. The difference is that there are only these two types appeared in the finding, while Lyster and Ranta’s finding show all types of Corrective Feedback. It is reasonable since the total data of their research is $N = 686$. The lack of types and varieties might indicate that the lecturer chose the simplest and most effective way to convey her advice. Also, it happens because when giving feedback, the lecturer didn’t also focus on students’ linguistic competence. Instead, other aspects other than their errors in speech are also taken in regard when the lecturer did the feedback.

Zao stated that explicit feedback involves any clear indicator of a committed error, while in implicit feedback types there is no clear indicator of a

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committed error given by the teacher.\textsuperscript{90} Among the six types of Corrective feedback, Explicit correction and Metalinguistic Feedback are categorized as Explicit feedback.

The other notable thing is that the lecturer used both explicit and implicit feedback in her class. Lyster and Ranta stated that Explicit Correction is categorized as the most explicit way in giving corrective feedback since the teacher provides correct form of the error along with clearly indicating that the students’ utterance is incorrect.\textsuperscript{91} The lecturer used explicit correction because of the limited time of each feedback session. The second reason is because the lecturer gave corrective feedback after some students’ performances, it means that the lecturer needed to remind the students of their errors in previous presentations. It is hard to do recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition since these types of correction feedbacks will not be very effective if not given immediately in the moment when students make error. Bari stated that appropriate feedback is given when the teacher gave the feedback by considering the quality of students’ speaking performance and considering which feedback are

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\textsuperscript{90} Beibei Zhao, “Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake in Primary School EFL Classrooms in China”, Zhejiang Shuren University, China. THE JOURNAL OF ASIA TEFL Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 45-72, Autumn 2009. (page 48)

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appropriate for the condition. The lecturer chose the best types of corrective feedback given the class situation.