

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

This chapter reviews the previous empirical studies related to this study's theoretical and practical literature from the areas of EFL students' emotional engagement of oral corrective feedback in speaking class. This chapter has two subsections: the theoretical framework and the previous studies.

#### **2.1 Theoretical Framework**

##### **2.1.1 Emotional Engagement**

Student engagement is commonly considered a multidimensional construct, covering behavioural, emotional, and cognitive dimensions (Fredericks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004). Behavioural engagement arises from student involvement, persistence in learning activities, and participation efforts (Bond, Buntins & Bedenlier, 2020; Miles & Stipek, 2006; Zhoc, Webster & King, 2019). Cognitive engagement relates to intrinsic motivation, learning objectives, and self-regulation (Alioon & Delialioglu, 2019; Ma, Cheng & Han, 2017). Yonezawa, Jones, and Joselowsky (2009) said in their study that engagement is seen as a status concept, separated into three separate and distinct components, distinguished by differences from the linear curriculum by developing interactions in the learning process. Student engagement is one of the determinants that gain a student's academic success, cognitive development, and quality of education (Kahu & Nelson, 2017; Zhoc, Webster & King, 2019). Also, the effect of students' cognitive engagement in learning is weakened by emotional engagement in class (Eccles & Wang, 2012) a cognitive and emotional learning process. "Affective states also cause or are accompanied by changes. In how

individuals process information, write Niedenthal, Krauth-Gruber, and Ric (2006, p. 230). Akey (2006) explained engagement as behaviour that involves tasks that involve both (such as persistence, effort, and attention) and attitudes (such as motivation, positive learning values, enthusiasm, interest, and pride in success) was defined as participation and intrinsic interest that students have.

In a previous study, the type of engagement has defined by behaviour dimensions through the behaviour of students that can be noticed easily temporarily by ignoring the sizes depending on the context, for example, such as culture, family support, emotions, and identification of student groups (Klemencic & Chirikov, 2015). The cognitive dimension of student involvement is explored, especially in psychology, where it has been closely identified with the motivation process and the development of metacognitive strategies. In this study, the researcher will focus on Emotional engagement, which will explore from the primary dimension related to how emotional students are in the teaching and learning process, such as interest, boredom, happiness, sadness, and anxiety (Yonezawa, Jones, and Joselowsky, 2009).

Emotional engagement is part of students' feelings, interests, and attitudes when facing classroom learning (Al-Amri, 2020; Wara, Aloka & Odongo, 2018). Symonds and Hargreaves (2015) describe emotional engagement as various types of emotional responses, including interests, boredom, happiness, sadness, anxiety, and attitude toward teachers, school, and engagement in classroom learning activities. Emotional engagement implies the affective factors, including enjoyment, support, belonging, and attitudes towards teachers, peers, learning, and school (Eccles, Wigfield, Harold, & Blumenfeld, 1993; Watt, 2004).

López and Aguilar (2013) explained that emotional engagement in the EFL context is something special that relates to learning activities that include students' experiences, motivation to learn English as a foreign language, and an environment. It makes students interact with anyone in the classroom, creating different meanings for individuals. Emotional attachment arises from the feelings in a school, which make influenced by the students' emotions.

The emotional engagement was divided into two types of reactions: positive and negative. Emotional engagement focus on the extent of positive and adverse reactions to teachers, classmates, academics, or school; individuals' sense of belonging; and identification with school or subject domain (Finn, 1989; Voelkl, 1997; Fredricks, flicker & Lawson, 2016). Akey (2006) explained engagement as behaviour that involves tasks that involve both (such as persistence, effort, and attention) and attitudes (such as motivation, positive learning values, enthusiasm, interest, and pride in success) was defined as participation and intrinsic interest that students have. In classroom learning, emotions arise during work experiences, such as frustration and curiosity, by thinking about work concerning self, such as pride and anxiety; by work content, such as empathy with a protagonist and relationships, such as loving (Pekrun & Garcia, 2013; Symonds & Hargreaves, 2014).

Emotional or affective engagement includes positive interactions between teachers and the learning environment and their feelings or interest (Bond & Bedenlier, 2019). Engagement will refer to how students with institutional-level experience in higher education, academic or non-academic (Yang, 2018).

Engagement is a determinant of academic success who has conducted studies related to educational outcomes (Hu & Kuh, 2002; Jones, 2008).

The positive emotions of Emotional engagement are the parts that show a positive response, namely motivation to improve learning objectives in the classroom. Such as Support Kahu (2013) explains Motivation is an encouragement for students to try to get high grades and qualifications, feelings that they are interested in and enjoy learning. In this study, as explained (Skinner, Furrer, Marchand & Kindermann, 2008; Skinner, Kindermann, & Furrer 2009), emotions are all activities in the classroom that involve feelings related to interest, enthusiasm, and feelings of enjoying learning in the class. Support by Zhang (2021) also explains that positive emotions in the class are pleasure, interest, contentment, and others. Emotional attachment arises from the senses in a classroom. The student's emotions influence it.

In short, positive emotional engagement is all kinds of feelings related to positive emotions, including motivations such as enthusiasm, interest, and enjoyment (happy, calm, confident, and other emotion related). Positive feelings arise because of situations or conditions that can encourage students to be interested in learning. Encouragement varies greatly both from the way the teacher teaches and the case in the classroom. If students feel that one feeling leads to positive emotions, they can be ascertained to have a positive type of emotional involvement. This emotional involvement is considered to improve the learning process to achieve learning objectives. It is because feelings of interest and other positive emotions can make students want to participate in learning more extraordinary conditions to improve their knowledge and achieve learning objectives.

On the other hand, the harmful emotion types of emotional engagement refer to negative feelings, such as trauma or embarrassment, as explained by Mulyani, Ningsih, and As (2022). Hagenaurer and Volet's (2021) study demonstrated that negative emotions include annoyance and insecurity. Besides that, it also has emotions in the form of boredom, anxiety, fear, and feelings of interest in the learning process in the classroom, which are inversely proportional to positive emotional responses. It refers to Skinner, Furrer, Merhand, and Kinderman's (2008) explanations, such as enthusiasm, interest, and enjoyment in the learning process. Various feelings are also explained in research by Garcia and Pekrun (2011) explained other types of emotions such as other negative emotions, namely anger, frustration, confusion, boredom, shame, and hopelessness.

Negative emotional engagement leads to all negative emotions such as fear, anxiety, and other feelings that can affect the level of interest in learning due to the conditions provided by the teacher, including class conditions, and the learning process is reduced. That makes learning less developed, resulting in less than optimal goals that should be given by the school to students who study there. Sakiroglu's research (2020) found that negative feelings such as nervousness arise when lecturers provide oral corrective feedback in class because that can mentally encourage EFL students. Thus, the purpose and essence are not directly felt by students because they do not enjoy learning in the classroom, especially in skills that are considered problematic in a field. Besides that, it is also regarded as unsuccessful in class if students experience more forms of negative emotions. It can make students not so interested and develop.

### 2.1.3 Oral Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is a part that occurs in the classroom with many variations of the type of students in it (Ha & Murray, 2021; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013). Fungula (2013) has stated that Corrective oral feedback is an indication or direct instruction when students make mistakes so that they correctly correct in the target language. Ellis (2006) explains that corrective feedback is a response directed at students to students' utterances that are still wrong. Answers are inside "(a) an indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) meta-linguistic information about nature of the error, or combination of there" (p.340). Lightbown and Spada (1999) explain corrective feedback is any error the learner indicates for the target language learning. In addition, Li (2013, p.2) explains that corrective feedback shows the response to learners' production errors, the purpose of which is, or is perceived as, remedial, regardless of whatever the errors cause communication problems. The research of Agricola, Prins, and Sluijsmans (2019) explains that there are different opportunities for teachers and students to interact during feedback that occurs to communicate orally.

Oral corrective feedback (OCF) is 'an interlocutor's interactional move that indicates explicitly or implicitly any non-target like feature in the learner's speech' which may impede communication of meaning (Mackey 2006, p.309). Oral corrective feedback activities are a way of giving corrective feedback verbally and directly to correct EFL students' errors to get used to the correct English language. Gass (1997), among others, takes the Contrary position that corrective feedback



allows learners to notice differences between the second language they produce and target forms, and this helps them adapt their interlanguage. Russell & Spada (2006, p. 134) explained corrective feedback as any feedback provided to learners from any source that contains evidence of learner error in language form. It may be oral or written, as in Lyster, Saito, and Sato's (2013) response to learners' erroneous utterances. Zhai and Gao (2018) explained that types of corrective feedback are divided into five classes, which can be seen from the most significant and negligible capacities: metalinguistic feedback, confirmation check, recast, clarification request, and repetition. In another cited by Yang (2016, p.76), oral corrective feedback had classified as explicit, correction, recasts, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and classification.

Oral corrective feedback is associated with how the language student error is given feedback by students who interact directly with the teacher in the classroom. Oral corrective feedback (OCF) is a form of reaction the teacher provides for errors made in language learning linguistics by interacting with each other, aiming that students can recognize errors by responding correctly with output (Mahalingappa, Polat, & Wang, 2021). in (Littlewoods & Yule, 1985) explained that for EFL students, it is normal if they make mistakes, such as grammatical errors, syntax errors, or word choice errors when learning English. By definition, oral corrective feedback is an activity that provides interactive feedback in the second language classroom (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen 2002; Lightbown & Spada 1993; Lyster, Saito, Sato, 2013; Atai & Shafiee). In Atai and Shafiee (2013), the part of giving oral corrective feedback to students is related to the comments on errors and the attention

of the EFL participants, which shows the expression of students' creative production and constructiveness. In their research, Mulyani, Ningsih, and As (2022) explained that students could learn more about the mistakes they make to improve their knowledge of the language they are learning. Sari, Miftah, & Widiastuty (2022) explained in their research that this type of oral corrective feedback helps students in terms of speaking, such as public speaking, and they learn a lot from this giving oral corrective feedback and are motivated after being given oral corrective feedback. On discovery, Russia (2013) found that providing the metalinguistic type of feedback, one of the types of oral corrective feedback, was influenced by what anxiety the EFL students expressed about how they would produce metalinguistic type feedback.

When providing feedback, teachers give information about the student's performance or understanding (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In Yoshida (2009, p.23), Lyster and Ranta (1997) have six types of oral feedback: explicit correction, recast, clarification requests, and metalinguistics: feedback, elicitation, and repetition. Sheen and Yao (2004, p.3) add explicit and metalinguistic feedback. Immediate modification is meant by a teacher who gives clear input of the correct form. Recast is included in the Re-reformulation of utterances and errors. Clarification request means the teacher uses o phrases such as pardon me to ask for clarification of the learner's statement. Metalinguistic feedback involves either comment, information, or question related to the well-formedness of the student's" utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form." Elicitation means the teacher's" techniques to elicit a student" phrase, for example, by strategically pausing to allow students" to fill in the blanks or by repeating the student" error. And repetition means the teacher's" repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance.



In explicit correction, the teacher justifies the wrong form and clearly says what the student said is wrong (Chu, 2011). In the speaking activity in class, the teacher both gives the correct format and points out that the utterance was incorrect (Taipale, 2012, p. 38). In this type, the teacher points to students who make mistakes and provides a form of phrase to justify the term that is said incorrectly (Lyster and Ranta in Nunan, 1996, p.27). Giving the type of oral corrective feedback is the type of explicit correction it doesn't make the lecturer give a sign to students to think about how the correct word is corrected from an error. Still, the lecturer will immediately provide the correct sentence to students to follow the proper speech quickly. This type of feedback is considered shorter and more straightforward to make students improve their speaking skills more quickly.

In recast, the teacher reformulates all or part of the students' utterances (Chu, 2011). The lecturer reformulates or expands on mistakes or incomplete phrases in this type. It is expressed in a way that is not clear or unobtrusive (Lyster and Panova, 2002, p.28). Giving this type of recast will make students correct mistakes quickly because, after the mistakes made by students, the lecturer will reformulate them in various ways, for example by giving the correct repetition of the word and then students also follow how the lecturer pronounces it correctly. Nelson, Carskaddon, and Bonvillian (1973) stated that recast refers to how adults say students (cited in Nicholas et al., 2001). Recast is a type of direct feedback and is most often given to foreign language students in the class to facilitate the language being learned. As Dilan (2015) explained, recast is the most common type used in the class. In short, recast will focus on wrong utterances. Then the lecturer will provide feedback to ask

students to improve their speech by reformulating which is more appropriate for fellow students to understand. As Long (1996) explained, recast is changing the speaker's utterance into incorrect speech by changing one or two incorrect components, while the part considered correct will be retained as the central meaning. Lyster and Ranta (1997) provide a recast statement of "teacher's reformulation of all or part of student utterances, minus errors" (p.46).

Elicitation, Sholikhah (2016) explains that elicitation is done by repeating the correct parts of student speech without incorrect and rising intonation to signal students to correct and complete details of the lecturer's speech. The cues given by the teacher or lecturer encourage students to correct their mistakes by continuing what the lecturer has repeated. Sheen and Yao (2004, p.3) stated that errors made by students can be corrected by asking students to complete sentences. For example, the question "Is the form (x) of (y), maybe it can also include the expressions" Maybe say x or y? (Maolida, 2014, p. 122). Then, students will think quickly to be more aware of the wrong parts in their speech because encouragement from the teacher or lecturer makes these students more responsive to focus on improving their abilities so they don't make mistakes again. In this type of feedback, the teacher immediately asks students to complete what the teacher said and reformulate what they said (Chu, 2011).

Metalinguistic feedback is used by the teacher as a provision for grammatical explanations based on the target structure (Gringo, 2017). Then, the teacher emphasized the explicit resolution form (Yang, 2016). They highlight explicit comments, information, or questions to students (Yang, 2016; Taipale, 2012). In this

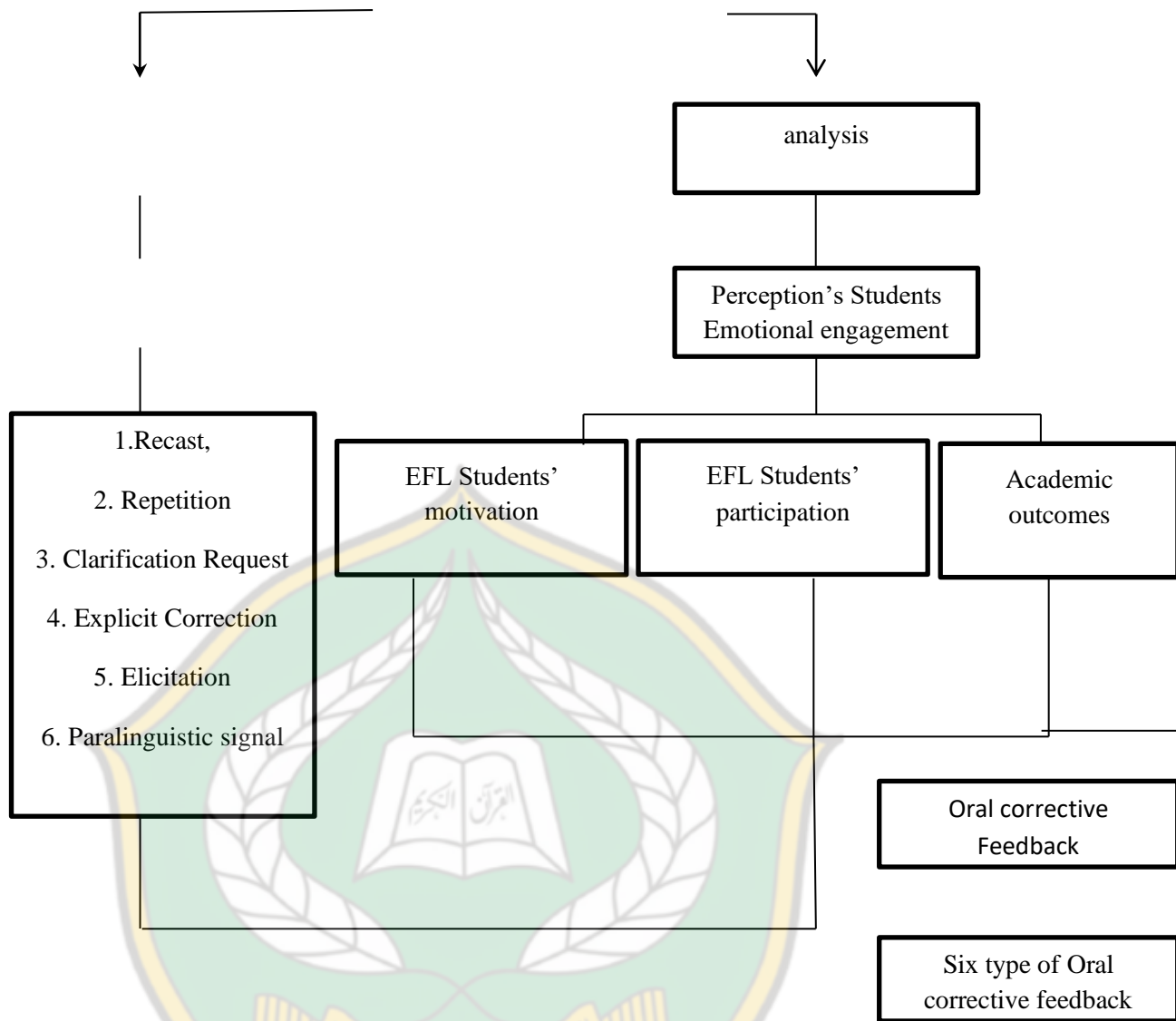
type of verbal corrective feedback, it is sufficient to pressure the student to form the wrong words correctly and provide reasons and information for using such structures in sentences, primarily when the teacher does not immediately provide the correct words. On the other hand, as a student, you must think about it reflexively, which he must properly and correctly justify. It implies how the teacher gives instructions about the wrong words. Not only that, lecturers use expressions such as truth in terms of what we say is true (Yoshida, 2010, p.5). Thus, giving encouragement or pressure to students with confidence in the correctness of the sentence structure and fear of misinterpreting utterances.

In clarification requests, Mulyani and Ningsih (2022) describe the lecturer's operationalized Clarification Requests to show that they could not understand what students said in terms of meaning and how it was structured linguistically. In this type, the teacher asks for some explanations from students about the previous utterance (Yang, 2016). It means that the lecturer or teacher asks for reformulation or repetition of the students' words. The teacher or lecturer will indirectly ask students to repeat what he just said because the teacher or lecturer does not hear or understand what the students are saying. In this type of feedback, it is considered to make students afraid because what they say when speaking is not understood even though, in an indirect way, the lecturer will say several ways for students to repeat what he means. Some examples of phrases that teachers and lecturers use are such as the use of the words Excuse me, sorry, I don't understand, and pardon me (Lyster and Rynta, 1997, p.25). For example, when a student says, "How many years did you have" and

then the lecturer gives feedback in the form of an expression saying the word "I am sorry" to code the student to repeat it (Sheen and Yao, 2011, p.2).

In repetition, the teacher repeats the students' speech which is not in good form, by giving intonation as a code to mark part of the student's mistakes (Chu, 2011). When students say their sentences, these students make mistakes with words and phrases. The teacher or lecturer will ask the student to repeat the student's words. So this will encourage students to realize that what they are saying is unclear and even wrong, which can make the teacher or lecturer ask for repetition. Daughy and Varela in Kennedy (2010, p.14) state, "Repetition occurs when the teacher continues to repeat statements that are not true to students who do it." this refers to the teacher's repetition without relation to the student's incorrect utterance. Mostly, teachers adapted their articulations to emphasize errors (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 48).

Giving oral corrective feedback on the EFL student scale may have a different context and simplicity or explicitly, or the explicit corrections can be received by EFL students by providing feedback such as recast (Tavakoli & Zarrinabadi, 2016). In research, Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2018) explained recast as the type of feedback more commonly found in EFL classes. Recast is also the dominant type of oral corrective feedback, especially judging by the result of experimental and observational studies revealing that, even though the frequency is higher, implicit feedback types such as remake produce the lowest absorption rate in learners. In contrast, more explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitation lead to higher uptake rates.



**Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework of Lecturer Feedback**

The above is a conceptual framework that the concept used in this study. Lecturer feedback is given orally and is carried out with six types that can impact students' emotional engagement. Then the results will analyze the results from the data obtained by EFL students in speaking class. The picture above shows how giving oral corrective feedback in the framework can be interpreted with many considerations that impact EFL's emotional engagement in the speaking class, which

is then divided into positive and negative EFL students' opinions which are related to giving the six types of oral corrective feedback from explicit, correction, recasts, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and classification.

All types of emotion can vary in each individual. They can have different responses depending on students' emotional reactions after being given oral corrective in class. So negative and positive emotional engagement emerged from analysts after they received oral corrective feedback when speaking directly in English in class, so it is interrelated to see students' interest in developing English skills with their proficiency in English which still needs to be given direction with direct feedback.

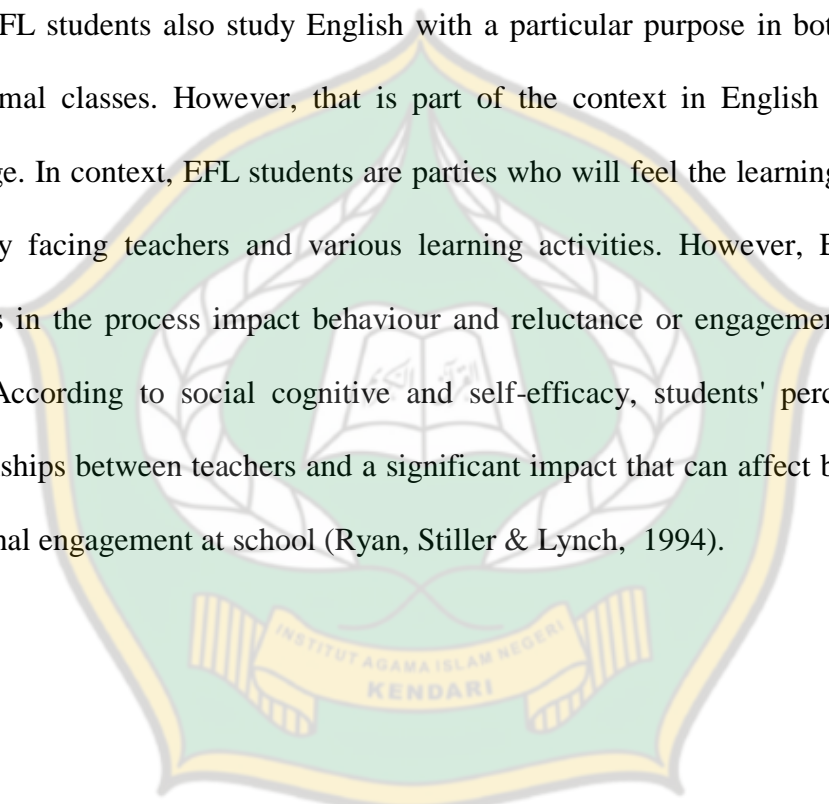
#### **2.1.4 EFL Students**

EFL is learning English that can be done by students in their respective countries by utilizing additional classes and speaking outside class, such as speaking in the United States, Britain, Australia, Canada, Ireland, or New Zealand, and they can spend time to learn English per week (Camenson, 2007; Gebhard, 2006; Harmer, 2007). Support Yuko Iwai (2011) explains EFL as someone who knows English, not because of his country's language. For instance, Asian people like Japan also learn English. Then, EFL students can be defined as English students who study English as a second language after the language of their own country. EFL does not use English to communicate with a broader and wider community. They only use English according to their needs, such as education and politics. Some of them often use English as their supporting language to find new knowledge they don't find in the language they use daily at home. Brown (2001, p.116) explains that EFL is a person who communicates in English only in class.



EFL Students are people who use English as a foreign language, but they learn ordinary English because of the needs they have. Even though they know English, they can only become language learners with different abilities from native ones. EFL students usually use English to continue their education and career inside or outside the country. Because most of the whole world can communicate through the use of English, that is then, EFL students only use English to communicate, not in a wider range, let alone to use it in everyday life.

EFL students also study English with a particular purpose in both formal and non-formal classes. However, that is part of the context in English as a Foreign language. In context, EFL students are parties who will feel the learning process in a class by facing teachers and various learning activities. However, EFL students' feelings in the process impact behaviour and reluctance or engagement to study in class. According to social cognitive and self-efficacy, students' perceptions have relationships between teachers and a significant impact that can affect behaviour and emotional engagement at school (Ryan, Stiller & Lynch, 1994).



## 2.2 Previous Study

This research is growing as several studies examine this issue. Still, with the difference from the focus examined by previous researchers on the various types, many studies have concentrated on the overall benefit or effectiveness of different kinds of OCF in drawing attention to errors in learner utterances when they appear in communication to aid in the acquisition of a proper L2 form (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Mackey, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2006).

First, Saeli, Rahmati, and Dalman (2021) write down the results of their research, which explains how opinions are emotionally involved in giving oral corrective feedback in language classes. Their research suggests multiple learners review to demonstrate positive OCF and practice correction using various cognitive strategies (repetition). From the results of the data, it is intended that oral correction provides positive involvement to students in improving speaking skills in terms of pronunciation. The data shows students' perceptions of feedback on pronunciation errors, which groups benefit from the feedback's extraordinary impact. They also put pressure on themselves to improve after knowing their mistakes and then increasing their desire to continue to improve so that there will be development after he gives feedback. Then in the unfavourable group, some other students felt that giving feedback impacted decreasing self-confidence, so they felt negative emotionally at specific types of feedback and gave negative engagement. Namely, they were not enthusiastic about correcting their mistakes and thought they did not need to correct all errors, which is conducted.

Second, Asnawi, Zulfikar, and Astila (2017) found that student data explained their emotional form when given direct feedback did not feel bad or angry when the lecturer gave them feedback. It's just that students think it's difficult to understand what needs to be corrected, as in the explicit type where they are given correction because they don't know which one is correct to say. Not only that, directly giving feedback too often can reduce their confidence. All students also agreed that providing direct feedback can distract students' attention and concentration, so they often forget what they are saying. Then students agree that the lecturer should not cut off what they are saying before they finish it (Martinez, 2006)

Third, in the research, Agudo (2013) wrote the results of his study regarding emotional responses to giving oral corrective feedback and the influence of providing oral corrective feedback on motivation and attitudes towards language classes that are taking place in class. His research shows that most data show teachers giving relatively high oral correctives, which suggests that they expect and wish to be corrected regularly in classroom settings the results from the data of participants who feel hated and worried about their verbal mistakes in class. It was then making them think doubt about themselves and their learning. Because some participants did not understand what they should improve from the corrections their teacher gave, this made them more careful in speaking in class.

Fourth, Elsaghayer (2014) wrote 110 EFL learners as participants in his research to analyze how students respond emotionally to giving feedback in L2 learning classes. This study also shows a positive impact where EFL students hope they make often corrected in class. Interestingly again, even though many percentages

from previous studies assess the respondents who hate and worry about being given oral feedback in class, on the other hand, they do not hate being given oral corrective orally in class.

In previous studies, the similarities with this research made in focus used in the analysis. The focus of the study used is to examine what oral corrective feedback is related to the emotional state felt in the context of EFL. Another similarity is how to focus when giving oral corrective feedback, often used in correcting speech in speaking activities in class. Giving this feedback relates to responses and feelings felt by students in class. Furthermore, it differs from the differences in previous studies with this study. In this study, researchers want to focus on an EFL student's opinion of emotional engagement related to oral corrective feedback that usually arises because of the emotional factor that suddenly appears when offering feedback in speaking class. Previous studies still have not thoroughly studied the relationship between oral corrective feedback and emotional engagement that most EFL students have. There may be a new gap or difference in this study that can add to the contribution of research on using oral corrective feedback in the Speaking classroom.