

## Corrective Feedback in Oral Communication

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**Abstract:** *Since there is a dearth of research in oral corrective feedback in the Philippines together with the implementation of the K-12 curriculum, the researcher deemed it necessary to shed light to the significance of corrective feedback in oral communication classes. The study aimed to determine the different types of oral corrective feedback used by oral communication teachers and preferred by students, level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students, and the difference in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students. Specifically, the results showed the following: first, ignoring was the type of oral corrective feedback mostly used by oral communication teachers in improving oral communication skills; second, recast, explicit correction, and questioning (self-correction) were the types of oral corrective feedback most preferred by students in improving oral communication skills. However, ignoring was the type of oral corrective feedback that was never preferred by the students in improving oral communications skills; third, teachers and students perceived recast, questioning (peer correction), and questioning (self-correction) as highly effective. On the other hand, ignoring was perceived as never effective in improving oral communication skills; finally, there was a significant difference in the level of effectiveness in clarification request as perceived by teachers and students. More importantly, there was a high significant difference in the level of effectiveness in explicit correction, denial, and ignoring as perceived by teachers and students.*

**Keywords:** *communicative competence, oral communication, oral corrective feedback, senior high school*

### I. INTRODUCTION

Errors in oral communication are seen as windows for students to learn English better. They are parts and parcels of the teaching learning process transpiring in the classroom. If these errors are left untreated, it could be detrimental in the learning process and language acquisition of the students. There have been plenty of research studies along this domain especially in the Middle East like Turkey, Jordan, Iran, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, and UAE. Some countries in East Asia like Japan, China, and Korea as well as other Southeast Asian countries and some non - native English speaking countries in Europe have also delved into this kind of study. On the contrary, a dearth of research studies in line with oral corrective feedback could be found in the Philippines.

Globalization has promoted English to a world-leading-medium of communication. Many scholars have accentuated the importance of communicating in English effectively and appropriately, particularly with people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Alyan, 2013). The rise in popularity of the communicative approach in language teaching since the late 1970s primarily focusing on language for meaningful interaction and for accomplishing tasks rather than on learning rules has intensified debate among teachers and researchers on corrective feedback (CF) or error correction (EC) in second language (L2) learning. The concept of CF has, therefore, been under analysis for long especially since

Hendrickson's study in 1978 in which he questioned if errors should be corrected and if so which ones, when, and how the errors should be corrected (Smith, 2010 as cited in Abaya, 2014).

Coskun (2010) explained that the issue of oral error correction should be approached from a historical perspective to see the progress made so far. Traditionally, when the audio-lingual approach to teaching foreign languages was popular among English teaching professionals, errors were seen as something to be avoided. However, today, the contemporary research seems to agree on the fact that rather than expecting students to produce error-free sentences, students are encouraged to communicate in the target language, and making errors is a natural part of second language acquisition. One of the recent issues in teaching speaking skills around the world has been the role of CF in learner uptake, defined as learners' reaction to the teacher's feedback. The research on CF has centered on its necessity and frequency, timing, methods, types of errors, and correctors (Alhaysony, 2016).

The research on corrective feedback has centered on the types of corrective feedback, the effect of corrective feedback on learner uptake and the role of individual differences in this effect (DeKeyser, 1993; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Schulz, 1996; Tsang, 2004; Yoshida, 2008 as cited in Park, 2010). Regardless of many studies on corrective feedback, only a dearth of published studies has investigated the corrective feedback perceived by teachers and students and by high achievement students and low achievement students (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Schulz, 1996, 2001; Yoshida, 2008 as cited in Park, 2010). There has been a lot of discussion on errors and their correction in the foreign language classroom because of the fact that the attitudes towards errors of both teachers and students differ, as well as error correction diverges depending on the approaches that are applied (Tomczyk, 2013).

It has long been assumed within traditional pedagogical practice that error feedback is necessary for learners to progress in their acquisition and use of second language (L2) in more target-like ways. Providing feedback in class is not a simple or clear-cut process as there are many different types of feedback and each type can have a specific effect on learners' errors (Gitsaki & Althobaiti, 2010). Broadly speaking, errors are natural part of language learning. Hence, as far as EFL (English as a Foreign Language)/ESL (English as a Second Language) classrooms are concerned, speaking attracts the attention of almost all students.

Corrective feedback (CF) which refers to the implicit or explicit information learners receive indicating a gap between their current situation and compared to the desired performance has been an area of interest for EFL researchers during the last few decades (Asassfeh, 2013). Moreover, Long (1996 as cited in Rassaei, 2010) said it is among the techniques which are believed to facilitate L2 development by providing learners with both positive and negative evidence. When it comes to oral corrective feedback, what errors are corrected are influenced by the pedagogical approach of the teacher and the recent advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which emphasizes the process of communication rather than mastery of language forms (Richards & Rodgers, 2001 as cited in Kim, 2015).

The core intention of this study was to determine and analyze the different types of oral corrective feedback in oral communication classes. Specifically, it sought to answer the following research queries:

1. What type of oral corrective feedback is used by oral communication teachers in improving oral communication skills?
2. What type of oral corrective feedback is the most preferred by students in improving oral communication skills?
3. What is the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by:
  - a. teachers; and

b. students?

4. What is the difference in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students?

HYPOTHESIS: There is a significant difference in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students.

## II. RELATED LITERATURE

Alhaysony (2016) also added that research on CF has gained prominence in the domain of L2 acquisition because it plays a crucial role in developing L2 acquisition theories as well as teaching second languages. Huang et al. (2016) posited that the most common errors committed by students in oral communication are pronunciation errors and grammatical errors. An example is an observation on a study of Japanese Senior High School English classes which "revealed that even though students are more fluent in their communication, they are less accurate in their grammar usage" (Phetkongkam, 2013, p. 97). There has been a lot of discussion on errors and their correction in the foreign language classroom because of the fact that the attitudes towards errors of both teachers and students differ, as well as error correction diverges depending on the approaches that are applied (Tomczyk, 2013). Calsiyao (2015) supported that the expectations of the teachers and the students toward error correction found to be contradictory. This is because the nature of error correction is dependent on the teaching styles of the educator and the learning styles of the students. On another note, Palangyos (2009) conveyed that there have been controversies concerning corrective feedback; one is whether or not teachers correct all errors committed by students; another is which types of corrective feedback are effective and which ones are not.

Saville - Troike (2006) stated Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language. Second language acquisition – naturalistic, instructed, or both – has long been a common activity for a majority of the human species and is becoming ever more vital as second languages themselves increase in importance (Doughty & Long, 2005). Second Language Acquisition as a part of Applied Linguistics is the driving force of this research mainly because the process of acquiring a second language with near - native competence is the goal of any English language classroom. Another interesting part of second language acquisition is the different hypotheses proposed by many.

The Interactional Hypothesis states that conversational interaction "facilitates language acquisition because it connects input (what learners hear and read); internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention; and output (what learners produce) in productive ways" (Long, 1996, as cited in Muho & Kurani, n.d.). This particular hypothesis advances two major claims about the role of interaction in L2 acquisition: comprehensible input is necessary for L2 acquisition and modifications to the interactional structure of conversations which take place in the process of negotiating a communication problem help to make input comprehensible to an L2 learner (Long, 1980 as cited in Ellis, 1991). As Ellis (1991) observed, comprehensible input by Stephen Krashen has a major causative factor in SLA.

The Input Hypothesis, on another hand, states that acquisition takes place as a result of the learner having understood input that is a little beyond the current level of his competence (i.e. the  $i + 1$  level). Input that is comprehensible to the learner will automatically be at the right level. Additionally, more comprehensible input results in more language acquisition, that language teaching methods containing more comprehensible input are more effective, and that language development occurs more effectively (Lightbrown, 1985). A review by Long (1988), for example, found that formal instruction does have positive effects on SLA

processes. Formal target language instruction has been found to speed up the rate at which learners acquire the language forms and also to result in a higher ultimate level of attainment (Ellis, 1989). Long now clearly acknowledges that interaction promotes L2 acquisition not only by supplying comprehensible input but also by providing the learner with opportunities for production, drawing on the comprehensible output hypothesis by Merrill Swain.

Swain's (1985) output hypothesis was formulated as a reaction to Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis and as a reaction against what Swain saw as the inefficacy of the use of comprehensible input alone in the development of learners' linguistic competence in the immersion schools in Canada. Swain recognizes that interlanguage development can take place when learners are 'pushed' to improve their output. In this respect, certain interactional modifications may be more helpful than others. For instance, requests for clarification (e.g. 'Pardon') could improve the learner by making her clarify what she has said, whereas confirmation checks may not because they solve the communication problem for the learner. Comprehensible output production is usually inseparably linked with feedback, which is a kind of interaction providing learners with error correction and with metalinguistic information, facilitating improvement of the accuracy of L2 production (Donesch-Jezo, 21).

When it comes to oral corrective feedback, what errors are corrected are influenced by the pedagogical approach of the teacher, and the recent advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which emphasizes the process of communication, rather than mastery of language forms (Richards & Rodgers, 2001 as cited in Kim, 2015). Nevertheless, what constitutes a communicative error has not been categorized with distinction, and the research undertaken in the field primarily focuses on accuracy errors. One of these is a study conducted by Gass and Mackey (2017) who classified errors into four categories and they are as follows:

Phonological error means problem with pronunciation. An example of a phonological error is the lack of distinction between the phoneme /p/ and the phoneme /b/ among Arab ESL learners, so others hear them saying pird and brison instead of bird and prison. Another example is presented below.

NNS: The rear, rear [rleks].

NS: The rear what? Legs?

NNS: [regs] Yeah.

Morphosyntactic error means problem with grammar. An example of a morphological error is the production of such errors as womans, sheeps, and furnitures. Another example is presented below.

NNS: There is a three bird my picture.

NS: Three birds in your picture?

NNS: Three birds yeah.

Lexical error means problem with word choice. A lexical error involves inappropriate direct translation from the learner's native language or the use of wrong lexical items in the second language. Examples of lexical errors are: This is the home that my father built, and the clock is now ten. Another example is presented below.

NNS: There is a green, uh...

NS: A green?

NNS: A, no, I don't know the letter for this.

NS: Yes, yes, yes, a plant.

Semantic error means problem with meanings. Examples of semantic errors are errors in word order, subject-verb agreement, and the use of the resumptive pronoun in English relative clauses produced by Arab ESL learners as illustrated in: The boy that I saw him is called Ali. Another example is presented below.

NNS: He is on the tree.

NS: He is standing on the tree.

NNS: Yeah, standing on the tree.

When it comes to oral corrective feedback, the different types are worth noting. There are different types of oral corrective feedback based on Lyster and Ranta's model and had been added with some other types as found in the research of Alfaki, (2013). They are as follows:

*Recast* - the teacher repeats what the learner has said replacing the error. An example is presented below.

S: Were you *suprising* by anything in the article?

T: Were you surprised by anything in the article?

*Explicit correction* - the teacher explicitly provides the learner with the correct form. An example is presented below.

T: "That is not right. You should say...."

*Repetition of error* - the teacher repeats the learner's error in isolation. In most cases, the teacher adjusts his/her intonation so as to highlight the error. An example is presented below.

S: "I going to visit my parents next week."

T: I going to...(emphasis)

S: I'm going to...

*Elicitation* - the teacher provides a sentence and strategically pauses to allow the learner to 'fill in the blank'. An example is presented below.

S: Mario and the carabao become good friends.

T: Mario and the carabao...

S: became

*Metalinguistic feedback* - the teacher provides information or questions related to an error the student has made without explicitly providing the correct form. An example is presented below.

S: "When Mario saw the carabao, he was...."

T: "surprise,  
surprised,  
surprising?"

S: "surprised"

*Clarification request* - the teacher asks for repetition or reformation of what the learner has said. An example is presented below.

T: "What's your surname?"

S: "Lucy"

T: "pardon me"

S: "Lopez"

T: "Excellent!"

*Denial* - the teacher tells the learner that his or her response was incorrect and asks him or her to say the sentence without the error. An example is presented below.

"That's not correct. Could you try again?"

*Questioning (peer correction)* - learners correct each other in face-to-face interaction in a safe environment. For example, learners work in pairs and read to each other a tongue twister. A student reads the line: A flea and a fly flew. She mispronounces the word flew. Her partner corrects her: A flea and a fly (flu:).

*Questioning (self-correction)* - the learner is aware of the error he/she makes and repairs them. An example is presented below.

A student answering the question,

What did you do yesterday?

S: "I go to the movies."

S: "I went to the movies."

*Ignoring* - the teacher does nothing when the student makes an error.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### Research Method

This study on oral corrective feedback in oral communication had been based on the concept of descriptive survey method which concerns itself with the present phenomena in terms of conditions, practices, beliefs, processes, relationships or trends invariably (Salaria, 2012). In order to collect data, triangulation was used because a single method cannot explain the phenomenon at hand

#### Population and Locale

The respondents were divided into two namely; student - respondents and teacher - respondents. The student - respondents were Grade 11 students using stratified sampling technique. There were 406 randomly selected Grade 11 students taking oral communication classes from different strands in University of the Cordilleras Senior High School; 118 students from STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics), 94 students from HUMSS (Humanities and Social Sciences), 20 students from Housekeeping, 20 students from GAS (General Academic Strand), 20 students from TG (Tour Guiding), 49 students from ICT (Information and Communications Technology), and 85 students from ABM (Accountancy, Business and Management). All 23 English teachers teaching oral communication classes were selected in the first trimester, S.Y. 2017 – 2018 in University of the Cordilleras – Senior High School.

#### Data Gathering Instrument

The data gathering tools used in this research were a class observation checklist for oral communication teachers, questionnaires for students and teachers, and an interview guide for teachers for the focus group discussion. A close-ended questionnaire about oral corrective feedback types and the level of effectiveness of the oral corrective feedback types were reformulated to fit specifically for this study. These questionnaires were based on the techniques used in correcting students' oral errors by Al-Faki (2013).

The oral corrective feedback types' questionnaire for students has a reliability coefficient of 0.75 (Cronbach's Alpha) interpreted as adequate, 0.78 (Split-Half Correlation) interpreted as adequate, and 0.87 (Split Half with Spearman-Brown Adjustment) interpreted as good. The effectiveness of oral corrective feedback types in improving students' oral communication skills' questionnaire has a reliability coefficient of 0.81 (Cronbach's Alpha) interpreted as good, 0.84 (Split-Half Correlation) interpreted as good, and 0.91 (Split Half with Spearman-Brown Adjustment) interpreted as excellent.

#### Data Gathering Procedure

The researcher needed to ask permission from Mr. Ronaldo L. Pontanosa, the Academic Director of University of the Cordilleras - Senior High School, English teachers who taught oral communication, and grade 11 students by providing request letters for class observation of teachers and focus group discussion, and the distribution of the questionnaires to teachers and students. Before distributing the questionnaires, the researcher clearly explained the instructions on how to properly address each item. The questionnaires were distributed to the teachers and the students during their free time to be retrieved the day after as per school policy. After the retrieval, the researcher fervently tallied the scores, used appropriate statistical tools, presented the data through tables, and analyzed and interpreted the data gathered to answer the problems in this study. To complement the results of the survey, the

researcher sourced out materials available in the library such as books, journals, and theses. Other sources were online articles, online research journals, and online theses.

### Data Analysis

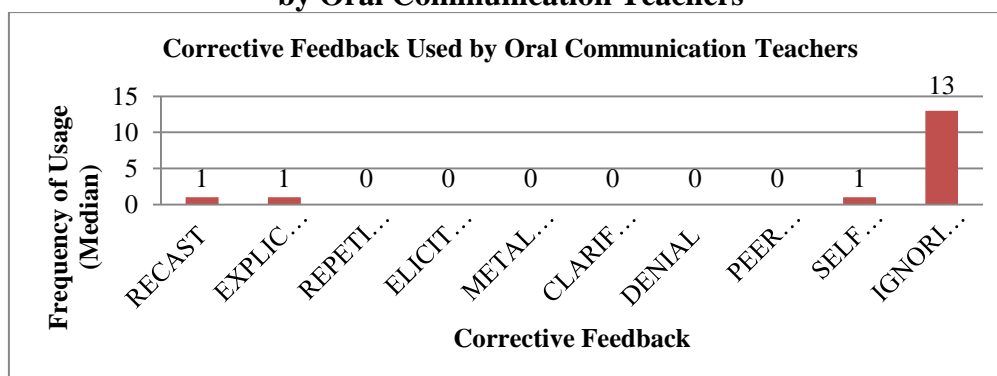
This research on corrective feedback in oral communication used different statistical tools to treat its data. Firstly, to determine the type of oral corrective feedback used by oral communication teachers in improving oral communication skills, frequency (Median) was used to represent the frequency of usage of the types of oral corrective feedback due to the presence of extreme values in the data. Secondly, to determine the type of oral corrective feedback preferred by students in improving oral communication skills, mean was used. Additionally, the non-parametric counterpart of ANOVA which is the Kruskal Wallis Test was used to test the differences in the preferences of the types of oral corrective when grouped according to strands. Non-parametric test was used because the data is in ordinal level. The arbitrary scale used was: 3.26 - 4.00 Highly Effective, 2.51 - 3.25 Moderately Effective, 1.76 - 2.50 Slightly Effective, and 1.00 - 1.75 Never Effective.

Thirdly, to determine the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students, mean was used. The arbitrary scale used was: 3.26 - 4.00 Highly Effective, 2.51 - 3.25 Moderately Effective, 1.76 - 2.50 Slightly Effective, and 1.00 - 1.75 Never Effective. Lastly, to determine the difference in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students, non-parametric equivalence for T-test which is the Man Whitney U Test was used because the data is in ordinal level. This was used in order to assess whether the means of the two groups were statistically different from each other.

## IV. RESULTS

The first problem dealt with is the type of oral corrective feedback used by oral communication teachers in improving oral communication skills. The types of oral corrective feedback used by oral communication teachers are shown in table 1. It includes the average of 23 teachers in using oral corrective feedback in the two-hour observation per class. It also shows that among the ten types of oral corrective feedback, ignoring had been used thirteen times in two hours, self-correction had been used once in two hours, explicit correction had been used once in two hours, and recast had been used once in two hours.

**Table 1**  
**Types of Corrective Feedback**  
**by Oral Communication Teachers**



However, the other types of oral corrective feedback namely repetition of error, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, peer correction had not been used in the two -

hour period. On average, the results showed that 4 out of 10 types of oral corrective feedback had been used in 2 hours. This implies that oral communication teachers had a high preference in the use of ignoring as a type of oral corrective feedback in their oral communication classes.

The second problem dealt with is the type of oral corrective feedback preferred by students in improving oral communication skills. The mean scores and the descriptive equivalence are shown in table 2.

**Table 2**  
**Types of Oral Corrective Feedback Preferred**  
**by Students in Improving Oral Communication Skills**

Corrective Feedback	N	Mean	Descriptive Equivalence
Recast	406	3.4778	Highly Preferred
Questioning (Self - Correction)	406	3.3374	Highly Preferred
Explicit Correction	406	3.2709	Highly Preferred
Questioning (Peer Correction)	406	3.2512	Moderately Preferred
Metalinguistic Feedback	406	3.1749	Moderately Preferred
Repetition of Error	406	3.1478	Moderately Preferred
Elicitation	406	3.1478	Moderately Preferred
Clarification Request	406	3.1256	Moderately Preferred
Denial	406	3.0222	Moderately Preferred
Ignoring	406	1.4483	Never Preferred

Chi-square = 913.532

\*\*p-value = 0.000 (highly significant)

The table shows that grade 11 students had a preference on recast as a type of oral corrective feedback with a mean score of 3.4778, explicit correction with a mean score of 3.2709, questioning (self - correction) with a mean score of 3.3374 were all interpreted as highly preferred, while ignoring garnered a mean score of 1.4483 interpreted as never preferred in improving oral communication skills. Other types of oral corrective feedback such as repetition of error with a mean score of 3.1478, elicitation with a mean score of 3.1478, metalinguistic feedback with a mean score of 3.1749, clarification request with a mean score of 3.1256, denial with a mean score of 3.0222, and questioning (peer correction) with a mean score of 3.2512 were moderately preferred in improving oral communication skills. The p-value implies that there exists a significant difference in the type of oral corrective feedback as perceived by students.

The third problem dealt with is the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students. The mean scores and descriptive equivalence of the level of effectiveness as perceived by teachers are shown in table 3. It shows that recast with a mean score of 3.4348, elicitation with a mean score of 3.3913, clarification request with a mean score of 3.6087, denial with a mean score of 2.3478, questioning (peer correction) with a mean score of 3.4783, and questioning (self - correction) with a mean score of 3.5652 were perceived as highly effective by the teachers in improving oral communication skills.



**Table 3**  
**Level of Effectiveness of Oral Corrective Feedback**  
**as Perceived by Teachers**

<b>Corrective Feedback</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Descriptive Equivalence</b>
Clarification request	3.6087	Highly Effective
Questioning (Self Correction)	3.5652	Highly Effective
Questioning (Peer Correction)	3.4783	Highly Effective
Recast	3.4348	Highly Effective
Elicitation	3.3913	Highly Effective
Denial	3.3478	Highly Effective
Metalinguistic feedback	3.1304	Moderately Effective
Repetition of error	3.0435	Moderately Effective
Explicit correction	2.5652	Moderately Effective
Ignoring	1.0000	Never Effective

N=23

To determine the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by students, refer to table 4. The table shows that recast with a mean score of 3.5493, explicit correction with a mean score of 3.2734, questioning (peer correction) with a mean score of 3.2734, and questioning (self - correction) with a mean score of 3.3547 were perceived as highly effective by students in improving oral communication skills.

**Table 4**  
**Level of Effectiveness of Oral Corrective Feedback as Perceived by Students**

<b>Corrective Feedback</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Descriptive Equivalence</b>
Recast	3.5493	Highly Effective
Questioning (Self Correction)	3.3547	Highly Effective
Explicit correction	3.2734	Highly Effective
Questioning (Peer Correction)	3.2734	Highly Effective
Metalinguistic feedback	3.2512	Moderately Effective
Repetition of error	3.2266	Moderately Effective
Elicitation	3.2241	Moderately Effective
Clarification request	3.2143	Moderately Effective
Denial	3.1404	Moderately Effective
Ignoring	1.4877	Never Effective

N = 406

The fourth problem dealt with is the difference in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students. Mann - Whitney U Results, Z Results, and p-value are shown in table 5. It shows that there is a significant difference in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students in improving oral communication skills.

**Table 5**  
**The Difference in the Level of Effectiveness of Oral Corrective Feedback as Perceived by Teachers and Students**

Corrective Feedback	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p-value
Recast	4198.500	-.950	0.34
Explicit Correction	2706.500	-3.672	0.00**
Repetition of Error	3914.500	-1.406	0.16
Elicitation	4133.000	-1.009	0.31
Metalinguistic Feedback	4562.000	-.200	0.84
Clarification Request	3389.500	-2.397	0.02*
Denial	2622.500	-3.778	0.00**
Questioning (Peer Correction)	4018.500	-1.226	0.22
Questioning (Self Correction)	3842.000	-1.578	.12
Ignoring	3381.000	-2.889	.00**

\*Significant at  $p \leq 0.05$

\*\*Highly Significant at  $p \leq 0.01$

The p-value revealed that there is no significant difference in the types of oral corrective feedback namely recast (0.34), repetition of error (0.16), elicitation (0.31), metalinguistic feedback (0.84), questioning (peer correction, 0.22), and questioning (self - correction, 0.11). There is a significant difference, though, in the use of clarification request (0.02), while there exists a high significant difference in the use of explicit correction (0.00), denial (0.00), and ignoring (0.00) in improving oral communication skills. This implies that there are differences in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students.

## V. DISCUSSION

1. Ignoring was the type of oral corrective feedback mostly used by oral communication teachers in improving oral communication skills.

### Ignoring

The result is in contrast with what teachers mentioned in the focus group discussion when asked “Does your corrective feedback method change depending on the orientation of the speaking activity? (i.e. communicative, pronunciation, grammar, etc.)” because all of them said they change their corrective feedback method depending on the orientation of the speaking activity.

To quote some of their responses, some teachers said, “Yeah, different activities call for different kinds of feedback. So, we really have to change the way we really give out feedback to our students especially if it’s changing the topics. So, we really cannot do anything about it. But, of course, we need to adjust to it,” “I think each oral communication activity needs a different type of feedback. For example, if you do impromptu speeches, you can do corrective feedback immediately after each person. It’s actually good because you can do it individually. When it comes to group tasks, usually, what I do is after all the groups have performed their tasks, then I give feedback because from the point of view of the students after each group and I give a feedback then the next group will take the feedback and perform better, so they feel like it’s kind of unfair. So, depending on one to one, or one to many, or small group discussions, it all varies,” “Feedback is very important coming from the teacher

and also from their peer, so usually we ask their classmates or their peer to give their evaluation especially if it's a group activity," "Yes, very much. The first consideration there is your objective. What is your objective for the speaking activity. And then, is your feedback method appropriate to your activity? Does it correspond to what your objectives are? If it does, you should choose a feedback method that would fulfill your objectives," and "It also depends on the activity. If it is a discussion, it's easier to correct the students. However, if it is for example a performance task, and they're delivering a performance. Of course, we cannot interrupt. I do not interrupt my students. I just write their mistakes on the comment part in the rubrics and then after that we'll have like a post-conference."

To further analyze the types of oral corrective feedback used by oral communication teachers, the frequency of usage of corrective feedback is. It shows that oral communication teachers used four types of oral corrective feedback namely ignoring defined as the teacher doing nothing when the student makes an error, explicit correction defined as the teacher explicitly providing the learner with the correct form, questioning (peer correction) defined as learners correcting each other in a face-to-face interaction in a safe environment, and questioning (self - correction) defined as the learner being aware of the error he/she makes and repairs them.

2. Recast, explicit correction, and questioning (self - correction) were the types of oral corrective feedback most preferred by students in improving oral communication skills. However, ignoring was the type of oral corrective feedback that was never preferred by the students in improving oral communications skills.

### **Recast**

The preference of students in the use of recast employed by the teacher through a repetition of what the learner has said replacing the error is in line with the research conducted by Park (2010) stating that the students' groups reported that recast helps the conversation to go smoothly, does not make students shy away from class participation, and helps students to be more confident in developing conversation skills. For instance, one of the Low Performing Students reported that "If the teacher corrects my errors naturally through recast, I feel comfortable when I speak in English." Another research in the effectiveness of recast supports this perception of students. Sato (2009) stated that the results in the study imply that recasts can facilitate learning, considering the high success rate. This means that there was a learner uptake which is defined as the learners' reaction to the teacher's feedback. Statistically, a successful move was more frequent than a failed move. Compared with explicit correction, recast corrects students' errors in a more indirect way, which can provide corrections and at the same time protect their self-esteem (Ran & Danli, 2016).

### **Questioning (self - correction)**

The preference of students in the use of questioning (self - correction) as a highly preferred type of oral corrective feedback is in conjunction with the research conducted by Yoshida (2008) stating that all the learners mentioned that finding out correct answers was more effective for their learning than being provided the answers by the teachers. Moreover, self - corrections may also give the learners a sense of achievement and confidence. Self-correction seems to be preferred to correction by others because it is face-saving and allows the learner to play an active role in the corrective event. Self-correction plays a central role in the promotion of autonomous learning nowadays (Mendez & Cruz, 2012). Learner autonomy is a new realm of learning. It is defined as learners understanding teaching objectives and teaching methods, setting their own learning target, choosing suitable learning strategies, monitoring their own learning strategies, and establishing their own learning outcome (Wang,

2014). This implies that students prefer being responsible of their actions and responsible of correcting themselves in improving their oral communication skills.

### **Explicit Correction**

The preference of students in the use of explicit correction as a highly preferred type of oral corrective feedback is in line with the research of Park (2010) stating that both the High Performing Students and the Low Performing Students chose explicit correction because they wanted the teacher to correct their errors explicitly and clearly so that they would not make the same errors in the future. Also, Fidan (2015) said in his research that the majority of student - participants prefer the method of error correction where the teacher gives the correct form immediately. This implies that students wanted their errors to be corrected in an explicit manner.

### **Ignoring**

Ignoring, on the other hand, is a type of oral corrective feedback interpreted as never preferred by the students. The only small but relevant advantage for this method is that the students avoid the embarrassment of having their utterance corrected in front of their peers (Trang, 2012). This is in opposition with Long (1996 as cited in Rassaei, 2010) who said That corrective feedback is among the techniques which are believed to facilitate L2 development by providing learners with both positive and negative evidence. Providing feedback and correcting errors to learners on their performance is an important aspect of teaching (Akhter, 2007).

In conclusion, grade 11 students preferred recast, explicit correction, and questioning (self - correction) as the types of oral corrective feedback in their oral communication classes. This means that they wanted their errors to be corrected both by the teacher and by themselves. All in all, the students never preferred their errors to be left untreated.

Teachers and students perceived recast, questioning (peer correction), and questioning (self - correction) as highly effective. On the other hand, ignoring was perceived as never effective in improving oral communication skills.

### **Recast**

Teachers perceiving recast as highly effective in improving oral communication skills is consistent with one teacher during the focus group discussion saying "As for me, if ever there would be a mispronounced word for example they would say 'receiver', you will not say 'no, that's wrong' but you say 'ah, you mean receiver' so that they would not feel ashamed in class."

On the part of the students, they perceived recast as highly effective in improving oral communication skills. This is in line with the research of Tsai and Sung (2014) stating that with regard to correcting grammar errors, Interviewee 6 in their study explained why he preferred recasts. He said, "I like that the teacher uses recasts, so I can hear the correct sentence. If I still don't understand, then she can explain why." With respect to correcting lexical errors, several interviewees expressed that if the teacher just used recasts, they think they would get it.

### **Questioning (peer correction)**

Questioning (peer correction) perceived as highly effective in improving oral communication skills is supported by the response of one teacher during the focus group discussion saying "When, for example, a student commits an error, I ask him to call a friend so that he will not be embarrassed that's because as we know students at this age are very sensitive. So, if ever that he calls a friend and that friend stands together with him he will not

be as embarrassed. So, at least, there is an assistance or there is help from a friend.” Another teacher mentioned “I correct their errors at the same time I also encourage peer feedback. In that way, it’ll feel a little more comfortable that it’s correction from the class instead of just the teacher.” In addition, Mendez and Cruz (2012) explained that peer correction occurs when one learner corrects another one. Its most important advantages are that both learners are involved in face-to-face interaction; the teacher obtains information about learners’ current abilities; learners co-operate in language learning and become less teacher-dependent; peer correction does not make errors a public affair, which protects the learners’ egos and increases their self-confidence.

Questioning (peer correction) perceived by students as highly effective in improving oral communication skills is supported by Smith (2000) which reveals that while the teacher, of course, may seem like the most intuitive answer in correcting students, peer correction has received a share of attention. Pair and group communication activities, in which peers are likely to correct each other, are common in most modern ESL classrooms. Moreover, when a student is unable to self - correct, **peer correction** might be appropriate. If a student raises his hand while the teacher is waiting for a student to self - correct, the teacher may want to call on that student for the correct answer, or after waiting for a short time for a student to self - correct, the teacher could ask the whole class the same question and encourage a choral response (Arntsen, n.d.). Group oral feedback – for example, speaking to a whole class about a common misconception – can also be helpful (Brookhart, 2008).

### **Questioning (self-correction)**

Questioning (self - correction) perceived as highly effective in improving oral communication skills is consistent with the research conducted by Rana and Perveen (2013) stating that self - correction is believed to instill in the learner feelings of self-sufficiency and success and provide them with the opportunity to take a more active role in their own learning. In fact, self - correction helps weak students away from dependency on the teachers for oral error correction.

Questioning (self - correction) perceived by students as highly effective in improving oral communication skills is similar with the study conducted by Tedick and Gortari (n.d.) who mentioned that this active engagement occurs when there is negotiation of form, or when the students have to think about and respond to the teacher’s feedback in some way. And this negotiation of form occurs when the teacher does not provide the correct form but instead provides cues to help the student consider how to reformulate his or her incorrect language.

### **Ignoring**

Overall, teachers with a mean score of 1.0000 and students with mean score of 1.4877 perceived ignoring as never effective in improving oral communication skills. This means that teachers and students have their own preferences in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback.

Every oral communication teacher (23 out of 23) perceived ignoring as never effective in improving oral communication skills in their oral communication classes. The result supports the research of Mendez and Cruz (2012 as cited in Ananda, Febriyanti, Yamin, & Mu’in, 2017) which states that teachers have a positive view about oral corrective feedback, and they strongly feel they need to correct students’ errors in order for them to become fluent and accurate. They also see corrective feedback having a positive effect on language learning. But then again, the result reveals that there is a gap between what teachers perceived and what they actually practiced in their oral communication classes. All teachers answered that ignoring was never effective in improving oral communication skills, but among the ten types of oral corrective feedback ignoring got the highest frequency on average. Plus, 87 percent

(20 out of 23 teachers) used ignoring as their oral corrective feedback in their oral communication classes during the observation phase. This means that there really exists a mismatch between what oral communication teachers employed in the oral communication classes and what they perceived as never effective in improving oral communication skills.

Students, in the same way, view ignoring as never effective in improving oral communication skills. This is corroborated by the research conducted by Oladejo (1993) which shows that a general agreement by learners with the view that "It is necessary to correct their errors in English in order to enhance their fluency and accuracy in the language." It is also interesting to note that the majority of the learners disagree with the view that "Constant error correction could frustrate the learner and inhibit his willingness to perform in the language."

In conclusion, teachers and students alike perceived some types of oral corrective feedback to be highly effective and moderately effective. However, teachers and students agreed that ignoring as a type of oral corrective feedback was never effective in improving oral communication skills.

4. There was a significant difference in the level of effectiveness in clarification request as perceived by teachers and students. More importantly, there was a high significant difference in the level of effectiveness in explicit correction, denial, and ignoring as perceived by teachers and students.

### **Clarification Request**

Clarification request as a type of oral corrective feedback is perceived as highly effective by teachers, while students perceived it as moderately effective in improving oral communication skills. This suggests that the teachers asking for repetition or reformation of what the learner has said is thought to be highly effective by teachers. The significant difference could be explained by Al-Faki (2013) when the teachers in his study elaborated that "Clarification request is used because in these stages students need to give longer answers. In case the students are not competent enough, teachers sometimes ask for clarification." Despite the fact that when students reform their sentences after a clarification request, the sentence tends to improve (Grassi & Barker, 2009), students in the study still thought that it is moderately effective.

### **Explicit Correction**

Teachers perceived explicit correction as moderately effective while students perceived it as highly effective in improving oral communication skills. This means that students' perception is geared towards being explicitly provided with the correct form. The high significant difference is in favor of the research conducted by Russell (2009) stating that the current research in this area, albeit scant, indicates that there is a mismatch in students' and teachers' belief systems about error correction, with students generally in favor of more corrections, especially corrections that are more explicit, and teachers generally in favor of less oral error correction in order not to impede students' communication in the target language.

### **Denial**

Teachers perceived denial as highly effective while students perceived it as moderately effective in improving oral communication skills. This means that teachers think that telling the learner that his or her response is incorrect and asking him or her to say the sentence without the error is highly effective. The high significant difference was explained by one

teacher, during an interview in the study of Al-Faki (2013), who said “Teachers believe that students have the readiness to discover or search for their own errors and that denial will stimulate students to find answers which result in good knowledge obtained by such strategy.” On one hand, students thought that it is moderately effective especially when they are not aware of their errors and they don’t exactly know what to correct.

### **Ignoring**

It is also interesting to note that even though both teachers and students think ignoring is never effective in improving oral communication skills the study proves that some students think otherwise. The high significant difference and the factors why some students want ignoring as a type of oral corrective feedback could be justified by Wörde (2003) who has provided a plausible explanation for this. During his interview, the participants cited numerous and various sources for their anxiety, such as speaking activities, inability to comprehend, negative classroom experiences, fear of negative evaluation, native speakers, methodology, pedagogical practices, and the teachers themselves.

The mismatch in the significant difference in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students in the use of clarification request, and the gap in the high significant difference in the level of effectiveness of oral corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students in the use of explicit correction, denial, and ignoring could also be brought out by some of the teachers’ responses during the focus group discussion.

When teachers were asked whether their way of correcting students matches with what the students want, majority answered yes and the minority said that they were not sure. One teacher said “I could say that my strategy or my correction matches with what students want because I base it on them.” Another teacher responded “For me, I believe so because I’m an open-minded person. I always tell them that if they are not comfortable in my strategies they can suggest, give their opinions, or just give their feedback because they are the ones learning.”

In conclusion, there lies no significant difference in 6 types of oral corrective feedback. However, there exists a mismatch between teachers’ perceptions and students’ perceptions on other types of oral corrective feedback. Then, some types of oral corrective feedback are more appealing to teachers and students than others.

## **VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

In light of the findings of this study, the researcher arrived at the following conclusions:

1. Teachers were more concerned with not interrupting the flow of communication in the class and their focus was more on fluency, not accuracy, in the English language.

2. There has to be a combination of implicit, explicit, and self-correction in the oral communication classes. However, ignoring is the type that was never preferred which means that students wanted their errors like phonological errors, morphosyntactic errors, semantic errors, and lexical errors to be corrected.

3. Teachers and students thought that implicit correction, classmates correcting each other in a safe environment, and self-generated feedback were ways that could improve oral communication skills. On the other hand, ignoring was perceived as never effective which means that the participants both thought that not correcting students’ errors in the English language and leaving them untreated could not improve their oral communication skills.

4. Teachers and students’ perceptions on oral corrective feedback in improving oral communication skills were at odds.

In relation to the findings and conclusions of this research, the following are recommended:

1. An experimental study is recommended since this research was focused on the perceptions of teachers and students only.
2. A measurement and comparison of student uptake in the use of the types of oral corrective feedback could be made. Such a study will inform researchers more about how students respond to their teachers' oral corrective feedback and will uncover the types of oral corrective feedback which are more effective in helping students improve their communication skills.
3. Other researchers are encouraged to conduct a comparative study regarding this topic. They might come up with results that will enhance the findings of this study.
4. A module on the types of oral corrective feedback and how they are employed in oral communication classes could be provided to English teachers and pre-service English teachers.

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#### Acknowledgements

The researcher is fully indebted to the following: his adviser, Dr. Corazon D. Ciriaco, and to his formidable panel members, Dr. Manilyn R. Cacanindin, Ms. Alma L. Biscocho, and Dr. Rosemary C. Basbas, who painstakingly checked, rechecked, and helped him through the process; secondly, big thanks to Dr. Dante L. Caseldo for the great head start and to Ms. Benelisa Dio-as for being his statistician and critic, as well as, Ms. Asia Ayochock and Mr. Mark Sanchi Kiray for the manpower; finally, gratitude to all Oral Communication in Context teachers for the unwavering cooperation and for always heeding his calls without complaints.

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