

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter deals with the review of literature related to the present study. The study was designed to investigate the types of feedback used by teachers with their pupils, in order to see the immediate effect of each feedback type on learner uptake and repair in EFL context. This study also revealed what learning opportunities that teachers should create in a way that they benefit the enhancement of learner's uptake and repair in EFL context.

#### **A. Previous Studies**

The following studies have been reviewed in relation to the present study.

##### **1. The effect of teacher's feedback on EFL learners' functional production in classroom discourse**

Garcia (2005) conducted a research project that analyses the different types of feedback used by teachers with their pupils, comparing a native to a foreign language context, in order to see to what extent the quantity and quality of the feedback enhance a functionally richer learner production in the L2.

The subjects of the study were two five-year-old classes in an English bilingual school in Madrid, with two different teachers, and one five-year-old monolingual class. The total number of sessions analysed was 15 (five sessions in each of the three groups: the native group and the two EFL groups).

The children's production in the 15 sessions was codified according to the main functions which are instrumental, informative, personal, interactional, and heuristic. The first step was to quantify the number of occurrences of each of the functions per group, with a further differentiation between teachers and pupils. This differentiation was made on the assumption that the functions used by the children would heavily rely on the use made by the teachers. The study used the data from the native group (from the CHILDES corpus) as an example of the language used by five-year-old children in classroom contexts. It served as a contrasting group as the study was interested in finding out to what extent the two EFL groups were close or distant to the native group in the type of functions used.

The main results of the analysis can be summarised as follows:

- The personal function of language is the most common function in the language of five-year old children in the classroom, both in the L1 and the L2.
- Pre-school first language contexts show a similar frequency of use of pedagogic and interactional feedback. However, in EFL contexts the first type is more frequent.
- In both first language and foreign language pre-school contexts, positive evaluation is the most common type of pedagogic feedback.
- The teacher's use of interactional feedback in the EFL context seems to encourage the learners' realisations of the personal function in the L2.

Lyster and Mori (2006) also conducted a research that analyses the different types of feedback used by teachers with their pupils, comparing two different instructional settings at the elementary-school level to investigate the immediate effects of explicit correction, recasts, and prompts on learner uptake and repair.

This comparative study analyzes interactional feedback and uptake that occurred during approximately 33 hr of classroom interaction recorded in four French immersion (FI) and three Japanese immersion (JI) classrooms at some elementary school in the United States.

Interaction in the four FI classrooms was audio-recorded and then transcribed by a native or natively-like speaker of French. All transcripts were verified at least once by a second transcriber who was again either a native or natively-like speaker of French. The database used for analysis in the study includes 27 lessons that total 1.100 min, or 18.3 hr. There are 13 French language arts lessons (7.8 hr) and 14 subject-matter lessons (10.5 hr), which include lessons from science, social studies, and math. Data from the three JI classrooms are part of a larger classroom study. Of the three classrooms, two were fourth-grade classes taught by the same teacher and the third was a fifth-grade class taught by a different teacher. The data, totaling 889 min, or 14.8 hr, include Japanese and language arts lessons (10.9 hr), subject-matter lessons (2.1 hr) and other activities (1.7 hr) that involved discussions before and after regular lessons, pertaining to topics such as classroom procedures, daily scheduling, attendance, and the weather. Interaction in the three JI classrooms

was both audio- and video-recorded. The audio recordings were transcribed by a NS of Japanese and then verified by a second transcriber who was also a NS of Japanese.

The results clearly show a predominant provision of recasts over prompts and explicit correction, regardless of instructional setting, but distinctively varied student uptake and repair patterns in relation to feedback type, with the largest proportion of repair resulting for prompts in French immersion and from recasts in Japanese immersion. Based on these findings and supported by an analysis of each instructional setting's overall communicative orientation, Lyster and Mori introduce the counterbalance hypothesis, which states that instructional activities and interactional feedback that act as a counterbalance to a classroom's predominant communicative orientation are likely to prove more effective than instructional activities and interactional feedback that are congruent with its predominant communicative orientation.

## **2. The Application of Sinclair and Coulthard's IRF Structure in Classroom Discourse Analysis**

Cockayne (2010) conducted a research as an attempt to apply the Sinclair and Coulthard's (S&C) method of Discourse Analysis (DA) to a transcribed recording of an ELT lesson. The data was taken from an intermediate-level adult media English lesson, conducted in a private language school in Japan, using materials based on issue 144 of 'The latest news in English' (Chigasaki Press, 2009). Three recordings were made of lessons from this class and analyzed using tally sheets and a stopwatch as part of an action research project

on to increase student-student interaction and topicalization, and improve the communicativeness of teacher talk through changes in materials and teaching procedures. The data presented in this paper is taken from the first of these recordings.

The result shows that if the S&C model is, indeed, a litmus test for the communicativeness of EFL classrooms, the data presented in this paper can certainly be said to be communicative. This author was able comfortably to fit the data into the model only after several adaptations and complementary models had been introduced. Applying the original S&C model to the data would have proven very problematic. However, that these modifications could be so easily applied is testament to the S&C model's flexibility and adaptability to new DA data and research needs, and will therefore be of use to many discourse analysts for years to come.

## **B. Theoretical Background**

### **1. Feedback**

#### **a. Feedback in general communication**

In general communication, feedback is defined as the transmission of the receiver's reaction back to the sender (Fiske, 1990:21). The function of feedback is to enable speaker to adjust his or her performance to the needs and responses of an audience, to help the communicator adjust his or her message to the needs and responses of the receiver, to help the receiver to

feel involved in the communication, and to make the process of transmitting messages more efficient (Fiske, 1990:21-22).

#### **b. Feedback in Learning Process**

In learning process, Littlewood (1981:90-91) stated that the nature of the feedback that the learners receive is a particularly important factor in determining their relative focus on linguistic forms and meanings. Feedback tells the learner what criteria for success are operative during a particular activity and indicates what his own purpose and focus should be, therefore feedback functions as a means for learners to measure how successful their performance has been. The concept of success itself is determined by the focus or purpose of an activity, be it to produce certain pre-determined linguistic structures, to convey or comprehend meanings, or other purpose/activity. Feedback carries information or indication of success measurement, for example, if the teacher consistently corrects linguistic forms, this indicates that success is now being measured by formal criteria, and that the learner should therefore focus his attention on the production of correct linguistic forms. If the teacher wants his learners to focus on the effective communication of meanings, he must reinforce this focus by providing them with feedback about how successful communication has been. It is therefore important for the teacher to monitor the kind of feedback that his learners receive, so that it supports the methodological purpose of the activity.

Moreover, Harmer (2001:99-100) stated that feedback encompasses not only correcting students, but also offering them an assessment of how well

they have done. It involves teachers in judging their students' responses to correction so that they can act accordingly (Harmer, 1998:10).

### **c. Classification of Teacher's Feedback**

Several studies have documented the classification of teacher's feedback. Garcia (2005:11-12) classified feedback into two main types: interactional feedback and pedagogic feedback. Interactional Feedback (IF) is comment made by the teacher, with no evaluative or corrective purpose, which may enhance the learner's linguistic production. This type of feedback includes expressions of agreement, disagreement or acknowledgement. Pedagogic Feedback (PF) is acknowledgment or comment made by the teacher, with the purpose of correcting or evaluating the children's performance. There are five main types of pedagogic feedback (PF); PF that positively evaluates the learners' production, PF that negatively evaluates the learners' production, PF that corrects the learners' production, PF that gives the learners a clue for the right answer, and PF that prompts the learners to respond.

Lyster and Mori (2006:271-272) used the term interactional feedback for any feedback moves that occur in teacher-student interaction. The interactional feedback can be classified as one of three types: explicit correction, recasts, or prompts. In the case of explicit correction, the teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect. For recasts, the teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the student's utterance. So, in both explicit correction and recasts, a teacher both

initiates and completes a repair within a single move. Prompts, on the other hand, include a variety of signals that push learners to self-repair. By prompting, a teacher provides cues for learners to draw on their own resources to self-repair. Prompts include the following moves: (a) elicitation, in which the teacher directly elicits a reformulation from the student by asking questions or by pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher's utterance, or by asking the student to reformulate his or her utterance; (b) metalinguistic clues, in which the teacher provides comments or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance; (c) clarification requests, in which the teacher uses phrases such as "Pardon?" and "I don't understand" after learner errors to indicate to students that their utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a reformulation is required; and (d) repetition, in which the teacher repeats the student's ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error.

Lyster and Panova (2002:582-585) categorized feedback into seven types: recast, translation, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction, and repetition. A recast is an implicit corrective feedback move that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way. Translation can be seen as a feedback move when it follows a student's unsolicited uses of the L1. Clarification request functions to elicit reformulation or repetition from the student with respect to the form of the student's ill-formed utterance. Metalinguistic feedback refers to either comments, information, or questions



related to the well-formedness of the student utterance, without explicitly providing the correct answer. This definition was taken by Lyster and Panova from Lyster and Ranta (1997). Elicitation is a corrective technique that prompts the learner to self-correct. Explicit correction provides explicit signals to the student that there is an error in the previous utterance. In a repetition, the teacher repeats the ill-formed part of the students utterance, usually with a change in intonation.

Bargiela (2003) distinguished five types of feedback: (a) form-related comment, which refers to positive or negative response (not correction) to previous utterance; (b) elicitation, which refers to technique that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the student; (c) expansion, which refers to the extension of the content of the preceding utterance(s) or the addition of information that is related to it; (d) correction, which refers to any linguistic correction of a previous utterance or indication of incorrectness; and (e) metalinguistic feedback, which contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.

One thing that can not be separated from teacher feedback is praise. Harmer stated that giving feedback involves praising students for things they do well, and offering them the ability to do things better where they were less successful (1998:10), therefore praise is also considered as a type of feedback.

#### **d. Principles of Good Feedback Practice**

Nicol and MacFarlane-Dick (2006: 7-14) stated that good feedback practice meets seven criteria:

1. helps clarify what good performance is (goals, criteria, expected standards);
2. facilitates the development of self-assessment (reflection) in learning;
3. delivers high quality information to students about their learning;
4. encourages teacher and peer dialogue around learning;
5. encourages positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem;
6. provides opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance;
7. provides information to teachers that can be used to help shape the teaching.

#### **2. Repair and Uptake**

Uptake was defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997:49, as cited in Lyster and Mori, 2006:273) as a student's immediate response to the teacher's feedback that "constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance." Uptake can be classified as (a) utterances still in need of repair or (b) utterances with repair. Repair includes (a) repetition or incorporation of the correct forms provided in recasts and explicit correction and (b) self- or peer- repair following prompts.

### **3. Children's Language Development**

According to Li (1995) and Li & Chen (1998) in Wai (2010), there are five stages for the children's language development (Li & Chen, 1998, p.1- 2). The first stage is babbling stage (birth to 0;06), at which infants explore a variety of sounds. However, the exploration of sounds is not used for communication between infant and adult, but it is a kind of reflex action. Then is the passive communicator stage (0;06 to 1;00). At this stage, infants purposefully repeat, elongate, and pause in sounds to imitate adult speech. Thirdly, "specific language" communication stage (1;00 to 2;06) comes, children are able to communicate with others by using single word utterances or telegraphic speech. Then the focus of this study, the target oral language developmental stage (2;06 to 6;00) emerges and finally is the mature stage (above 6;00), at which children's language ability becomes mature and their language performances reach the adult language. Children aged from 2;06 to 6;00, who are in target oral language developmental stage of Li & Chen's system, are in an important stage of the language development. At this stage, children captured basic phonological and grammatical rules, language usage skills and certain vocabulary. The use of the "special language" components, which are the single word utterance, telegraphic speech, will be reduced and the target language (adult language) will be developed and their language use will approach to adult language.

#### **4. Classroom Discourse Analysis**

##### **a. Discourse Analysis**

The word 'discourse' is defined as the meaning that a first person intends to express in producing a text and that a second person interprets from the text (Widdowson, 2007:129). Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. Discourse analysis involves looking at both language form and language function and includes the study of both spoken data or interaction, from conversation to highly institutionalised forms of talk, and written texts of all kinds (Mc. Carthy, 1991:5)

Regarding analysis of classroom discourse, one influential approach is that developed at the University of Birmingham by Sinclair and Coulthard in 1975, where research initially concerned the structure of discourse in school classrooms. Sinclair and Coulthard developed a model of classroom discourse involving a series of ranks and levels arranged in hierarchical order. This Sinclair and Coulthard Ranks is elaborated in the next point.

##### **b. The Sinclair and Coulthard Model**

Atkins (2001:2-4) quoted that Halliday (1994) developed a description of grammar based on a rank scale. This theory has been used by Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) to create a model for spoken discourse analysis. White (2003:2) mentioned that the Sinclair and Coulthard model was also known as the Discourse Analysis model (DA), the Birmingham model or, at the level of *exchange*, the Initiation-Response-Feedback structure (IRF).

Atkins (2001:2-4) also stated that DA model, like Halliday's model, is also a rank scale model and consists of five ranks or components: lesson; transaction; exchange; move and act, and these are related to one another in a 'consists of' relationship.' In the original model, Sinclair and Coulthard included the all-encompassing fifth element of *lesson*, but dismissed it on their later study. Thus, the structure of transaction consists of units of exchanges, exchange units of moves, and move units of acts. In other words, the ranks are hierarchical in nature with *lesson* being the largest unit or the highest rank and *act* being the smallest as shown in Figure 2.1 (McCarthy, 1991:22).

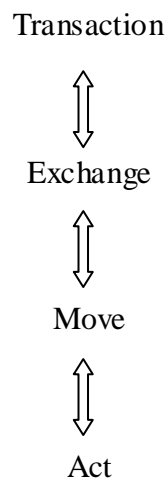


Figure 2.1. Sinclair and Coulthard's rank scale

DA model is also called the Initiation-Response-Feedback model because Sinclair and Coulthard first revealed that teacher-led recitation consists of three moves: an *initiation*, usually in the form of a teacher question, a *response* in which a student attempts to answer the question,

and a *feedback* or *followup* move, in which the teacher provides some form of feedback to the pupil's response (Smith, Hardman, Tooley, 2005:608).

This IRF model is commented on by Malouf (1995) who says that IRF model is developed as a tool for systematic study of classroom discourse, concentrating mainly on interactions between the teacher and individual students. This is echoed by McCarthy (1991:12) who says that the model is very useful for analysing patterns of interaction where talk is relatively tightly structured' and should be suitable for the one-to-one classroom.

### 1) Exchanges and Moves

Sinclair and Coulthard (1992: 15) used exchange as a basic unit in their description. The particular exchange consists of a question, an answer and a comment, and so it is a three-part exchange. Each of the parts are given the name move. Here are some examples of exchanges, each with three moves:

A: What time is it?

B: Six thirty.

A: Thanks.

A: Tim's coming tomorrow.

B: Oh yeah.

A: Yes.

A: Here, hold this.

B: (takes the box)

A: Thanks.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1992:7) identify two types of exchange in classroom discourse; boundary exchanges and teaching exchanges. Boundary exchanges signal the transition from one section of the lesson

to the next and are initiated by the teacher, whereas teaching exchanges are where questions are asked and answered, and feedback given on answers. Tables 2.1 and 2.2 below, which are taken from Sinclair and Coulthard (1992:7), show the possible structures of these exchange types. In the left hand side column, letters in parentheses represent the labeling symbols for the elements of structure. In the middle column, symbols in parentheses are not obligatory components of the structure, whereas symbols that are not in parentheses are required.

Table 2.1. Rank III: Exchange (Boundary)

Elements of structure	Structures	Classes of move
Frame (Fr)	(Fr) (Fo)	Fr: Framing
Focus (Fo)		Fo: Focusing

Table 2.2. Rank III: Exchange (Teaching)

Elements of structure	Structures	Classes of move
Initiation (I)	I (R) (F)	I: opening
Response (R)		R: answering
Feedback (F)		F: follow-up

As seen in Tables 2.1 and 2.2 above, there are five main classes of moves in the Sinclair and Coulthard model: framing, focusing, opening, answering, and follow-up moves. Framing moves, which indicate boundaries in the lesson, and focusing moves, which are metastatement about the discourse, realize boundary exchanges. Opening, answering, and follow-up moves realize teaching exchanges. As elements of structure, these are labeled I, R, and F (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992:7).

Teaching exchanges can be further divided into six ‘free’ and five ‘bound’ exchanges (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992:25-26). Bound exchanges are tied to previous free exchanges, which they refer back to. These sub-categories can be found in Tables 2.3 and 2.4 below, which are based on Raine (2010, p. 7, cited in Cockayne, 2010:7-8).

Table 2.3. Sub-categories of free exchange

Sub-class of exchange	Structures	Function of exchange
Teacher inform (Inform)	I (R)	to convey information to the pupils
Teacher direct (Direct)	I R (F)	to elicit a non-verbal response from the pupils
Teacher elicit (Elicit)	I R F	to elicit a verbal response from a pupil
Check (Check)	I R (F)	to discover how well students are getting on and identify any problems
Pupil elicit (P-Elicit)	I R	to elicit a verbal response from the teacher
Pupil inform (P-Inform)	I F	to convey information to the teacher



Table 2.4. Sub-categories of bound exchanges

Sub-class of exchange	Structures	Function of exchange
Re-initiation (i) (Re-initiation)	I R Ib R F	to induce a response to a previously unanswered question
Re-initiation (ii) (Re-initiation)	I R F (Ib) R F	to induce a correct response to a previously incorrectly answered elicitation
Listing (Listing)	I R F (Ib) R F	to withhold evaluation until two or more responses are received to an elicitation
Reinforce (Reinforce)	I R Ib R	to induce a (correct) response to a previously issued directive
Repeat (Repeat)	I R Ib R F	to induce a repetition of a response

## 2) Moves and acts

Moves are made up of acts, which are ‘the lowest rank of discourse’ (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992:21) and cannot be divided into smaller elements. Sinclair & Coulthard stated that there are twenty two classes of acts (1992:19-21). They are marker, starter, elicitation, check, directive, informative, prompt, clue, cue, bid, nomination, acknowledge, reply, react, comment, accept, evaluate, silent stress, metastatement, conclusion, loop and aside. The label, the symbol used in coding, and the functional definition and characteristic formal features of each act can be seen in Appendix 1.

Tables 2.5 to 2.9 below are taken from Sinclair and Coulthard (1992:7-8). These tables show the structures of the five main types of move and the classes of acts of which they comprise.

Table 2.5. Rank IV: Move (opening)

Elements of structure	Structures	Classes of act
signal (s)	(s) (pre-h) h (post-h)	s: marker
pre-head (pre-h)	(sel)	pre-h: starter
head (h)	(sel) (pre-h) h	h: system operating at h;
post-head (post-h)		choice of
select (sel)		elicitation, directive, informative, check
		post-h: system operating at post-h;
		choice from prompt and clue
		sel: ((cue) bid)
		nomination

Table 2.6. Rank IV: Move (answering)

Elements of structure	Structures	Classes of act
pre-head (pre-h)	(pre-h) h (post-h)	pre-h: acknowledge
head (h)		h: system operating at h;
post-head (post-h)		choice of reply, react, acknowledge
		post-h: comment

Table 2.7. Rank IV: Move (follow-up)

Elements of structure	Structures	Classes of act
pre-head (pre-h)	(pre-h) (h) (post-h)	pre-h: accept
head (h)		h: evaluate
post-head (post-h)		post-h: comment

Table 2.8. Rank IV: Move (framing)

Elements of structure	Structures	Classes of act
head (h)	hq	h: marker
qualifier (q)		q: silent stress

Table 2.9. Rank IV: Move (focusing)

Elements of structure	Structures	Classes of act
signal (s)	(s) (pre-h) h (post-h)	s: marker
pre-head (pre-h)		pre-h: starter
head (h)		h: system operating at h;
post-head (post-h)		choice from metastatement or conclusion
		post-h: comment

These tables are in line with Atkins (2001:3) who stated that the twenty-one acts combine to make the five classes of *move*. These are *framing* and *focusing moves*, which combine to make *boundary exchanges* and *opening, responding* and *follow-up moves*, which combine to make *teaching exchanges*. A number of these *exchanges* combine to make *transactions*, which combine to make the *lesson*. Atkins gives a useful diagrammatic representation of the Initiation-Response-Follow-up (IRF) model (Figure 2.2).

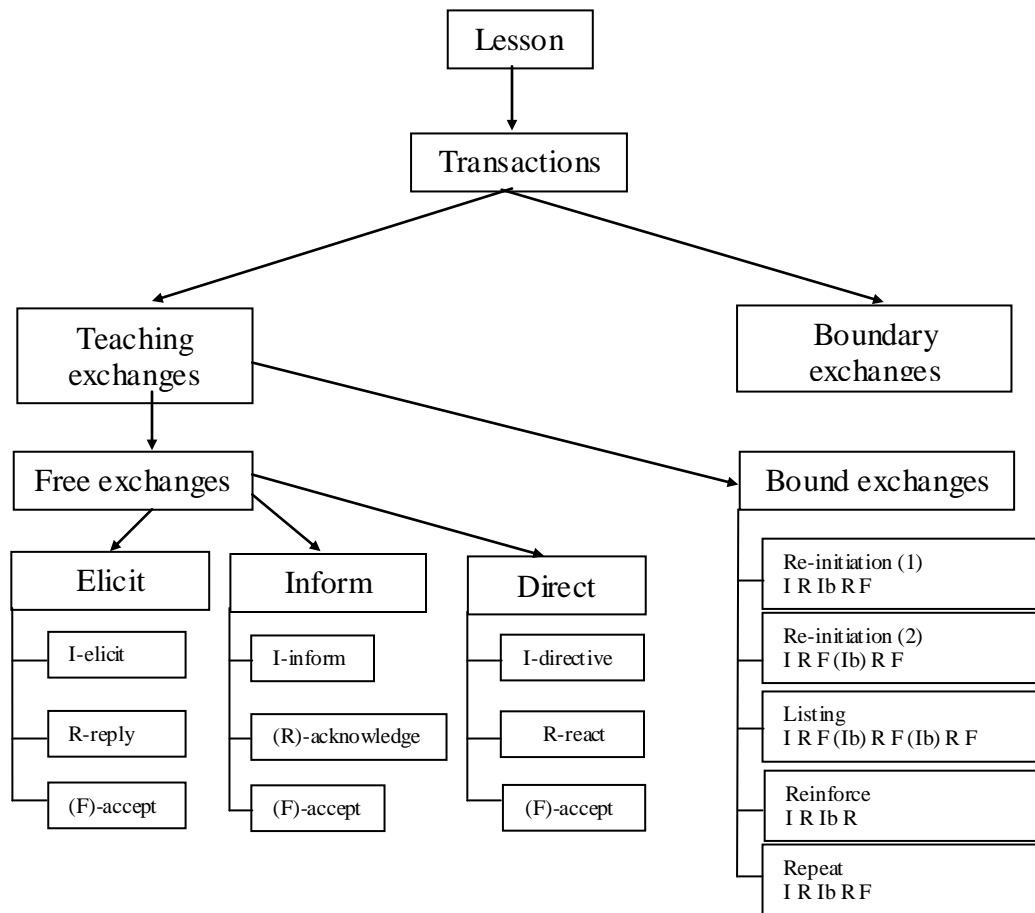


Figure 2.2. A diagrammatic representation of Sinclair and Coulthard's Initiation-Response-Follow-up model (Atkins, 2001:3)