INTERACTIVE FEEDBACK IN THE *POWER-UP! TUTORIAL*

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Abstract

This report presents an exploratory study of *interactive feedback*, which includes *corrective feedback* (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and *affective* and *cognitive feedback* (Vigil & Oller, 1976), in oral communication tutorials, called the *Power-Up! Tutorial*. The authors list, define, and exemplify various types of interactive feedback, supported with evidence from tutorial transcripts. These transcripts represent 6 hours of instruction involving 12 teachers and 52 students in actual tutorials. After presenting and discussing various interactive feedback moves, this report offers several observations, pedagogical implications, and recommendations for further study.

Introduction

This report examines the nature of ***interactive feedback*** (IF) in Freshman oral communication tutorials, called the *Power-Up! Tutorial* (PUT), in the School of Contemporary International Studies (SCIS) at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies (NUFS). We see IF as a combination of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) ***corrective feedback*** (a response to a student's perceived error that attempts to call attention to or repair that error) and Vigil and Oller's (1976) ***affective feedback*** (the affective relationship between participants) and ***cognitive feedback*** (feedback from the teacher in the form of sounds, phrases, structures or discourses) (in Brown, 2007). The purpose of this paper is to further our understanding of the types, relative predominance, and effectiveness of feedback between students and teachers.[1] Since teachers differ in beliefs and propensities to giving IF and students differ in learning styles and feedback preferences, we believe it is relevant to list and define the various types of feedback (see Appendix 1), the

contexts in which they occur, their relative effectiveness in those contexts, and offer suggestions on helping teachers and students to deal with feedback more effectively.

The debates over the effectiveness of instruction (Ellis, 1990; Spada & Lightbown, 1993) and correction (Guenette, 2007; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Zhaohong, 2003) continue to be contested in the fields of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Applied Linguistics (AL). It is generally accepted, however, that the work of Long (1996) shows the benefits of interaction in the language classroom. In describing his *Interaction Hypothesis*, he notes that "interactional adjustments by the NS [native speaker] or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (pp. 451–452). A number of researchers have built on Long's hypothesis (see for example: Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, Perdue, & McDonough, 2001; Spada & Lightbown, 1999; Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001). Following Spada and Lightbown (1999), we believe that students can benefit from instruction, especially in the areas of noticing, strategic competence, and learner training. We also agree with Lyster (1998) that corrective feedback, and interactive feedback in general, can be effective for learning, but this effectiveness depends to a great degree upon teacher/student awareness of feedback types and the contexts in which they are most effective.

Since Schmidt and Frota's (1986) seminal article introducing *noticing*, *focus on form* (FonF) instruction and related research has increased dramatically (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 1991; Muranoi, 2000; Spada, 1997). Defined by Long (1991), FonF instruction "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (pp. 45-46). Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001) carry this concept further by introducing *reactive focus on form,* which

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[1] This study is based on data gathered from interactive feedback between students and language tutors. The majority of studies referenced, however, report on teacher-fronted classrooms. Rather than differentiate between tutors and teachers in every instance, we use "teachers" throughout this paper.

they equate with error correction or corrective feedback, and *preemptive focus on form*, which occurs "when either the teacher or a learner initiates attention to form *even though no actual problem in production has arisen*" (in Loewen, 2002, p. 2). They further explain that in reactive FonF *student error is the trigger* and in preemptive FonF *an actual or perceived gap in the students' knowledge* is the trigger (p. 414).

There are numerous studies that support instruction based on FonF/corrective feedback (see for example: Batstone, 2002; Lochtman, 2002; Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, & Linnell, 1996). Batestone (2002) explored the effect of context on students' attending to form and increasing output, finding that learners need to "take advantage of an interpersonal context which supports rather than inhibits the risk-taking which necessarily accompanies learners' early attempts to deploy new forms" (p. 1). Clearly, context plays an important role in considering which feedback types teachers should emphasize. Furthermore, Aline (1999) notes that students' progress from noticing features of their own output *on their own* appears to be limited. Thus, teachers need to familiarize themselves with various contexts and interactive feedback types to enable them to provide students with effective feedback.

Interactive Feedback

Corrective feedback

In 1997, Lyster and Ranta, two seminal figures in the research of corrective feedback in French immersion courses in Canada, introduced a helpful flowchart called the *Error Treatment Sequence* (Figure 1):

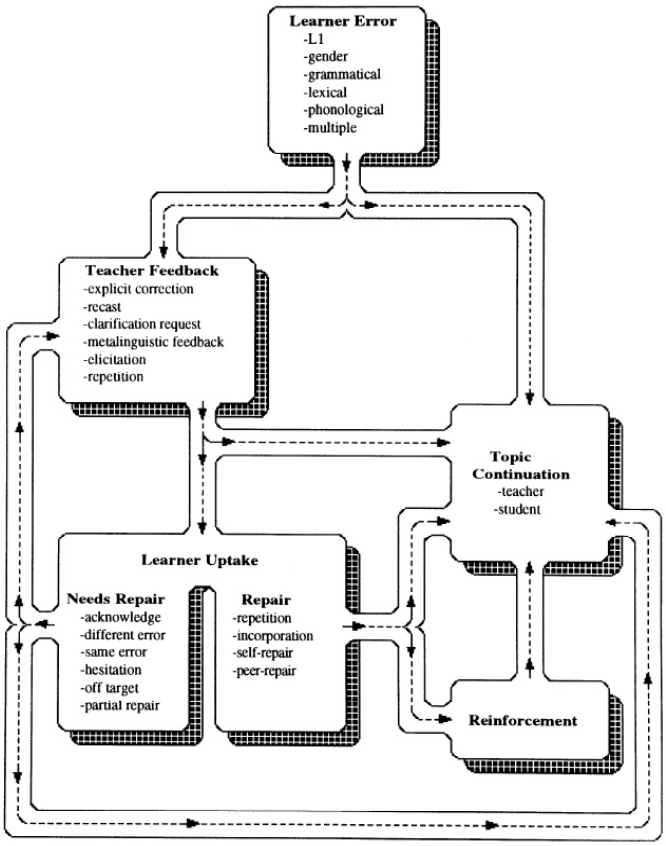

Figure 1: Error Treatment Sequence (from Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 44)

They describe the sequence as follows:

> The sequence begins with a learner's utterance containing at least one error. The erroneous utterance is followed either by the teacher's corrective feedback or not; if not, then there is topic continuation. If corrective feedback is provided by the teacher, then it is either followed by ***uptake*** on the part of the student or not (***no uptake*** entails topic continuation). If there is uptake, then the student's initially erroneous utterance is either ***repaired*** or continues to ***need repair*** in some way. If the utterance needs repair, then corrective feedback may again be provided by the teacher; if no further feedback is provided, then there is topic continuation. If and when there is repair, then it is followed either by topic continuation or by some repair-related reinforcement provided by the teacher. Following the reinforcement, there is topic continuation. (p. 45, emphasis added)

To clarify, ***uptake*** "refers to different types of student responses immediately following the feedback, including responses with repair of the nontarget items as well as utterances still in need of repair" (Panova & Lyster, 2002, p. 574). ***Repair*** is the correct reformulation of an error.

Lyster and Ranta (1997, pp. 46-48) describe 6 main ***corrective moves***, a "move" consisting of an action and reaction between student and teacher. These corrective moves are listed below with examples from PUT transcripts:

1) ***Explicit correction*** — the "teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect":

S: Steal a person. Steal Mr. Johnston in terrorists' house.
T: Terrorists stole him… Or maybe you can say took him. Maybe he didn't want to go. We say, "kidnap."

2) ***Recasts*** — "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance minus the error":

S: What's new? Uh… Yesterday night...
T: Last night.
S: Last night I called with my friends for too long.

3) ***Clarification requests*** — "according to Spada and Frohlich (1995, p. 25), indicate to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required":

S1: What is German food famous for?
T: Huh? One more time.
S1: What is Germany food famous for?
T: What?
S2: Famous Germany food.

4) ***Metalinguistic feedback*** — "contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form":

S1: How long will you want to go?
T: Hm...
S2: Stay?
T: [Pointing at the board] Today's language…not will.
S2: Would.
T: "Would" is…imagine. "Will" means she *is* going.

5) ***Elicitation*** — "refers to at least three techniques that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the student":

i) **"Fill in the blank"** — teachers elicit completion of their own utterance:

T: Wait, wait, wait. One more time. He…
S: Got…

ii) **Questioning** — teachers use questions to elicit the correct form:

T: Who is he?
S: He is…who is he? Oh…a 55 years old firefighter.

iii) **Reformulation request** — teachers may ask students to reformulate their utterance:

T: Just what did you say, one more time.
S: He…he was driving his own car…and…and…he crashed…into another vehicle.

6) ***Repetition*** — "refers to the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance":

T: To the victims or the…to who? To the government?
S: No, to the nations.
T: Nations? Japan.
S: Yeah, Japan's.

In later works, Lyster included elicitation as one of 4 types of ***prompts*** (summarized in Lyster & Mori, 2006):

> ***Prompts*** represent a range of feedback types that include the following moves…(a) ***elicitation***, in which the teacher directly elicits a reformulation from the student by asking questions such as "How do we say that in French?" 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 such as "We don't say it like that in Japanese"; (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+. (p. 271, emphasis added)

Lyster's classification of these interactive feedback moves as prompts, which require the student to negotiate the repair of their ill-formed utterance, is supported by Swain's (1985) *Output Hypothesis*. This hypothesis suggests that learner production of modified output is necessary for L2 acquisition (in Morris & Tarone, 2003). The work of SLA researchers, including Nabei and Swain (2002), Gil (2002), and Smith (2005), has shown that *positive evidence* (also *positive feedback*), the input or models of correct language that learners receive, is insufficient without interaction. Corrective feedback often takes the form of *negative evidence* (also *negative feedback*), information to learners about what is not possible in the target language. According to Morris and Tarone (2003), negative evidence can be found in two forms, *preemptive*, which presents learners with input to avoid errors, and *reactive*, which is a response to a nontarget utterance.

To clarify, recasts are sometimes seen as negative evidence, however, according to Mackey, Oliver, and Leeman (2003), there are some arguments against classifying recasts as negative evidence because students often *believe* that teachers are reacting to meaning rather than form or that teachers are merely providing a different way of expressing the same thing. It is also important to note that *negative evidence* and *negative feedback* differs from the common definition: feedback that is disapproving, pessimistic, or unconstructive. Negative feedback in this respect is an aspect of *affective feedback*, which is presented in the following section.

Affective and cognitive feedback

Though corrective feedback can be an important aspect of interaction in the language classroom, we expanded Lyster and Ranta's (1997) sequence to include other types of interactive feedback appearing in the literature and PUT exchanges. These include teachers' reactions to learners' utterances and metalinguistic actions, with or without errors, and reactions to learner inaction. Brown (2007), following Vigil and Oller (1976), described these as ***affective feedback*** and ***cognitive feedback***. He notes, "Affective information is primarily

encoded in terms of kinesthetic mechanisms such as gestures, tone of voice, and facial expressions" and "cognitive information is usually conveyed by means of linguistic devices" (p. 271). Both types of feedback can have positive, neutral, or negative effects (see below).

> **Affective feedback**
> **Positive**: Keep talking; I'm listening.
> **Neutral**: I'm not sure I want to maintain this conversation.
> **Negative** This conversation is over.
>
> **Cognitive feedback**
> **Positive**: I understand your message; it's clear.
> **Neutral**: I'm not sure if I correctly understand you or not.
> **Negative**: I don't understand what you're saying; it's not clear. (p. 271)

Considering affective and cognitive feedback, we expanded Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence (Figure 2). Note that since corrective feedback and cognitive feedback have significant overlap, we emphasize affective feedback and corrective feedback in this report:

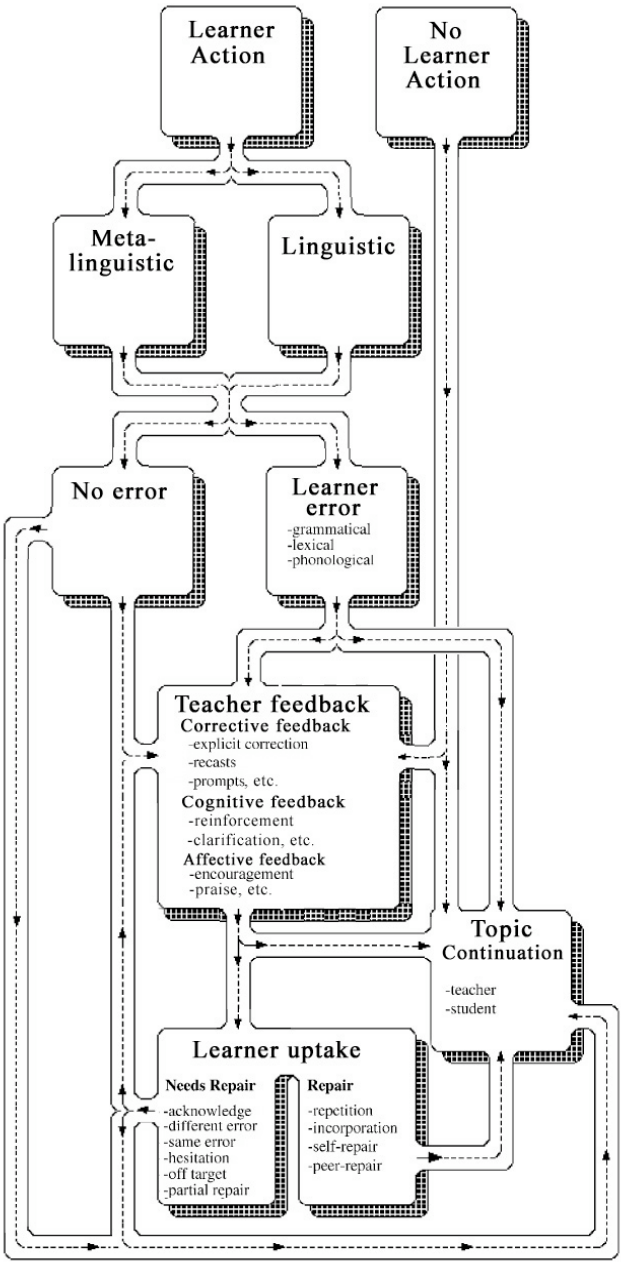

Figure 2: Interactive feedback sequence. Expanded from Lyster & Ranta, 1997

This sequence begins with a student's action, or occasionally, inaction. This action can be linguistic or meta-linguistic. If there is an error, this sequence emulates Lyster and Ranta's (1997) original Error Treatment Sequence (see Figure 1). If the feedback is affective or cognitive, however, stages in the procedure differ, but there is still the possibility for learner uptake (an acknowledgement that the feedback has been received), with repair (showing

evidence that improvement has been made), a continuing need for repair, or the conversation may continue.

There are many types of affective feedback. We offer a few types examples here, with examples from PUT data:

1) ***Reinforcement*** — refers to the teacher's repetition of forms as reinforcement:

S: I went to...Sakae last with my friends
T: You went to Sakae last night with your friends. Okay, good.

2) ***Encouragement*** — refers to the teacher's effort to encourage students:

S: Uhm... Company can't them…like… Uh… I don't….
T: Try… Try, try…
S: What did you say?
T: Just try it.

3) ***Praise*** — refers to the teacher's use of praise, often as a motivational device:

S1: Why Global Warming makes…?
T: Wait, wait, wait. One more time. Why does…?
S1: Why does Global Warming make this problem?
T: Good.

Besides exploring corrective, affective, and cognitive feedback, we also considered other phenomena related to interactive feedback in our data:

1) ***Missed opportunity*** — when a teacher is unaware of an opportunity for productive feedback:

S1: If this present situation continues, Japanese people will be able to write Japanese language.
T: One more time, "If this present situation continues…"
S2: If this present situation continues, Japanese people will be unable to…
T: Unable, okay.
S1: Unable…to write Japanese language.
T: Why?

2) ***Unintentional feedback*** — when a teacher is unaware of how the feedback is being received:

T: [Pointing to the text] So you can ask these questions here. You can ask that question, ”Do you know?” Oh, you already asked that.
S3: [Laughing]

3) ***Selective feedback*** — when a teacher chooses a particular aspect, often from among several, to react to:

S: I heard recently old people want to work long time, so I agree. They should work…
T: They should continue…

4) ***Feedback avoidance*** — when a teacher purposefully avoids giving feedback:

S: For example, Aomori’s salary is cheaper than Nagoya or Tokyo.
T: Aomori is a rural area in Japan?
S: Rural. Yes.
T: And their salaries are…cheaper.
S: Much cheaper.
T: Much cheaper. So McDonald’s will lower prices in rural areas

5) ***Detrimental feedback*** — when feedback inhibits students’ learning or motivation.

(No confirmed examples in the PUT data.)

There were many instances of affective feedback in the data. The use of gestures, pointing, shrugging, smiling, and the like, is common for teachers in this program. Though affective feedback is an important aspect of interaction that teachers are already employing in the PUT, we believe that teachers should develop a balanced approach to giving feedback by considering the effect it might have on students. Negative affective feedback, such as a stern glance, harsh words, yawning, or inattention, is often a demotivating force. With the main objective in the PUT being increasing students’ confidence in using English, it is important to provide the appropriate feedback to achieve this.

This is not an endorsement for excessive positive affective feedback or avoiding error correction altogether. This may reinforce errors already being made by a student (Virgil and Oller, p. 275). Thus, a major challenge for teachers in the PUT is finding the balance between

correcting student errors and providing opportunities for them to produce language. With this in mind, corrective feedback and affective feedback should be seen as tools that teachers employ in appropriate situations.

Instructional Context

Power-Up! Tutorial *Rooms, Materials, and Procedures*

The tutorials meet in 1 of 3 rooms, arranged in a row, each with 4 or 5 tables, audio/visual equipment, a chalkless blackboard, wall maps and posters, a shelf for students' bags, and a carpeted floor. Classroom size allows for tutoring at individual tables and ease in changing groups, a process essential for recursive conversation practice, which is defined as "successive practice *with meaning*" (Kindt, 2005).

In short, the purpose of the PUT program is to increase students': 1) confidence in speaking English, 2) oral communication skills, 3) strategic competence, 4) active engagement, and 5) learner autonomy. To do this, a Class Leader (CL) and 3 or 4 teachers instruct a class of 12 to 15 students following a recommended curriculum based on the textbook *Tools for Increasing Proficiency in Speaking* (Kindt & Barnard, 2007). In the 2007 school year, the 22 sections of the PUT met once a week for 90 minutes. They were led by 4 different CLs assisted by 12 teachers. Class Leaders are responsible for class structure and logistics, presentation of material, and topics. The teachers are responsible for some presentation of material and facilitating conversations with students at individual tables.

To facilitate conversations, each week students make a conversation card based on a topic assigned by the CL. Students talk about the assigned topic with support from their cards in the subsequent class, except when transcriptions are assigned after periodic recordings. Topics are introduced in the latter part of each class period and students review example conversations and make cards as homework. In the following class, the topic is reintroduced and students ostensively increase their ability to discuss the topic with successive practice

conversations. The use of conversation cards, near-peer conversation examples, and other recursive tools, is supported by several educators (Kindt, 2001; Murphey, 2001; Murphey & Kenny, 1998; Schneider, 1993) and is based upon theories of experiential (Kohonen, 1989; Kolb, 1984), situated (Greeno, 1998; Kirschner & Whitson, 1997), constructivist (Lantolf, 2000; Williams & Burden, 1997), and reflective (Boud, 1985; Tsui, 1997) learning.

Each 90-minute class generally follows a 15/20/20/20/15-minute pattern. An introduction or re–introduction activity is presented in the first 15 minutes, followed by 3 consecutive 20-minute blocks for recursive practice, concluding with an introduction to the topic for the next class in the final 15 minutes. This is a guideline, but the majority of class time is spent conversing in small groups (See Kindt, 2003).

Impact of context

The *Power Up! Tutorial* is a unique classroom setting. Unlike the 6 years in junior and senior high school that students spent predominantly listening to teachers present rules and explanations of the intricacies of English, when they entered the PUT they soon discovered an emphasis on speaking. While some students find this refreshing and challenging, others find the communicative classroom intimidating at first. Teachers in the PUT, however, encourage students to concentrate on communicating in English and to view errors as learning opportunities.

Another feature of the PUT is having a teacher at every table. With each of the 3 attempts to talk about a topic, a teacher can gradually decrease his or her speaking time and increase interaction between students. The amount of interaction in L2 and relative closeness between students and students and teachers are unique elements of the PUT, unlike the contexts examined in current error correction research, which were predominantly based on teacher-fronted interaction with the whole class.

Furthermore, as Suzuki (2004) explains, the immersion courses examined in a number of CF studies, include general knowledge as well as the second language in the curriculum (p. 17). In almost every study summarized in the CF meta-analysis by Russell Valezy and Spada (2006), the students are younger than the first-year university students in our research, who generally have fewer opportunities to speak English outside of the classroom and different motivational factors than students studying English or French as a second language (ESL or FSL). These factors definitely have an influence on how PUT students respond to IF and the implications of this exploratory research.

Procedure and Data Collection

In order to investigate IF in the PUT, a close examination of interaction patterns between the teachers and the students in the tutorials was necessary. Following a number of feedback studies (Havranek, 2002; Lochtman, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Morris & Tarone, 2003; Suzuki, 2004; Yamamoto, 2003), video was taken of students at their tables discussing the weekly topic with their teachers. A total of 52 students and 12 teachers were videotaped in 18 conversations that averaged 20 minutes in length. The conversations were based on the topic of the week, emphasizing conversation strategies that were presented in the beginning of class. The conversations involved 2 or 3 students and 1 teacher and no grammar drills or comprehension type practice was involved. Teachers were, however, instructed to give advice before students moved on to different tables.

The topics for the classes examined were “What’s in the news?” and “Me and Learning English” (Kindt & Barnard, 2007). Both of these topics were challenging for the students compared with earlier topics that dealt with hobbies, interests, movies, and the like. The “What’s in the News?” class is based on students’ choices of authentic news articles and prepared questions, with the objectives of promoting understanding and discussion of their articles. During the class, the students gave a short summary of their articles at each table and

the teacher attempted to elicit follow-up questions or promote conversation about the news story with the other two students. Teachers were instructed to encourage students to avoid reading from their prepared cards.

The second topic, "Me and Learning English," was a wrap-up for the first semester and was a group discussion about the students' language learning histories, possible future use of English, and studying a second language in general. Again, teachers were encouraged to have students speak naturally about their cards and ask other students follow-up questions.

Students and teachers were informed that the videos of their conversations were for "research purposes" and permission was obtained from all participants. Data collection was done with a directional microphone connected to a digital camera.

After recording, the videos were transcribed, but only for instances of IF. These instances were classified, defined, and exemplified according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) correctional moves or Virgil and Oller's (1976) affective or cognitive feedback.

Observations

The most common type of error correction found in the PUT data was ***recasts***, or implicit reformulations of all or part of a student's utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 54). According to Lyster and Mori (2006), "recasts are ideal for facilitating the delivery of complex subject matter because they provide supportive, scaffolded help, which serves to move lessons ahead when the target forms in question are beyond the students' current abilities" (p. 273). Scaffolding, as the name suggests, is a way of supporting a student until he or she gains a certain level of proficiency, the teacher gradually pulling back to let the student perform on his or her own. Lightbrown and Spada (2006) define scaffolding as, "The language that an interlocutor uses to support the communicative success of another speaker" (p. 204). There were numerous examples of teachers selectively correcting errors using recasts, especially to lower-level students:

S: From forty to fifty. But it impossible to know the exact number of passengers.
T: Why? Too much dirt?
S: It is difficult to search people.
T: It is difficult to *find* people.
S: Find people.

In conversations with lower-level students, the teachers are often scaffolding, providing vocabulary, and helping with difficult grammar, as the student talks.

Explicit corrections, supplying the student with the correct form and clearly indicating what the student said was incorrect (Lyster & Mori, 2006), were not as common as recasts and tended to occur when teachers apparently felt the need for giving more detailed advice or, at times, when they appeared to be frustrated. The following is an example of a teacher stopping the conversation and giving an explicit correction:

S1: Did you hear about what happened to Alan Johnston?
T: [waiting for other students to answer…] No. What happened?
T: Who is he?
S1: He is a BBC's reporter.
T: *Okay, maybe you can say*, "Did you hear what happened to BBC reporter Alan Johnston?" because he is not… [asking S2 and S3] "Do you know Alan Johnston?"
S2: No.
S3: No.
T: We don't know him.

The third type of IF commonly found in PUT transcripts is ***prompts*** which include elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition. Prompts are different from recasts and explicit corrections in that they offer learners the opportunity to self-repair (Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 271). Except for metalinguistic clues, there are numerous instances of teachers using prompts in the PUT:

1) Elicitation:

T: Do you agree with him that many Japanese people are proud of Ichiro?

S: I agree.
T: [Gestures for student to continue] Because.
S: Because? Because… Japanese… [Looks up word in dictionary.] Because Japanese flourish in other country.

2) Clarification requests:

S: What is German food famous for?
T: Huh? One more time.

3) Repetition:

S1: What would you eat there?
S2: I would eat coconut milk.
T: Wait. You would *eat* coconut juice?
S2: Ah, drink.

Explicit corrections and metalinguistic clues only differ in that explicit corrections contain the correct form of the error and metalinguistic clues do not. There were very few instances of metalinguistic clues in the PUT data. It appears that when talking about an error, teachers stop the conversation and feel they have time to include explicit reference to the error in their advice.

Teachers in the PUT are given course objectives during orientation that stress encouraging students to talk during conversations. As a guideline, the ideal speaking time should be approximately 70% for students during a conversation. Possibly because of this, it is common for some teachers to hesitate to verbally correct student errors unless a break down in communication becomes a problem. This instance is often accompanied by affective feedback, with the teacher nodding his or her head, saying “okay,” or encouraging the student to continue even though they may be struggling to say something.

The data also included evidence of teachers who were actively giving CF to promote natural continuation of the conversation. A teacher providing the student with a recast and then continuing the conversation with a new question is one example:

S: I agree with you, because, now Global Warming is a serious problem in Japan and all over the world. We have to stop increase temperature.
T: Yeah, we have to stop the temperatures *from being raised*. What are you doing about that? Are you doing anything yourself?

In this case, the teacher gave a recast and continued the conversation without interrupting the flow or the student's thought process. The following is an example of a teacher whose attempt at giving CF brings the conversation to a stop:

S: I can't understand law [test subject]. It's very difficult for me.
T: Yeah, it's tough.
S: I can't remember? Remember the law.
T: You can't remember the…words?
S: Uhhh.
T: The legal terms?
S: Hmmmm.

In this case, it appears the student does not understand the suggested recast and the conversation stops, the teacher then asking a different student to talk about her card. Both examples display the need for teachers to consider the role of CF within the objectives of the class, in the above case possibly encouraging the student to finish what he or she is trying to say.

In addition to the various kinds of CF in the PUT, we have defined IF to also include affective feedback, providing the students with reinforcement, encouragement, or praise through gestures, tone of voice, or facial expressions. Presenting instances from the data provides a valuable reference for teachers in the PUT. In this case, a teacher uses affective feedback to encourage students before they begin their conversations:

T: Not. You're going tell your story. And once you finish your story, you can ask your opinion, what you think of this story. And have a conversation. *Very easy…relax.*
S: Uh-huh.

Another tutor uses affective feedback to praise a student:

T: Yeah. Of course not on purpose. They were…
S: Careless.
T: *Very good.* I was waiting for you to say that. They were very careless.

In previous research into the role of CF in the PUT (Miller, 2006), a questionnaire asked teachers their preferred way of giving CF. The most popular answer was eliciting correct forms from students. In examining the transcripts of actual interaction, however, recasts were by far the most common mode of CF given by teachers. This may be because a recast is the quickest way to offer a correction and still allow the conversation to continue:

S: What's new? Uhhh, yesterday night…
T: *Last night.*
S: Last night I called with my friends for too long.

In this case, the teacher noticed the error in the middle of the student's sentence, correcting with a recast. The student then repeated the correction (demonstrating uptake) and continued speaking. If the teacher had tried to elicit the correction, it is possible the student would have forgotten how she was going to finish the sentence, disrupting the continuity of their conversation.

The connection between eliciting or giving a recast and the long-term effect on L2 development is disputed (Havranek, 2002; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Yamamoto, 2003). The effectiveness of recasts is greatly dependent on the interactional context of which a recast is provided (Oliver & Mackey, 2003). If the objective of the class is to build confidence and a teacher is using recasts to scaffold a speaker who is having problems with vocabulary, then using recasts may be an effective method of CF.

We also observed in the video data an inclination for individual teachers to use 1 or 2 types of IF, depending on the students' levels. Most teachers used recasts and one other form of IF.

One teacher, for example, used 6 recasts and 2 elicitations in a 20-minute conversation. This tendency showed that students are adjusting to different teachers' CF propensities, necessitating an adjustment to teachers' particular feedback methods.

There was also some evidence of teachers modifying their IF to meet the speaking levels of the students. Teachers appear to be more tolerant of mistakes with lower-level students. It also appears that in this situation, teachers tend to not react to errors immediately, dealing with the errors in more detail later in the session.

Implications and Further Study

1) Teachers and students need a basic awareness of Interactive Feedback

From the data in this study, we believe it would greatly benefit the effectiveness of feedback if teachers familiarize themselves with the various IF types, concepts, and procedures and be prepared to use them in particular contexts and at the request of the Class Leaders. The leaders could have teachers focus on certain IF approaches depending on the objectives of the lesson. For example, procedures could be established for specific instances, such as emphasizing recasts, to scaffold conversations for lower-level students or using elicitation with higher-level students. Students could also benefit from an awareness of the different types of IF and likely have a better understanding of how and why the teachers are correcting students' errors.

2) An emphasis on elicitation and self-correction

Sometimes teachers feel responsible to correct students as they make errors, as if correcting validates their purpose or *not* correcting is negligent. It is important for the teachers to understand the context of IF and, at times, emphasize the production of English, the building of students' confidence, or attempts at self-correction. Studies have shown that simply supplying correct forms and lengthy explanations do not necessarily promote acquisition (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, 1998; Smith, 2005; Suzuki, 2004). Teachers should also

help students understand that errors are a natural and necessary part of the learning process and that the effort to self-correct is beneficial (Alanen, 1995; Carroll & Swain, 1993).

3) Using affective feedback

Second Language Learners in general and PUT students specifically need encouragement and praise at times to increase confidence in speaking English. Teachers should not underestimate the value of affective feedback and the important role it has in IF. Affective feedback has positive, neutral, and negative modes, but teachers should emphasize the positive when helping students build confidence and self-esteem.

4) Consistency in teachers' Interactive Feedback

In looking at the results of this investigative study, there is a great degree of variability in IF procedures among teachers, which requires students to adapt to individual teachers' tendencies and the varieties of IF they are employing. Some teachers have a propensity to rely on the same method of IF repeatedly. Building an awareness of different methods of IF and how to use them would not only clarify the roles of teachers towards IF, but would help students understand lesson objectives. To improve the effectiveness of feedback, teachers need to consider ways to achieve consistent use of the *various* IF moves depending on the needs of particular students. Because PUT teachers teach in the same room, they participate in a type of team-teaching. A team working together can be more effective than 4 individuals doing different things in the classroom at the same time.

5) Aligning tutor and student expectations

Power Up! Tutorial students are aware from early in the course that they will be studying in a unique environment with a 3-to-1 student-to-teacher ratio. Their expectations are high, but what exactly are they thinking? From previous research in the PUT, most students indicated that they expected every error to be corrected (Miller 2007, p. 169). Teachers, however, were less likely to correct an error depending on factors such as not wanting to interrupt the flow

of the conversation or encouraging students to produce. This gap in expectations could likely be realigned if teachers and students were more aware of the varieties of IF and a better understanding how to implement them.

6) Future studies

Combining video data with a follow-up questionnaire or interviews is one way to further explore how students perceive feedback-related interactions in conversations. Researchers, for example, could explore student expectations—both before and after conversations—leading to a greater understanding of the effects of IF moves. Researchers could also determine how aware students are of corrections, how well they understood the corrections, and whether or not uptake occurred. This approach would be effective in furthering our understanding of the nature of exchanges between teachers and students and offering suggestions for making tutorials more effective.

Conclusion

This exploratory study of IF in the PUT provides insights into the actual exchanges in first-year oral communication tutorials in the SCIS at NUFS. We examined a number of important issues and concepts in feedback in language learning and teaching and found that a broad view was necessary to better understand the effects of feedback. Relying on examples from transcripts of PUT interaction, we combined *corrective*, *affective*, and *cognitive feedback* into the superordinate *Interactive Feedback* (IF) to help explore the nature of feedback in the PUT.

Once IF was defined, several examples from PUT transcripts were examined. Results showed that while recasts were most common form of IF, teachers were also using other IF moves. There was evidence that teachers predominantly employed one or two IF moves per session, displaying an IF propensity, and students were likely adapting to the individual methods of

each teacher. With this in mind, we recommend that teachers and students increase their awareness of IF moves to improve the effectiveness of feedback in the PUT.

Though this exploratory study has increased our understanding of IF in the PUT, it has also led to several opportunities for future research. Exploring these will provide further insights into effective ways to promote learning in the PUT specifically and in IF in general.

Appendix 1

Interactive Feedback Terms, Definitions, and Examples

Corrective Feedback	
1. Explicit correction	The teacher gives the correct form and clearly indicates what the student said was wrong.
	S: Did you know what happened to Ala Johnston? T: Okay, we wouldn't say that. We would say, "Did you hear about what happened to Alan Johnston?
2. Recasts	The teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance minus the error. Implicit: NOT introduced by "You mean," "Use this word," and "You should say."
	S: I hope to be white skin. T: To have S: To have white skin but I don't want to have white skin…illegal
3. Prompts	Four different methods that push learners to self-repair.
a. Elicitation	The teacher directly elicits a correction from a student
	S: If this present situation continues, Japanese people will be able to write Japanese language. T: One more time, "if this present situation continues…" S: If this present situation continues, Japanese people will be unable to T: Unable, okay.
b. Clarification requests	Feedback to students that their utterance is not understood.
	S: He got crashed his car. T: Huh? He what?
c. Repetition	The teacher repeats the mistake adjusting intonation to highlight the error.
	S1: What would you eat there? S2: I would eat coconut milk. T: Wait. You would *eat* coconut juice? S2: Ah, drink.
d. Metalinguistic clues	The teacher provides comments, information, or questions about the student's utterance without providing the correct form.
	S1: Where is it? S2: In Florida. S3: How long will you want to go? T: Hm.... S1: Stay? T: [Pointing at the board] Today's language, not will. S1: Would.

	T: "Would" is…imagine. "Will" means, she *is* going. S2: Ohhh. T: Are you going? S2: No. T: Maybe? So "would."
Affective Feedback	Feedback from the teacher that is based on emotion such as gestures, tone of voice, and facial expressions in the form of reinforcement, encouragement, or praise.
a. Reinforcement	The teacher's asking for or giving repetition of forms.
	T: So if you don't understand remember you gotta ask, "Sorry, did you say…?" "What did you say?" Clarify…
b. Encouragement	The teacher's effort to encourage the student.
	S: Uhm... Company can't them…like… Uh… I don't…. T: Try… Try, try… S: What did you say? T: Just try it.
c. Praise	The teacher's use of praise, often for positive motivation.
	S1: Why Global Warming makes…? T: Wait, wait, wait. One more time. Why does…? S1: Why does Global Warming make this problem? T: Good.
Cognitive Feedback	Feedback from the teacher in the form of sounds, phrases, structures or discourses.
Other Items Related to Interactive Feedback	
a. Missed opportunity	When a teacher is unaware of the opportunity for productive feedback.
	S1: If this present situation continues, Japanese people will be able to write Japanese language. T: One more time, "If this present situation continues…" S2: If this present situation continues, Japanese people will be unable to… T: Unable, okay. S1: Unable…to write Japanese language. T: Why?
b. Unintentional feedback	When a teacher is unaware of how the feedback is being received.
	T: [Pointing to text] So you can ask these questions here. You can ask that question, "Do you know?" Oh, you already asked that. S: [Laughing]
c. Selective feedback	When a teacher chooses a particular aspect, often from among

	several, to react to.
	S: I heard recently old people want to work long time, so I agree. They should work… T: They should continue…
d. Feedback avoidance	When a teacher purposefully avoids giving feedback
	S: For example, Aomori's salary is cheaper than Nagoya or Tokyo. T: Aomori is a rural area in Japan? S: Rural. Yes. T: And their salaries are…cheaper. S: Much cheaper. T: Much cheaper. So McDonald's will lower prices in rural areas
e. Detrimental feedback	When feedback inhibits students' learning or motivation
	T: He was captured by a what? S: I don't understand…what is a terrorist? T: I can't believe you don't know that.
Uptake	A student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that is a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance.
Repair	A student's correct reformulation of an error.
a. Repetition	Repeating a teacher's correct form
b. Incorporation	Repetition is incorporated into a longer sentence.
c. Self-repair	Produced by the student who made the initial error in response to the teacher's feedback when the correct form is not provided.
d. Peer-repair	A correction from a student other than the one who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback.

Appendix 2

Sample Transcription

S1: …but this year's hot dog eating competition, he lost Joey Chestnut.

T: Joey Chestnut...so, he lost *to* Joey Chestnut…this time. How many times has Tsunami won? How many times did he win?

S1: He won six times.

T: But the last time he lost?

S1: He lost because he can't open his mouth.

T: He *couldn't* open his mouth.

S1: Couldn't, couldn't.

S2: I think he is smart. I heard, I heard about him, he think eating food is work or job.

T: Oh, he thinks this contest is his job?

S2: He, he…

T: Does he have another job? Because this job is only once a year.

S1: Maybe he doesn't mind about prize.

T: Oh, he doesn't care about the prize.

S1: He wants the pride and the, yeah, he wants to succeed and win is important but what he gets isn't important. Yeah.

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