CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides discussion of the theoretical review underlying the study. The theoretical review will be synthesized to outline the theoretical framework that is used by the researcher to conduct the whole study.

2.1 Theoretical Review

2.1.1 Classroom Interaction

In the language teaching, classroom is a main place for the target language learner to explore the target language. As Tsui stated that "in situations where the target language is seldom used outside the classroom, the students' exposure to the target language is therefore mainly in the classroom" (1995: p. 12). Certainly, this situation is supported by the interaction happened in the classroom. Allwright defined interaction in the classroom as the fundamental fact of classroom pedagogy because "everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction" (1984: p. 156). Further, Chaudron viewed interaction as significant because it is argued that only through interaction the learner can decompose the teaching learning structures and derive meaning from classroom events (1988: p. 10). Thus, in order to reach the goals of learning, interaction should be treated well in the classroom.

The concept of interaction is defined as “reciprocal events that require at least two objects and two actions. Interaction occurs when these objects and events naturally influence one another” (Wagner, 1994: p. 8). Therefore, interactions do not occur only from one side, there must be mutual influence through giving and receiving messages in order to achieve communication. Then it becomes teacher’s role in the classroom to manage who should talk, to whom, on what topic, in what language and so on.

In the field of L2 acquisition, a great deal of researchers reveals to a great extent the importance of classroom interaction that involves both input and output (Allwright, 1984; Ellis, 1990; Long, 1983; Swain, 1985). The Interaction Hypothesis claims that it is in the interaction process that acquisition occurs; learners acquire through talking with others (Johnson, 2002: p. 95). Van Lier (cited in Xiao, 2006: p. 28) points out “if the keys to learning are exposure to input and meaningful interaction with other speakers, we must find out what input and interaction the classroom can provide... we must study in detail the use of language in the classroom in order to see if and how learning comes about through the different ways of interaction in the classroom”. Since language holds a crucial part in the functions of interaction (Walsh, 2011: p. 2), it is necessary to portray the language used during classroom interaction especially used by the teacher as a comprehensible input.

2.1.2 Classroom Discourse

Discourse simply defined by Cook as "the language in use" (1989: p. 6). This definition has not clearly understood since it doesn't give a complete explanation that differ discourse and language. Obviously, Rymes stresses that discourse is a language used within a context (2006: p. 13). Thus it is different with a language, since discourse matters with what and why something is being talked.

Bernstein's theory establishes that pedagogic discourse is made up of two discourse; regulative discourse and instructional discourse (Bernstein, cited in Christie, 1995: p. 221). Regulative discourse is a discourse of order which translates the dominant values of society and regulates the form of how knowledge is transmitted. It relates with the overall goals of the activity and to the sequencing of teaching-learning behavior such as moral values, behavior, orderliness, character, identity and attitude. While instructional discourse is a discourse of competence that refers to what is transmitted. Thus, it relates with the content knowledge or subject being taught.

The definition of discourse as language-in-use builds on ideas from the functional linguist M.A.K. Halliday, who emphasized that different forms have different functions. According to Halliday (2004) in Flowerdew (2012: p. 23), there are two basic functions in conversational interaction: giving and demanding. Another pair of variables concerns what is given or demanded: this may be either goods and services or information. These four variables give four primary speech functions

known as initiation: offering, commanding, stating and questioning. The detailed example of speech functions explained by the table below:

Commodity exchanged	**Role in exchange**	**Initiating speech function**	**Responding speech functions**	
			Supporting	**Confronting**
Goods and services	Give	**Offer:** Would you like this cake?	**Acceptance:** Yes, please, do!	**Rejection** No, don't bother.
	Demand	**Command**: Give me that cake!	**Compliance** All right	**Refusal** No, I can't
Information	Give	**Statement:** He's giving her the cake.	**Acknowledgment** Oh, is he?	**Contradiction** No, he isn't
	Demand	**Question:** What is he giving her?	**Answer** A cake	**Disclaimer** I don't know

Table 2.1.2 The speech functions and responses by Halliday (2004)

In Halliday's model of speech functions, the exchanges consist of two units (Initiation and Response). Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) cited in Flowerdew (2012: p. 25) noticed that in their classroom data, exchanges are made up of three units. They referred to as moves: an initiation, a responses and a follow-up, as in:

Initiation: What's the capital of France?
Response: Paris
Follow-up: Right.

Nunan pointed out that teachers play an important role in shaping classroom discourse and in maximizing opportunities for learning, and teacher talk is crucial for both the organization of the classroom and the processes of L2 acquisitions. It is

important for the organization and management of classroom because it is through speech that teachers either succeed or fail to implement their teaching plan (1991: p. 189).

2.1.3 Teacher's Instruction

In educational context instruction is seen as process of teaching, instructions will cover the sequences of imparting knowledge that are started from gaining students' attention, presenting materials and supplying learning directions, drawing out performances, until assessing the performance and giving informative feedback on it (Gredler, 2009: p.165). Eisner even refined that instruction include those activities that are planned and executed by the teacher which are intended to move pupils toward the attainment of the educational objectives held by the teacher (1964: p.117). Thus, whatever teachers do in the classroom that is intended to result in learning may be called as instruction.

Meanwhile, instruction can also be seen as a technique which needs to be mastered by the teacher in teaching learning activity (Haycraft, 1978, p.6-8). As Ur stated that one of teacher's functions in the classroom is as an instructor (2012, p.16). As the instructor, teacher delivers a series of directives that are possibly combined with explanations in order to get students to do certain activity, for example doing the task (Watson, 2008, p.26). Harmer even emphasized that giving instruction is one of the most important thing that teacher does in the classroom (2012, p.153).

The study focus on the instruction used as statement that describes how to do something. The statement of instruction is commonly in the form of orders and directions because it is intended to direct the students into the learning activities or tasks by explaining what they are expected to perform, what they are to do in the activity and what the procedures and strategies in completing the task are. Studies on teacher's talk showed that most utterances produced by instructors are those which function to guide and get students to do something (Merdana et al., 2013; Suparno, 2013; Majid Wadji, n.d.). This is in line with Ur that defined instructions as the directions that are given for introducing a learning task which entails some measure of independent mental activity (1991, cited in Liruso & Debat, 2003, p.143). Thus, instruction is seen as a facilitation of the teacher to help students understand what they are supposed to do to achieve certain outcome.

Hyland explained that instruction can help teacher to engage three kinds of activities, which are textual act (instructing students to refer to texts- related to the learning materials), physical act (getting students into "a research process or real world action"), and cognitive act (guiding students to "understand a point in a particular way") (2002: p. 217).

Instruction can signify the thinking level required in a learning activity or task and clarify what students are supposed to do in completing the task (Childs and Ryan, 2003: p. 1). Scrivener also mentioned "some recognizing elements of an instruction" that consist of a frame (signal of the activity transition), an overview of the task and its purpose, the organization of the task in grouping or individually, the

procedure (the activity that will be doing), the outcome (learning activity demanded or expected), a strategy (given to be adopted as assistance in doing task) (2012, p. 129).

Giving instructions can also be one of processes of inputting the knowledge to students, especially for EFL learners because the classroom exclusively comes to be an ideal place for learners to learn English if it allows learners to be in continuous contact with teachers who speak the target language and with peer learners who can practice the language together to help in learning. As Stern professed that "if the second language is learnt as a foreign language in a language class in a non-supportive environment, instruction is likely to be the major or even the only source of target language input" (1983: p. 400).

The instruction that teacher gives to students can be recognized based on the perspective of speech art theory that instructions are commonly given in the form of imperative, interrogative, and declarative through order, warning request, and advice (Amalsaleh, 2010: p. 21).

In summary, instruction that becomes the focus in the study is statement used to assist them in executing a task given or carrying out a learning activity. The teacher has to be aware of making students understand what they are going to do in order to make them involved and get the benefit from the activity they are practicing. It is important because the learning objectives will not be achieved unless the students comprehend well what they are going to do with the activity they are working on.

2.1.4 Cognitive Domain

Smith explained thinking as an information processing mentally or cognitively by rearranging the information from the environment and past memory (2001: p. 43). Apprehend the thinking process is quite difficult, because it more likes a complex network of interactive capabilities rather than a linear, hierarchical, or spiral process (King, Rohani, & Goodson, 1997: p. 18). Though, Dewey stated that thinking does not occur spontaneously but must be “evoked” by “problems and questions” or by “some perplexity, confusion or doubt” (cited in King, Rohani, & Goodson, 1997: p. 18). It is assumed that the thinking process can be triggered.

In order to make a judgment of the thinking ability it is needed a framework of learning objectives. The division of learning objectives into separate domains has been largely accepted by educators since the landmark effort by Bloom and his group in 1956s. Bloom's group established three categories of educational objectives, which they called affective, cognitive, and psychomotor. In this study, the researcher focused on the cognitive process which is include the cognitive dimension and knowledge dimension.

The cognitive domain involves knowledge and the development of intellectual skills, which includes the recall or recognition of specific facts, procedural patterns, and concepts that serve in the development of intellectual abilities and skills. It contains six levels, known as knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Krathwohl, 2002: p. 213).

2.1.4.1 Types of Knowledge

Anderson et. al (2001) professed that knowledge dimension emphasizes what students know (knowledge). This dimension contains four categories. Those four categories are placed from concrete (Factual) to abstract (Metacognitive).

1) Factual knowledge

   Anderson and Krathwohl (2001. p.45) stated that factual knowledge is knowledge of discrete, isolated content element "bit of information", and contains the basic elements students must know if they are supposed to solve any of the problems in it. The elements are usually symbols related to some concrete referents, or a set of symbols that convey important information.

2) Conceptual Knowledge

   According to Anderson and Krathwohl (2001, p.48), Conceptual knowledge is deeper than the factual knowledge, it includes schemas, mental models, or implicit or explicit theories represent the knowledge in different cognitive psychological models and these schemas, model, and theories represent the knowledge an individual has about how a particular subject matter is organized and structured. There are three subtypes in this knowledge; (1) knowledge of classifications and categories, (2) knowledge of principles and generalizations, and (3) knowledge of theories, models, and structures.

3) Procedural Knowledge

Anderson and Krathwohl (2001, p. 51-53) defined that procedural knowledge is “the knowledge of how” to do something. The something might range from completing fairy routine exercises to solving novel problem. Procedural knowledge often takes the form of a series or sequence of step to be followed. It includes knowledge of subject-specific skills and algorithms, knowledge of subject specific techniques and method, and procedural knowledge also include knowledge of criteria for determining when to use various procedures.

4) Metacognitive Knowledge

Anderson and Krathwohl (2001, p. 55) stated that metacognitive knowledge is knowledge about cognition in general as well as awareness of and knowledge about one’s own cognition. One of the hallmarks of theory and research on learning is the emphasis of making students more aware and responsible for their own knowledge and thought. Metacognitive knowledge includes strategic knowledge, knowledge about cognitive task, including contextual and conditional knowledge, and also self-knowledge.

2.1.4.2 Level of Thinking

In order to fit the more outcome-focused modern education objectives, Anderson and Krathwohl revised Bloom’s Taxonomy by switching the names of the levels from nouns to active verbs. As the result, the word ‘knowledge’ was replaced

with the word ‘remembering’. Then, the words ‘comprehension’ and ‘synthesis’ were re-titled to ‘understanding’ and ‘creating’ respectively, in order to better reflect the nature of the thinking defined in each category (Krathwohl, 2002: p. 214-215). The structure of the Revised Taxonomy provides a clear goals, objectives, products, and activities (Krathwohl, 2002: p. 218). Moreover, Revised Bloom’s Taxonomy ensures a fit between a lesson’s purposes and learning objective.

Table 2.1.4 Revised Bloom’s Taxonomy by Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001

Level	**Key verbs**
Remember: Retrieve relevant knowledge from long-term memory. (Anderson, et al., p. 67)	Choose, define, describe, find, identify, label, list, locate, match, name, recall, recite, recognize, record, relate, retrieve, say, select, show, sort, and tell.
Understand: Construct meaning from instructional messages, including oral, written, and graphic communication. (Anderson, et al., p. 67)	Categorize, clarify, classify, compare, conclude, construct, contrast, demonstrate, distinguish, explain, illustrate, interpret, match, paraphrase, predict, represent, reorganize, summarize, translate, and understand.
Apply: Carry out or use a procedure in a given situation. (Anderson, et al., p. 67)	Apply, carry out, construct, develop, display, execute, illustrate, implement, model, solve, and use.

Analyze: Break material into its constituent parts and determine how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose. (Anderson, et al., p. 68)	Analyze, ascertain, attribute, connect, deconstruct, determine, differentiate, discriminate, dissect, distinguish, divide, examine, experiment, focus, infer, inspect, integrate, investigate, organize, outline, reduce, solve (a problem), and test for.
Evaluate: Make judgments based on criteria and standards. (Anderson, et al., p. 68)	Appraise, assess, award, check, conclude, convince, coordinate, criticize, critique, defend, detect, discriminate, evaluate, judge, justify, monitor, prioritize, rank, recommend, support, test, and value.
Create: Put elements together to form a coherent or functional whole; reorganize elements into a new pattern or structure; inventing a product. (Anderson, et al., p. 68)	Adapt, build, compose, construct, create, design, develop, elaborate, extend, formulate, generate, hypothesize, invent, make, modify, plan, produce, originate, refine, and transform.

2.2 Previous Study

A considerable number of studies have been published on this topic. A study of Emic analysis by Abhakorn concerned on how teacher-students' interaction develop thinking skills. The participant of his study was thirty seven junior high school students. He found that even the teacher-talks in classroom context only develop lower-order thinking skills of knowledge recall and information given, but

there is still an interrelationship between patterns of teacher-talks and thinking skills development (Abhakorn, 2013: p. 120).

Jannati conducted a study about instructions to analyze the discourse variation used by in teacher's instruction based on Holmes (1982). She also analyzed the teacher's instructions that led to students' higher order thinking. From one-hundred eleven instructions that had been analyzed, twenty-one of them led to students' cognitive process. The result showed that the use of high-level instructions (create) still limited (2013: p. 49).

Octaviani also conducted a study on this topic in the classes of ELTM 2 course in ELESP UNJ. She analyzed the use of teacher's instructions in the two basic of functions, which were instructions to signify and to clarify. She then classified it based on Revised Bloom's Taxonomy. Further, she analyzed the students' responses to the teacher stimulation. The results showed that provision of instructions do not only help students realizing what they are supposed to perform but also to do the performances (2015: p. 62).

The explanations above obviously widened the researcher's insight on the topic of study that conducted by the researcher. Though, the study focused on the instructions given by the teacher during the classroom interaction in senior high school.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

The main focus of the study was the teachers' instructions given during the classroom interaction. The coded instructions were based on two basic functions of instruction by Childs and Ryan (2013), and were specified into some purposes as mentioned by Scrivener (2012), Ur (1991), and Watson (1997). Instruction that functioned to signify the thinking level demanded covers the purposes to inform the overview of the task and the outcome or result demanded. Instruction that functioned to clarify the learning activity covers the purposes to tell the procedure, the strategy and the direction.

The utterances of instruction that demanded the learning activity were then analyzed based on the Revised Bloom's Taxonomy to see how extent teacher's instructions enabled students' thinking ability.