People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University-Jijel

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English

The Effect of Teacher's Negative Feedback on   Learners'

Uptake and Preliminary Intake

Case Study: Second Year Students of English at Mohammed SeddikBen YahiaUniversity, Jijel

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment for the Requirements of a

Master Degree in Language Sciences

Submitted by: Supervised by:

Selwa CHIKER   Redouane NAILI

Miyyada NOUARI

Board of Examiners:

Chairperson:Mr. Slimane BOUKHENTACHE   University of Mohammed SeddikBen Yahia-Jijel

Examiner: Mrs. Chadia CHIOUKH   University of Mohammed SeddikBen Yahia-Jijel

Supervisor: Mr. Redouane NAILI   University of Mohammed SeddikBen Yahia-Jijel

Academic Year: 2017-2018

Dedication

I lovingly dedicate this humble work to:

*To the most precious people to my heart; for their everlasting affection, tenderness, endless love and patience. **To my special family**.*

***To my father Ahmed**, for earning an honest living for us and for supporting and encouraging me to believe in myself.*

***To my mother Massaouda**, a strong and gentle soul who taught me to trust in Allah, believe in hard work and that so much could be done by little.*

*To my beloved **Brothers: Chouaib, Haroun** and **Khaled** for their support, love, encouragement, and help.*

*To my brother **Tarek,** for believing in me from my first day at school, for supporting me all the time and for his motivation during hard times.*

*To my lovely **sisters: Samah** and **Yasmine** for their unconditional support and advice.*

To my sisters and Brothers-in-law.

To the angels of the family:

*My nephews: **Kinane, Yasser** and **Amir**.*

*My nieces: **Chahd Nouran, Douaa, Tesnime** and **Takwa.***

*To a **special person** in my life, for believing in me and for sowing hope in my life.*

*To my work partner: **Middo***

Selwa

Dedication

I dedicate this work to:

The most precious people to my heart, the ones who can never be thanked enough, for the overwhelming love and care they gave me. To the candles who always enlighten my path, the ones who were the source of motivation during moments of despair and discouragement. My dear mother **Maryam** *and beloved father* **Ahmed**.

My beloved brothers: **Djamel, Ammar, Khaled** *and* **Walid***for their endless love, motivationand constant support.*

My lovely sisters: **Nouria**, **Aida**, **Samira** *and***Asma** *for providing me with strength, hope and help.*

My nephews: **Momo***,***Wael***,***Achraf***,***Zyad***,***Ilyes***and* **Amine**.

My nieces: **Nour***,***Nesrine***,***Douaa**, **Lina***,***Hanine**, **Sara***,***Darine**, **Sirine***,***Ghada**, **Sara**, **Rymand Djana**.

My uncle, my aunt and their families.

*My best friends:***Amel**, **Aisha***,***Yasmina.** *My work partner* **Selwa,** *and my lovely cousins* **Khawla** *and* **Maryam**.

Every one with a red line under their names in Microsoft word.

All those who were there for me, believed in me and prayed for my success.

Miyyada

Acknowledgements

In the name of Allah, the most Merciful, the most Gracious. All praise be to Allah the Sustainer of the worlds

First and foremost, we would like to thank God Almighty who supplied us with the strength, guidance and courage to undertake this research. Without His blessings, this work would not havebeen possible.

Special appreciation and sincere gratitude goes to our supervisor, Mr. RedouaneNAILI for his guidance, motivation, constant advice, patience and invaluable help from the early stages of this research.

We would like to thank deeply the board of examiners: MrSlimane BOUKHENTACHE and MrsChadia CHIOUKH for accepting to evaluate this piece of research.

An immense gratitude goes for the participant teacher for her collaboration and kindness.

We would like to thank the second year students of group six fortheir participation and collaborationduring the classroom observation andfor taking the time to be tested.

We would also like to express our sincere thanks to the staff at Mohammed SeddikBen Yahia University especially the English department.

Our acknowledgement would be incomplete without thanking the biggest source of our strength, our families for their love and endless support.

We are grateful to all people who indirectly contributed in this dissertation

Abstract

A twofold aim is set for thiscurrent research: to investigate to which extent teacher's negative feedback moves have an effect on learners' uptakein terms of their correctness, immediacy and source; and second, to investigatemore in-depth learning or comprehension of the aspects corrected, referred to as preliminary intake. Five separate observations were taken of interaction in a class of 33 Second Year students ofEnglish at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel, andtaught by the same teacher. They were followed by tests exploring understanding of the language aspects that were originally corrected by the teacher for the 14 students who made errors.Some negative feedback moves are hypothesized to besignificantly more frequent than others in the classsroom, and have varied effects on learners'uptake (immediate or delayed responses, self-repair, peer repair and needs-repair) and preliminary intake (or comprehension). The results of the investigation revealed that recastsare the most frequently used moves, outnumbering the sum of metalinguistic feedbackand explicit correction; whereas elicitations and clarification requests are only minimally used.As for its effect on students' uptake,59.5% of negative feedback moveswere found to be assisting students in doing repairs successfuly.Written and oral tests results have shown that negative feedback may not result in long term learning or preliminary intakeof the aspects corrected. However,prepositions seem to have benefited more from teacher's explicit correction, auxiliary to have and if conditional from teacher's recasts and possessive adjectives from both explicit correction and recasts, almost equally.

   *Keywords***:** negative feedback, uptake, preliminary intake.

List of Abbreviations

CF: Corrective Feedback

EFL:English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FonF: Focus on Form

L1:   First Language

L2:   Second Language

N:Number

NF: Negative Feedback

S: Student

SLA: Second language Acquisition

Ss: Students

T: Teacher

List of Figures

List of Tables

Contents

References

Appendices

Résumé

ملخص

General Introduction

1. Review of Previous Research

2. Statement of the Problem

3. Aims of The Study

4. Research Questions

5. Research Hypotheses

6. Means of The Study

7. The Sturucture of The Study

Introduction

The effectiveness of providing corrective feedback to learners has been the matter of contention between behaviorist, naturalistic and communicative approaches to learning. The behaviorists maintained that learner errors should be suppressed and immediate action should be taken to rid the learners of them (Brooks, 1960). The naturalists insisted that acquisition does not occur following instruction, and that correction of errors is damaging to learning because such procedures result in explicit knowledge that cannot be internalized unless learners receive sufficient comprehensible input into how language works; instead,communicative activities centered on meaning are sufficient for learning. (Terrell, 1977; Krashen, 1981, 1982). More recent developments favor the provision of feedback to learners regarding the correctness and appropriateness of their responses and is believed to facilitate second language development by providing learners with both positive and negative evidence (cited in Nordal, 2014, p. 3). Providing negative feedback to learners is often presumed to enable students to identify gaps in their knowledge, recognize and consolidate aspects that they have effectively learnt and initiate learning new ones.

Researchers in the field of English as a second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) have, for decades, been attempting to identify the most effective practices regarding the correction of oral language errors (Long, 1981; 1983; Swain, 1985, Schmidt, Lyster and Ranta, 1997, Lightbown 1999, …). Adhering to the view that correction speeds up the process of learning, Ellis (2012) specified that to be effective, corrective feedback needs to be fine-tuned to the learner's development (p. 140). Hence, the effects of different patterns of error treatment on subsequent learner uptake, immediate or delayed, as a manifestation of explicit learning, and intake, as a proof of automatic acquisition, proficiency or implicit learning are being examined in the realm of classroom research.

1.Review of Previous Research

In recent years, the role of corrective feedback in L2/FL classrooms has received considerable research attention. Lightbown and Spada (1999) defined corrective feedback as the indication to a learner that his or her use of the target language is incorrect, and it includes a variety of responses that a language learner receives, either implicitly or explicitly. Uptake, or the learner responses to correction, as well as learning resulting from negative feedback have been investigated extensively.

Numerous studies have been done in the past comparing the frequency and effects of corrective feedback types in L2/FL classrooms (e.g., Lyster&Ranta, 1997; Doughty, 1994; Panova&Lyster, 2002; Lyster& Mori, 2006; Mackey and Philip, 1998; Suzuki, 2004; Yoshida, 2010; Sheen, 2006; Macky, Gass& McDonough, 2000). Overall, the results obtained from these studies were mixed since they were conducted in a wide range of settings (e.g., laboratory, classroom), used variety of tests (e.g., grammaticality judgment tests, sentence completion, translation tests) and treatment tasks. Before deciding on what feedback types which have a major effect, it is important to know what the main differences between these studiesare.

One of the first studies that provided a detailed account of classroom negative feedback was carried out by Lyster and Ranta (1997), and which investigated four communicative French immersion classes of grade 4 and 5 students. Among the six identified feedback types of recast, elicitation, clarification request, repetition, elicitation and metalinguistic correction, recast was the most frequent, making up 56.7% of all the six feedback types, followed by elicitation (14%), metalinguistic feedback (10.6%), explicit correction accounting for 7.3% of all feedback moves and both repetition and clarification request achieved less than 10%. In general, 59% of all negative feedback moves led to student uptake, and 45.3% of teacher negative feedback led to successful repair (cited in Suzuki, 2004). Some years later,

Panovaand Lyster (2002) conducted a study in an English as a Second Language (ESL) context. They reached more or less similar findings to those in the 1997 study by Lyster and Ranta: recasts accounted for 55% of all negative feedback instances, 11% for clarification requests, less than 10% for explicit correction and only 4% for elicitations (compared to 14% in the previous study). The uptake rate and the repair rate were also less with 47% of negative feedback resulting in student uptake, and only 16% of negative feedback resulting in learner repair.

Moreover, Doughty (1994) examined adult learners of French who received negative feedback in the classroom, to observe to what degree they perceived the feedback as feedback and actually responded to it. She reported that recasts constituted 70% of the teacher's corrective move and learners responded to recasts with forms of repetition 21% of the time, with 70% of the entire corrective feedback consisting of recasts (cited in Suzuki, 2004).

Furthermore, Lochtman (2002) carried out a study in a Belgian secondary school using tape recordings of 12 lessons totaling 600 minutes, taught by three teachers with the same teaching activities, text comprehension and grammar exercises. As in the above-mentioned studies, recasts were the most recurrent feedback (30.5%), followed by elicitations at 30.2%, metalinguistic feedback making up 23.9 % and explicit correction 13.7% , and clarification requests and repetition had the lowest rate (first 1.8 % and second 0%). The most successful techniques for eliciting learner uptake were metalinguistic feedback and elicitation which led to learner uptake on 98% of instances.

Lyster& Mori (2006) conducted a study in two different instructional settings, French and Japanese immersion, to compare the distribution of feedback types in a search of the effect of explicit correction, recasts and prompts on learner uptake and repair. The results indicated a high frequency of recasts 54% in French and 65% in Japanese immersion, followed by prompts 38% in French and 26% in Japanese, while explicit correction accounted for 7% in

French and 9% in Japanese. Of all the students uptake moves in French classrooms, 62% followed prompt, 32% followed recast and 7% for explicit correction, and in Japanese classrooms, 30% followed prompt, 61% followed recast and 9% for explicit correction.

Suzuki (2004), in her turn, conducted a study in ESL classes with intermediate level adult learners and three teachers. Recasts were the most frequent negative feedback type (60%) which was much higher than in the other studies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997,Panova and Lyster, 2002), followed by clarification requests (30%). The other negative feedback types occurred rather infrequently: elicitation (6%), repetition and explicit correction (2% each) and metalinguistic feedback (1%). She stated that teacher feedback was largely recognized as corrective feedback, and that the students showed the attempt to respond to it 97% of the time. Recasts was the second negative feedback move that led to much more repair (66%) after explicit correction (100%). However, elicitation was the most negative feedback types which led to needs repair accounting for 83%, followed by clarification request (63%) and repetition   (60%). Thus, the successful repair rate (54%) was much higher than those cases that were still in need of repair (43%).

Sheen (2006) found significant differences in the frequency and effect of negative feedback types that are related to context of practice. Accordingly, through four observational studies in an English as a second language classroom in Canada, a French immersion class, English as a second language classrooms in New Zealand, and English as a foreign classroom in Korea, Sheen showed a lesser effect for recasts to generate uptake in the first two of these contexts (cited in Li, 2010). Yoshida (2010) examined feedback in a second year university level Japanese language course through audio recording and stimulated recall interviews with participants. The findings showed that recast was the number one feedback move, which occurred 47 times and accounted 51% of all moves. Explicit correction is the most explicit feedback, and recast is the most implicit feedback (as cited in Park, 2010).

2. Statement of the Problem

The learning process is significantly connected to the ways in which teachers correct students' errors and the ways students react toward correction. That is why negative feedback and learner uptake have been targets of investigation for researchers working in the field of instructed Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Negative feedback (NF), or Corrective feedback (CF), can be delivered in any or more than one type of such moves as recasts, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, clarification requests, and elicitation. Such moves usually take place during interactional lessons with varied frequencies, and a teacher would like to see their effects on learning. This is initially possible if there is some uptake on the learner's part of these corrective moves. It is, therefore, necessary to identify which types of negative feedback enable, or co-occur, with more learner uptake. Furthermore, uptake shows the teacher that what is corrected is only initially upheld by the learners, potentially to comply with the teacher's instructions, and does not show clearly that what is corrected is understood, thus the need for more activities to test comprehension of the aspects corrected, and relating corrective feedback to language development, if applicable.

3. Aims of the Study

The reason behind the interest in this study is the belief that negative feedback plays an important role in the language learning process and has an effect on learner's reactions to the teacher's correction. Our first aim is to examine to what extent negative feedback moves have an effect on learner's uptake, revealed in immediate and delayed responses of students during classroom discussion. The second aim investigates more in-depth learning of the aspects corrected, revealed in displaying correct performance in various contexts in which the selected aspects occur.

4. Research Questions

This research paper raises the following questions:

1. What are the relative frequencies of the negative feedback types used in the EFL classroom selected?

2. Which negative feedback types are related to more uptake by students?

3. Which negative feedback types are related to more students repair?

4. Which feedback types, if any, result in long term learning, or preliminary intake, of the aspects corrected?

5. Research Hypotheses

We hypothesize that there are certain negative feedback moves which are significantly more frequently used than others in EFL classrooms, and that they have different effects on learner's uptake and preliminary intake

6. Means of Research

This study is conducted at the university of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia,Jijel , and focuses on second year LMD English classes .In order to obtain the necessary data to support or refute the hypotheses and to reach the study purpose, the main research means are classroom observation and tests directed to some students of the sample.

Classroom observation will be designed to observe the frequency of both negative feedback moves and learner's uptake. While, the tests are used in our study to check the students' comprehension of teacher's correction.

8. Structure of the Study

This research is divided into two parts, in addition to a general introduction which presents an overview about the topic, and a general conclusion that summarizes the whole work.

The theoretical part includes two chapters. Chapter one "Negative feedback on Learner's Errors" deals with Errors and Negative feedback in detail including their definitions and different types, then turns to discussing feedback timing and placement in second language

theories: The audiolingual method, the natural approach and the communicative language teaching.

The second Chapter entitled, "Learner's Uptake and Preliminary Intake" focuses on defining learner's uptake and intake and distinguishes between their types. Then, it discusses the place of preliminary intake in the learning hypotheses: the input, the noticing, the interaction and the output hypotheses.

The Practical part "Fieldwork" presents the population and the sample besides the description of the research tools used. It also presents the analysis and interpretation of the classroom observation and the learners tests.

Chapter One: Negative Feedback on Learner's Errors

Introduction

1.2. Error in Learning a Second or Foreign Language

    1.1.1. Errors

    1.1.2. Mistakes

    1.2.3. Errors Versus Mistake

1.2. Types of Errors

    1.2.1. Phonological Errors

    1.2.2. Grammatical Errors

    1.2.3. Lexical Errors

1.3.   Feedback on Learner's Language

1.4.   Negative Feedback in second and Foreign Language Teaching

    1.4.1. Definition of Negative Feedback

    1.4.2. Explicit Versus Implicit Feedback

       1.4.2.1. Implicit Feedback

          1.4.2.1.1. Recast

 1.4.2.1.2. Clarification Request

1.4.2.1.3. Repetition

       1.4.2.2. Explicit Feedback

         1.4.2.2.1. Explicit Correction

          1.4.2.2.2. Elicitation

         1.4.2.2.3. Metalinguistic Feedback

    1.4.3. Timing of Negative Feedback

    1.4.4. The Place of Corrective feedback in Theories of Teaching

       1.4.4.1. The Audiolingual Method

       1.4.4.2. The Natural Approach

       1.4.4.3. The Communicative Language Teaching

Conclusion.

Chapter One: Negative Feedback on Learner's Errors

Introduction

Negative feedback (NF) is an attractive research area that gained special attention from educators, particularly over the last two decades. The procedure of NF iscommonly used in classroom interaction and SLA when a student produces an error, or an incorrect utterance of some sort. This chapter, Negative Feedback on Learners' Errors covers various elements underlying this construct of NF. First, it starts with presenting errors in learning a second or foreign language with defining both terms error and mistake in addition to listing the types of errors. Next, it sheds light on the concept of Negative feedback in foreign and second language teaching. After that, it introduces implicit and explicit feedback with the NF moves that belong to each one of them.Then, it discusses the timing of NF and lastly, it focuses on the placementof corrective feedback in language teaching methods.

1.1. Errors in Learning a Second or Foreign Language

It is necessary to state that errors are a natural part of the learning process (Tornberg, 2005). Errors and mistakes are common characteristics of language acquisition and learning; however, they are conceptualised differently by applied linguists.

1.1.1. Errors

A learner error is necessarily the starting point for the study of negative feedback. It may seem as a simple term to define, but in linguistic terms the concept is more complex than it seems, on the surface. Many researchers defined the term 'error', and everyone has provided his/her own description in a different way depending on theoretical views of language and learning. Corder (1974b) viewed an error as "a deviation in learner's language which results from lack of knowledge of the correct rule"(cited in Mosbah, 2007, p. 11). That is to say, errors are the learner's underlying knowledge of the rules and forms of language.

Additionally, Allwright and Bailey (1991) somehow agreed with Corderin defining an error as "a deviation from the norms of the target language" (cited in Park, 2010, p. 06). In other words, an error is a language learner's speech that deflects from the model they are trying to master.

One of the most notable definitions of error is the one created by Lennon (1991), who included the native speaker as the norm or reference for comparison. He proposed that an error is "a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the native speaker counterparts" (cited in James, 2013, p. 64). That is to say, an error is likely to be made by a second or foreign language learner only and would not be produced by a native speaker of the language. George (1972) defined error as "an unwanted form, specifically, a form which a particular course designer or teacher does not want "(cited in Mosbah, 2007, p. 11). It is evident from the above definitions that error has been looked at from different angles and each definition reflects a specific theoretical position.

1.1.2. Mistakes

Mistakes are the result of lack of attention, confusion, tiredness, stress, or carelessness that can affect the learner's production and lead to the deflection from the correct form, as it is pointed out by Richards and Schmidt (2013). Another definition was provided previously by Corder (1967) who used the term "Mistake" to refer to incorrect forms resulting from memory lapses, slips of the tongue and other instances of performance errors (cited in Park, 2010). Following Corder, a mistake refers to situations in which the learner produces an incorrect form due to a slip of the tongue, memory lapse or similar causes. Moreover, Brown (2000) stated that a mistake refers to "a performance error that is a random guess or a slip; it is a failure to use a known system correctly when talking "(p. 217).

From the previous definitions we can say that mistakes are just the result of lapses and/or anxious atmosphere which cause a failure to use the correct form. Thus, mistakes do not reflect the learner's level in the target language because they are not the result of ~~the~~ lack of knowledge, but just stumbles, breakdowns and imperfections in the production of speech.

1.1.3. Errors Versus Mistakes

Corder (1967) differentiated between mistake and error. According to him, the term error refers to something incorrect, linked to the basic knowledge of the language. Therefore, errors reflect the actual level of a learner's language development of a particular language. On the other side, the term mistake is used for particularities when slips of the tongue, memory lapses or other similar cases lead the learner to generate an erroneous form. (Cited in Gass&Selinker, 2008). Ellis (1997) stressed the need of distinguishing errors and mistakes and confirmed that "errors show the gap in learner's knowledge and his disability to identify what is correct. However, mistakes show occasional lapses in performance" (p. 17).

Sometimes it is difficult to differentiate errors and mistakes. Ellis (1997) suggested a way that might be helpful for the distinction of these terms which is to ask learners to attempt to correct their incorrect utterances. So, where they are able to do that, it is considered as a mistake; but if they fail in correcting their erroneous form, it is considered as an error.

1.2. Types of Errors

In the English language, there is an infinite amount of errors that one can make when speaking and writing. Researchers have categorized errors in various ways. For example, Chaudron (1977) classified errors according to the level of language ranging fromphonological errors to vocabulary or lexical errors to syntactic errors. Below is a description of error types based on Lyster's scheme (1998) who classified errors into phonological errors, grammatical errors and lexical errors.

1.2.1. Phonological Errors

Lyster (1998) defined phonological errors as "mispronunciations in reading aloud or spontaneous conversations" (Cited in Choi and Li, 2012, p. 336). That is to say, any error in pronunciation is considered as a phonological error. Many of these may be caused by the differences between the two languages (first and second languages) and their sound systems. Example 01:

S: result [result] of something (Error – phonological)

T: What did you say?   (Suzuki, 2004, p. 9)

1.2.2. Grammatical Errors

According to Lytser (1998) grammatical errors refer to errors caused by the learner's inability or failure to conform to the grammar rules of Standard English. For example, leaving out the third person - *s (he play tennis)* or using the past tense *–ed*too often (*she goed*).(cited in Choi and Li, 2012)

1.2.3. Lexical Errors

For Lyster (1998), lexical errors are "inappropriate and unfaithful choices of lexical items in open classes such as nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives" (Suzuki, 2004, p. 8). In other words, lexical errors resulted from the learner's ignorance of the target language lexicon.

Another categorization of errors was provided by Burt (1975), in which errors were classified into global and local ones. First, global errors refer to errors that disturb the flow of communication and that harm the organization of the sentence, such as wrong word order or misuse of sentence connectors, whether by missing them or using them in the wrong place. On the other hand, local errors refer to those which affect the different parts of the sentence, such as nouns, verbs, and articles. In short, Burt points out that "correction of one global error clarifies the intended message more than the correction of several local errors" (cited in Park, 2010, p. 07).

1.3. Feedback on Learner's Language

Feedback represents a key move or act in the teaching profession; it is used as a reaction to student's production. That is to say, feedback is an essential component of communication in learning situations. It is way to appraise whether the message has been encoded correctly or not. Furthermore, it helps students to improve their chances of success.

"Feedback generallyrefers to the listens or readersresponsegiven to the learners speech o writing" (Duly, Bust and Krashen, 1982, p. 34). This indicatesthat feedback

refers to the information or suggestion that the teacher as a listener or as readergives or provides to hislearnersspeaking performance or written production.

Research on feedback has produced several categories for the term.Feedback can be classified into two major categories, positive and negative feedback (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). These two categories can, in turn, be delivered either explicitly or implicitly (Carrol and Swain, 1993).

Gass and Selinker (2001) stated that positive feedback "comes from the speech learners hear or read and is thus composed of a limited set of well-formed utterances of the language being learned," whereas negative evidence is "information to a learner that his or her utterance is deviant with regard to the norms of the language being learned" (p.173).

Though this chapter focuses on negative feedback only, it is worthy to review the nature of positive feedback first. Positive feedback confirms the correctness of the learner's response. It is very important in the learning process because it is considered as a support for learners, which reinforces motivation. However, it has received little attention in second language acquisition, because it does not always reflect the validity of the learner's utterance. For instance, praising students by saying 'good' or 'yes' sometimes does not indicate that the

learner is correct. It may just serve as an opening for a coming modification by the teacher. (Ellis, 2009)

For Senior (2006):

> When the student says an utterance which is free of stuttering, the teacher immediately follows with a reinforcement comment that praise the child's speech. The commonly comments used are: 'good talking!', 'that was smooth', 'well done' …These comments are made in a positive tone of voice with a smiley facial expression. (p. 47)

Dekeyser (2007), in his turn, simplified the meaning of positive feedback by saying that, it consists of information that the process was successful.

The previous definitions make the idea of 'positive feedback' clear ; which is in other words producing an acceptable output by the learner making the teacher satisfy and support the learner in a kind of a praise or a compliment to his performance and skills.

1.4. Negative Feedback in Second and Foreign Language Teaching

Negative feedback, used to correctstudents' errors, is one of the most frequent practicesin the field of education. It typically involves a student receiving comments on his or her performance in various tasks by the teacher. Thus, it is important to take a closer look at negative feedback and what it includes.

1.4.1. Definitions of Negative Feedback

 Negative feedback (NF) involves the type of feedback that often indicates failure and unacceptability of the learner's production. NF as stated by Ellis (2009) informs that there is a lack of validity in the student's utterance and it deviates from the rules and forms of the language learnt. According to Gass (1997), NF provides the learner with information about the incorrectness of a second language form or utterance and is often realized through the

provision of corrective feedback in response to the learner's non-target-like L2 production. (Cited in Li, 2010).

Negative feedback is also called "corrective feedback ". It has been taken into consideration as one of the controversial issues in the field of L2 teaching and learning. An earlier definition of NF is that of Chaudron (1977), who considered it as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of, the learner's utterance" (p. 31). In short, it is the teacher's response to a learner's utterance that contains an error. Such a response, according to Ellis et al (2006). NF can consist of (1) an indication that the utterance has an error; (2) or reformulation of the sentences with error; (3) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error .Furthermore, Day, et al. (1984) used NF to refer to the native speaker's response to what they perceived to be errors committed by non-native speakers. The definition is very narrow since it limits the ability of providing NF only to native speakers and the liability to making errors only to non-native speakers. However, errors and error correction apply to include all people, native or non- native speakers of the language.

Teachers give NF because they consider it as a "crucial means of subtly adjusting their pedagogic behaviour to meet the immediate needs of their class". (Senior, 2006, p. 47). Moreover, some researchers believe in the contribution of NF in promoting L2 development as it leads to shift the learner's attention from meaning to form. For instance, Dekeyser (2007) indicated that this kind of feedback may benefit learners by providing them with the opportunity to focus on the linguistic aspects. On the other hand, NF does not just focus on the form of language; it also attracts the student's attention to linguistic forms as they appear accidently in lessons whose main focus is on meaning or communication.

Negative feedback is considered as a strategy used by teachers to show their disapproval and unsatisfaction about student's production. Students often viewed negative feedback as

punishment because teachers provide the information in a way that determined their errors. Thus, on the contrary of positive feedback, negative feedback is regarded as an unpreferable comment by the learner, because it shows a threat to their advance and may be painful when it occurs in front of classmates.

In the present study, the term NF will be used to refer to any feedback given to learners, from any source that includes evidence of learner incorrect utterance of language form. NF is an interactional move that represents explicitly or implicitly any non-target-like structure in the student's speech that might need correction. Ellis (2001) points out that NF can be used in different methods in teaching grammar or form-focused instruction (any planned or incidental instructional activity) that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form.

1.4.2. Explicit VersusImplicit Feedback

Ellis et al (2006) chose to divide the negative feedback types into either implicit or explicit feedback. In the case of implicit feedback, there is no overt indicator that an error has been committed, whereas in the explicit feedback type, the teacher gives learners a clear and overt indication that they have committed an error.

Table 1.1

A Taxonomy of NF Strategies (Ellis, 2009, p. 8)

Explicit	**Implicit**
Explicit correction	Recast
Metalinguistic Feedback	Repetition
Elicitation	Clarification Request

1.4.2.1. Implicit Feedback

In the case of implicit feedback, the teacher makes a "reformulation of all of a learner's

immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target (lexical, grammatical …) items are replaced by the corresponding target language form (s)" (Ledong, 2006, cited in Ellis et al, 2006, p. 303). That is to say, the interlocutor does not give a direct indication that an error has been made by the learner and**,** also, does not explicitly correct it. A further explanation which supports the previous definition posits that "there is no overt indicator that an error has been committed" (Ellis et al., 2006, p. 341). It often takes the form of recasts, replacing the erroneous items by the correct ones, clarification requests or repetition.

1.4.2.1.1. Recasts.

Recasts are the type of feedback that has received a lot of attention from researchers**.** It has also been established as the most preferred NF type by teachers (Fujii&Mackey, 2009; Loewen and Philip, 2006).

A recast is defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as an "… implicit feedback technique that involves the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error"; Recasts are made implicitly meaning that they are not introduced by phrases such as "You mean" or "You should say" (p. 46). As Tedik (1998) explained, a recast is used by the teacher to implicitly reformulate the student's error without directly indicating that the student's utterance was incorrect or providing correction. Doing so is believed to help L2 learners to notice the contradiction between their utterance and the target language.(Cited in Razei, 2010)

Similarly, Fujii and Mackey (2009) confirmed this by also defining recast as "utterances that repeat a learner's incorrect utterance, making only the changes necessary to produce a correct utterance without changing the meaning "(p.269).

Another definition of recast, which gives more importance to meaning over form, was provided by Long (1996) who argued that a recast is a negative feedback move in which an

utterance is reformulated by changing some parts of the sentence, preserving its main meaning in the process. Language is not the object throughout the exchange where all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance containing non target-like items is replaced by the corresponding target language forms, rather, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning, according to Long (cited in Mackey, 2013)

Rassaei and Moizadeh (2011) pointed that recast is operationalized as a teacher's reformulations of a students' erroneous sentences. They provide following examples which indicate how recasts were operationalized as

Example 02:

Student: Where she go?

Interlocutor: Where **does** she go?

Example 03:

S: When you come back?

T: When **do** you come back? (p. 99)

The strategy of recast, then, as the examples above show, involves restating the correct version of the learner's incorrect statement by the instructors (Nicholas, Lightbrown and Spada, 2001). Recast is considered as an implicit feedback despite the fact that teacher corrects the error by providing the correct form(s) without interrupting the conversation. This is because the learner has to learn from the existence of the error and how it is corrected through interaction.

1.4.2.1.2. Clarification Requests

According to Suzuki (2004), this NF type is used when there are linguistic problems in the learner's turn, and also when the learner's utterance is not understood. Unlike explicit

correction or recasts, clarification requests refer essentially to problems in comprehensibility. In addition, Lyster and Ranta (1997) stated that a clarification request indicates to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood from the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required. Thus, a student is asked to clarify aspects related to comprehensibility, accuracy or both. In the two examples below, the first (Example 04) given by Chu (2011), illustrates a clarification request about form while in our (Example 05) seeks clarification of the form as well as meaning since problems in the form of the utterance usually affect its comprehensibility.

Example 04:

S: he take the bus to go to school.

T: pardon me? (p. 455)

Example 05:

S: Sunday I see movie.

T: Could you repeat?

Clarification requests take either the form of questions such as *I'm sorry?* orattempts to find the intentional form of the error with a rising tone. They often make use of phrases such as "Pardon me". It may also include a repetition of the error as in "What do you mean by *X*?" (Cited in Leiter, 2010).That is to say, clarification request is that kind of feedback which uses phrases like "excuse me?" or "I don't understand" by way of indicating to the student that the utterance has been misunderstood or that it contained some kind of mistake.

Panova&Lyster(2002) pointed out that the purpose of a clarification request is to elicit reformulation or repetition from the student with respect to the form of the student's ill-formed utterance. In this case, a repetition or reformulation is required.

1.4.2.1.3. Repetition

Repetition is another technique to provide NF that refers to the teacher's repetition "of the ill formed part of the student's utterance, usually with a change in intonation "(Panova&Lyster, 2002, p. 584). Further, Spada and Frohlich (1995) define repetition as "Full or partial repetition of previous utterance (p. 24).

According to Ellis (2009), repetition occurs when the teacher repeats what the student produced signalizing the mistake by means of emphatic stress. Chaudron (1977) identified four different types of repetition: 1-repetition with no change, where the teacher repeats the student's utterance with no change or omission of errors; 2- repetition with no change, but with emphasis, where the teacher repeats the student's utterance with no change of errors but emphasis locates or indicates the error; 3- repetition with change, whereby the teacher adds correction and continues to other topics; and 4- repetition with change and emphasis, in which the teacher adds emphasis to stress the location of errors and the correct formulations. In evaluating these types of repetitions, Chaudron points out that they each "… serve different functions (correcting and agreeing) and that learners were more likely to repair their errors when the repetition includes emphasis either through raising intonation or stress" (as cited in Robinson, 2013, p. 140) as shown below:

Example 06:

L: I will showed you.

T: I will SHOWED you!

L: I'll show you.

In example (06) provided by Ellis (2009, p. 9), repetition involves the teacher repeating the incorrect part of the student's utterance with modified intonation or emphasis to grasp his/ her attention to the error.

1.4.2.2. Explicit Feedback

Explicit feedback refers to the explicit condition of the correct form as the teacher gives the correct form, and clearly points that the student's utterance was incorrect. (Lyster&Ranta, 1997). Hence, it is the correction of the student's error with an explicit indication of it, using some expressions such as 'No, you should say...', 'That is wrong' or 'you mean…' In explicit feedback, then, as the teacher corrects the erroneous form, he or she clearly shows that what the student has said is incorrect. Occasionally, both the wrong form is identified along with the provision of a correct form in the teacher's turn.(Cited in Moore, 2001). Three main explicit feedback moves are discussed by Lyster and Ranta (1997); these are explicit correction, elicitation and metalinguistic feedback.

1.4.2.2.1. Explicit Correction

Lyster and Ranta (1997) defined explicit correction as "the explicit provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect (e.g., "Oh, you mean", "You should say")" (p. 46). This negative feedback move gives direct signals to inform the student that the previous utterance was incorrect along with providing the correct form. (Panova&Lyster, 2002)

Explicit correction refers to the explicit condition of the correct form. As the teacher gives the correct form, he/she explicitly indicates that what the student has said contains an error or errors. (Karimi&Esfandiari, 2016; Moore, 2001)

Example 07:

S: The day…tomorrow. (lexical error)

T: Yes. No, the day before yesterday. (explicit correction)

 The previous exampleof Panova&Lyster(2002, p. 584) and definitions we can conclude that, explicit correction is a feedback move which occurs when the teacher provides the learner with correct forms and/ or states that what s/he generated is wrong.

1.4.2.2.2. Elicitation

In language teaching, elicitation is defined as "techniques which a teacher uses to get learners to actively produce speech or writing" (Richards et al 1982, p. 90). Lyster and Ranta (1997) stated that this strategy occurs when "teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to fill in the blank as it were" (p. 48). The teacher can repeat a part of the utterance, pausing just before the error and letting the student complete the utterance. Secondly, the use of open questions by the teacher to elicit the correct form(s). For example "how do we say that in English?" (Elicitation excludes yes or no questions). Thirdly, the teacher can ask students to reformulate their utterance. (Leiter, 2010). During this process the corrector repeats part of the learner utterance but not the erroneous part and uses rising intonation to signal that the learner should complete it. (Ellis, 2009).

Elicitation is a correction technique in which the teacher intends to give the students a chance to self-correct the error without asking a direct question This can be done in at least three different ways during face- to- face interaction, each of which varies in their degree of implicitness or explicitness.

Example 08:

 L: I'll come if it will not rain.

T: I'll come if it ……..? (Ellis, 2009, p. 99)

Example 09:

 L: My teacher always come late to the class.

T: Say that again.

L: My teacher always come late to class.

T: My teacher always...?

L: Comes? Comes late to class. (Ayhan, Arikan and Akbarov, 2011, p. 1383)

In the examples (example 08) above, the teacher tries to make the student produce the correct form by repeating a part of the student's sentence and pausing just before the error. In example 09, the teacher gives a chance to the student to self- correct his mistake; first, by asking the student to reformulate his sentence. Then, by repeating a part of the incorrect sentence with a pause before the error.

1.4.2.2.3. Metalinguistic Feedback

Lysterand Ranta (1997) stated that "Metalinguistic feedback contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form" (p .47).They also pointed out that metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere ("Can you find your error?" "No, not X," or even just "No."). Metalinguistic information generally provides either some grammatical metalanguage that refers to the nature of the error or a word definition in the case of lexical errors. Metalinguistic questions also point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student.

Despite the fact that metalinguistic feedback emphasises the nature of the error, it attempts to extract the information from the student. This NF move leads the learner to analyse his/her utterance linguistically, not quite in a meaning-oriented manner (Suzuki, 2004). For example, when a learner makes a mistake you can provide him/her with metalinguistic feedback as examples 10 and 11 below show:

Example 10:

 L: I goed to cinema yesterday.

T: you need to use past tense here

Example 11:

S: she clean the room, yesterday.

T: what's the ending we put on verbs when we talk about the past

 S: ed

In example 10, the teacher gives information related to the error in an attempt to elicit the correct form from the student. While in example 11, the teacher asks a question to lead the learner to analyse the incorrect sentence grammatically.

1.4.3. Timing of Negative Feedback

Considerations of differences in the time lapse between feedback and the student's response have produced a distinction between two main categories: immediate feedback and delayed feedback (Long, 1977, Chaudron, 1977; Shute, 2008; Allwright ,1975)

Long (1977) andChaudron (1977) originally defined delayed correction as correction that allows learners to complete their utterances, and immediate correction as correction that interrupts them. (Cited in Quinn, 2014).That is to say, in the immediate feedback conditions, participants received feedback immediately after each error, whereas in the delayed feedback conditions, they were given feedback after a delay (a period of time).

Shute (2008) explains that immediate feedback is usually provided immediately after answering each item whereas delayed feedback is less easy to define since the degree of the delay can vary. In some cases, the feedback is delayed until a block of items has been completed. It could also mean that feedback is provided after the student has completed the entire assessment. Still, it can also be provided an entire day after completion of the assessment or even later. (Cited in Van der Kleij et *al*, 2012).

From the Behaviorist perspective, feedback should be given immediately and/or timely. Whereas, social constructivism recommended that feedback can be provided in both immediate and delayed forms. Moreover,some researchers believe that NF should be

provided with some delay, some others argue that errors should be treated immediately. For instance, Allwright (1975) and Long (1977) stated that teachers must correct erroneous utterances immediately and not delay them. They argued that, since by correcting ill-formed utterances immediately learners notice their learning process and might be more conscious for being more accurate.(cited in Quinn, 2014). On the other hand, Fanselow (1977) declared that because teachers need time to analyse the nature and type of a specific error and to decide how it should be corrected appropriately, they should provide delayed CF. In addition, Chastain (1971) pointed out that common mistakes should be treated after learners have finished their oral activities (at the end of their speech). (Cited in Shabani and Safari, 2016)

As pointed out above, there have been both opposing and supporting ideas regarding immediate and delayed NF in the background studies related to this issue. In some other cases no significant differences were found. As an example, Sheen (2012) provided ESL students with a narration task and asked them to perform it using the past tense, and she gave explicit, metalinguistic oral feedback. In one condition, the feedback was provided immediately after a student made an error, while in the other one, the feedback was delayed until the end of the task. No significant differences were found between the feedback groups on either a posttest or a delayed posttest. (Cited in Lavolette, 2014).

1.4.4. The Place of Corrective Feedback in Language Teaching Methods

As discussed above, views on the role of NF are highly diverse since there has been a debate for and against error correction, both of which have their own supporters among researchers. As for the place of NF in L2 instruction, it has not always been the same in learning and teaching methods (Karagianni, 2016). According to Han (2002), the main variations in the role of NF are represented in chronological order by the AudiolingualMethod, the Natural Approach, and Communicative Language Teaching. A

similar place to that of the Audiolingual Method can be found for NF in the earliest teaching methods, namely the Grammar Translation Method and the Direct Method.

1.4.4.1. The Audiolingual Method

Under the Audiolingual method, and based on the behaviorism which considered errors as taboos in learners' discourse and believed that they should be immediately corrected by the teacher (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards &Rodgers, 2001; Brown, 2007), error has been viewed as a phenomenon to be avoided. As Han (2002) asserted, "The Audiolingual Approach, for example, advocates minimal or no tolerance of learner errors and suggests that every effort be made to prevent them" (p. 1). Furthermore, some supporters of Audiolingualism regarded second language errors from a puritanical perspective. For example, Brooks (1960), in his book *Language and Language Learning,* considered error to have a relationship to learning resembling that of sin to virtue: "Like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected".(cited in Hendrickson, 1978).

1.4.4.2. The Natural Approach

According to Horner (1988), in the context of the Natural approach, which views language as a means of communication and the development of communication skills as the main objective of teaching, error correction is often overlooked, since the focus is on meaning rather than on form (cited in Karagianni, 2016). This means that, when focusing on meaning, error correction should be avoided; otherwise, learner's attention to meaning might be confused. Besides, Han (2002) pointed out that "the Natural Approach considers error correction unnecessary and counterproductive" (p. 2). Krashen and Terrel (1983) in their description of the Natural Approach, argued that speech errors which do not interrupt communication are not corrected (cited in Ammar, 2003).

Based on his belief that comprehensible positive input is the driving force behind SLA, Krashen (1982) argued that NF may not benefit learners in acquiring the correct form if they are not ready to learn (Park, 2010). In other words, providing NF is unnecessary when students do not have the intention to learn. Moreover, Krashen not only rejected any noticeable benefits from NF and its usefulness, but also added that it is potentially harmful because it interrupts the discourse. However, these contentions have been challenged by both theoretical and empirical research which reveals that L2 learning cannot be affected by only comprehensible input.

1.4.4.3. Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative language teaching has given a distinguished place to error correction. It is believed that not all mistakes need to be corrected because these are seen as natural outcomes of the development of the communication skill. In other words, errors are more tolerated; they are seen as a completely normal phenomena in the development of communicative skills. According to Brown, learners should profit from their mistakes, and use them to obtain NF from the environment; from this feedback they may make new attempts that lead to the desired goal. He added that people learn language through trial and error, and as it is natural for learners to make mistakes while they learn their mother tongue, the same is true as they do other languages (cited in Akhter, 2007, p. 3). Krashen and Terrell (1983) argued that in the Communicative Approach, errors that do not interrupt with meaning comprehension have to be ignored along with NF, and unless NF resolves miscommunication problems, it seems unnecessary (cited in Karagianni, 2016).

Hendrickson (1978) stated that attention must be paid to global errors rather than local ones, and the process of error correction must occur with consistency and systematicity. (Hendrickson, 1978). Lee (1990) along with Bailey and Celce-Murcia (1979) also believe that error correction is an indispensable part of mastery in language learning. On the other

hand, some scholars think that NF should be abandoned because it can have neglected negative effects on learner's affect, and hence impeding the flow of communication (cited in Razaei and Mozaffari, 2011).

Communicative language teaching advocatesthe creation of a balance between what Audiolinguists and Cognitivists argued and proposed that an error is not a sin, but it is a proof that learner's language is developing. Supporters of this approach suggested that teachers should ignore some errors and focus more on how to communicate successfully.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed teacher negative feedback directed at errors in learning a second or foreign language. It sets out by making a distinction between errors and mistakes,showing that the former are systematic whereas the latter are performance related. The main types of errors: phonological, grammatical and lexical are discussed. The negative feedback, aiming at indicating to learners that their productions deviate from the rules and forms of the language learnt as well as failure and unacceptability, is reviewed from various perspectives. Negative feedback is generallydivided into either implicit or explicit feedback. In the case of implicit feedback, there is no indication that an error has been committed, and it includes recast and clarification request. On the other hand, when using explicit feedback, the teacher clearly indicates that an error has been committed, usingexplicit correction, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation.Concerning its timing,negative feedback can be divided into immediate delayed. Immediate feedback is the correction that interrupts learners or occurs immediately after each error. Delayed feedback is the correction provided after a period of time. Last, negative feedback is stressed in some language teaching methods such as the Audiolingual method, to be avoided in the Natural Approach and to be used minimally in the Communicative Language Teaching.

Chapter Two: Learner's Uptake and Preliminary Intake
Introduction
2.1. Learner's Uptake
2.1.1. Definition
    2.1.2.   Types of Uptake
        2.1.2.1.Repair
           2.1.2.1.1. Repetition
           2.1.2.1.2. Self- repair
           2.1.2.1.3. Peer-repair
           2.1.2.1.4. Incorporation
        2.1.2.2. Needs-repair
           2.1.2.2.1. Acknowledgment
           2.1.2.2.2. Same Error
           2.1.2.2.3. Different Error
           2.1.2.2.4. Off-target
           2.1.2.2.5. Partial Repair
           2.1.2.2.6. Hesitation
    2.1.3. Timing of Uptake
        2.1.3.1. Immediate Uptake
        2.1.3.2. Delayed Uptake
2.2. Focus of Form
2.3. Learner's Intake
        2.3.1. Definition
        2.3.1.1. Intake as a Process
        2.3.1.2. Intake as a Product
        2.3.1.3. Intake as a Process in a Product
    2.3.2. Stages of Intake
        2.3.2.1. Preliminary Intake
        2.3.2.2. Final Intake
2.4. Intake in Language Learning Hypotheses
    2.4.1. The Input Hypothesis
    2.4.2. The Noticing Hypothesis
    2.4.3. The Interaction Hypothesis
    2.4.4. The Output Hypothesis
Conclusion

Chapter Two: Learner's Uptake and Preliminary Intake

Introduction

Uptake and intake are important concepts that have been examined in a substantial number of studies and gained a considerable attention in SLA. Uptake is an evidence that shows the learner's efforts to react to the teacher's feedback; hence, it reveals the learner's attempt to work on the feedback received, while intake is a mirror that reflects the learner's comprehension of the provided input.The current chapter starts by supplying definitions given to learner's uptake and its major types. In addition, it sheds light on the focus on form concept. Next, the notion of intake is defined and discussed in terms of its principal stages. The final section discusses some learning hypotheses, namely the input hypothesis, the noticing hypothesis, interaction hypothesis to show how they relate and explain comprehension or preliminary intake.

2.1. Learner's Uptake

Chaudron (1977) suggested that "the main immediate measurement of effectiveness of any type of corrective reaction would be a frequency-of-count of the students' correct responses following each type" (p. 440). That is to say, the evaluation of the effectiveness of feedback in language classrooms isbased on the number of times students respond to feedback with correct response, shortly referred to as"uptake". Uptake can be defined in many different ways, and it can be looked at from several angles, given the various types it has.

2.1.1. Definition of Uptake

Uptake was defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (p. 49). In other

words, uptake is the learner's immediate response that follows the teacher's NF on learner's errors in lessons.

Some researches such as Allwright (1984) defined uptake as "what learners claim to have learnt from a particular lesson" (cited inLyster and Ranta, 1997, p. 49).Uptake has been regarded as an indicator of the effectiveness of NF because it may serve as proof for the learner's noticing and incorporation of the provided feedback (Egi, 2010). Swain (1995), in her turn,regarded uptake as a type of 'pushed output'i.e.,the language produced by L2 learners.

Ellis et al. (2001) expanded Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition of uptake, taking a general perspective that uptake can occur even with the absence of NF in the previous moves; that is to say, the presence of uptake is not restricted to responses to feedback on learners errors. Rather, learner uptake may also occur in response to a student rather than teacher initiated move.

As for Ellis et al's definition of uptake, it can be summarized as follows: 1. Uptake is a student move; 2. The move is optional; 3. The uptake move occurs in episodes where learners have a demonstrated gap in their knowledge; and 4. The uptake move occurs as a reaction to some preceding move in which another participant either explicitly or implicitly provides information about a linguistic feature (cited in Smith, 2005,p.38).

Concerning its role in learning**,** Mackey, Gass and McDonough (2000) consider uptake as a discourse move and not as an instance of acquisition, although some researchers have suggested that it may be related to learner's perceptions about feedback at the time of feedback. This means that uptake is based on what the student understands(comprehension)from the correction. Hence, it may not be related to acquisition or learning, but it is just a reaction towards the feedback provided (cited in Llinares and Lyster, 2014).

There is another term that is related to the term uptake which is 'modified output'. The latter refers to the learner's modification of an ill-formed utterance following feedback. It is used in some studies interchangeably with uptake. This term, however, is different from the term uptake in that it does not contain the aspect of repair in its definition (Ellis et al, 2008).Moreover, modified output refers to a learner's utterance following NF in an attempt to change his or her original utterance. Thus, a learner's uptake can be considered as a modified output if the learner tries to make his or her utterance more target-like. Otherwise, the uptake cannot be equalled to modified output. According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), a learner's modified output is called "repair" if the NF aims were achieved. However, if the learner's modified output is still incorrect, it is called "needs repair". Thus, it can be argued that modified output is a kind of uptake (Rassaei and Moinzadeh, 2011).

2.1.2. Types of Uptake

There have been different categorizations of uptake including differentiation between successful and unsuccessful uptake, orrepair and need-repair. Based on Lyster and Ranta (1997),uptake are discussedbelow in terms ofrepair and needs-repair, which are in turn categorized into other sub-types.

2.1.2.1. Repair

Repair is an important aspect in institutionalized second or foreign language learning settings. The aim of repairing an utterance can be described as the modification of output, an elementary component for language learning, as it directs the speaker's attention to the trouble source, which is necessary for foreign language learning progress (Swain &Gass, 1985, as cited in Hirschberg, 2016).

Repair, also called *successful uptake*, refers to "the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn and not to the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation; nor does it refer to self-initiated repair" (Lyster 2001, p. 280).This means that

uptake is the successful correction done by the learner to react to NF used by teacher. Furthermore,repair indicates that he/ she understood the corrective aim of the feedback and consequently is able to use the form correctly(cited in Safari,2013).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) distinguished four kinds of repair in their study. These are repetition, self-repair, peer-repair, and incorporation.

2.1.2.1.1. Repetition

A student repeats the correct form provided in the teacher's feedback when the feedback includes the correct form.(Jabbari and Fazilatfar, 2012).In example 01 below, the teacher in his turn, directly corrected the student error. And as a reaction to the correction, the student repeated it.

Example 01:

S: Many people in the society has the gift of the gap. (Grammatical error)

T: Have not has (Feedback, explicit correction)

S: Have the gift of the gap. (Repair, repetition)

2.1.2.1.2. Self–Repair

Self-repair refers to a self-correction, produced by the student who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback when the latter does not already provide the correct form (Suzuki, 2004). To put it differently, self-repair or self-correction occurs when the student who made the initial error self-corrects the error after a NF type which does not give away the correction such as metalinguistic feedback and elicitation.

Example 02:

S: Who does has the same idea? (Error – grammatical)

T: Who…? (Feedback – elicitation)

S: Who has the same idea? (Repair – self-repair)(Jabbari and Fazilatfar, 2012, p. 142)

In the example above, the teacher only gave part of the student's erroneous utterance then paused just before the error to let him/ her complete the utterance. The student realized his/ her error and self-corrected it.

2.1.2.1.3. Peer-Repair

Peer-repair refers to peer-correction provided by a student, other than the one who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback. This uptake type is similar innature to self-repair in that the student in both cases correctly reformulates the erroneous utterance (without any indication of the correct forms from the teacher). However, they just differ in the personproducing the error and the correction.

(Suzuki, 2004)

Example 03:

S: My brother her eyes are bigger than her stomach. (Error – grammatical)

T: does her refers to a male (Feedback – metalinguistic)

Ss: No, we have to say his. (Repair – peer repair)

In example 03, the teacher asked a question in an attempt to elicit the information from the student, but other students reacted to the teacher's NF instead of the one who made the mistake and they answered the teacher's question.

2.1.2.1.4. Incorporation

Lyster and Ranta (1997) pointed out that incorporation refers to "a student's repetition of the correct form provided by the teacher, which is then incorporated into a longer utterance produced by the student" (p. 50)

Example 04:

S: while the youngest sister was, had. (Lexical error)

T: Had. (Feedback, recast)

S: Had short….. (Repair, incorporation) (Safari, 2013, p. 1171)

Example 04 makes it clear that the student understood the correction since s/he has not just repeated the teacher's correction (had) and stopped, but integrated it in a longer statement.

2.1.2.2. Needs-Repair

The second type of uptake is called needs-repair.Suzuki (2004) stated that needs-repair refers to "a situation where the learner responds to the corrective feedback but the learner's utterance does not result in repairing the original erroneous utterance." (p. 11). That is to say, if the learner responds to the feedback in some way but does not succeed in the reformulation of the erroneous utterance, the uptake has not resulted in repair, but in needs repair.

Based on Lytser and Ranta's model, there are six types of needs repair which includes: acknowledgment, same error, different error of-target, hesitation and partial repair.

2.1.2.2.1. Acknowledgment

Acknowledgment is used when the learner positively identifies the NF, and he/she generally prefers 'yes' or 'yeah' in his/her response, as if he/she wanted to say, 'yes, it was what I meant to say' (Safari, 2013). In other words, acknowledgment occurs when the student simply says 'yes' in response to the teacher's NF.

Example 05:

S: he were absent. (Error, grammatical)

T: he was absent. (Feedback, recast)

 S: Yes. (Needs-repair, acknowledgment)

In example 05, the student responded to the NF(recast) provided by the teacher by saying "yes" without repeating the correct form as if he wanted to say that his error was made accidently and not as a result of lack of knowledge.

2.1.2.2.2. Same Error

The learner gives uptake after receiving feedback, but repeats the same error in his /her

turn. (Jabbari and Fazilatfar, 2012)

Example 06:

S: They refused come. (Error, grammatical)

T: repeat? (Feedback, clarification request)

S: refused come. (Needs- repair, same error).

In example 06, the student reacted to the teacher's NF by repeating the same error without making any changes in the incorrect sentence.

2.1.2.2.3. Different Error

In response to the teacher's NF, the learner does not correct nor repeat the erroneous utterance, but commits a different error. (Safari, 2013).

Example 07:

S: Where is they come from? (Lexical error)

T: sorry? (Feedback, clarification request)

S: Oh, where is they comes from? (Needs-repair, different error)

To illustrate the definition above, example 07 shows that the teacher responded to the student error using clarification request but instead of correcting the error (is they) the student committed another different error (they comes).

2.1.2.2.4. Off-Target

An off-target response refers to the content of the learner's response which is not compatible with the original form included in the teacher's NF as if there were no feedback. (Safari, 2013).In other words, this kind of needs-repair occurs in a situation where the student

understands the correction, but then uses another linguistic structure altogether.An example

of off-target was provided by Suzuki (2004,p. 12)

S: Many shops are downtown. (Error – grammatical)

T: Sorry? (Feedback – clarification)

S: Downtown, many shops and places everywhere, a lot of people (Needs repair – off target)

Example 08 shows that the student understood the teacher's correction, but did not respond

by repeating the original form, rather, s/he used another linguistic structure

2.1.2.2.5. Partial Repair

Partial repair refers to the uptake which results from the student's ability to correct only a

part of the original error (Jabbari and Fazilatfar, 2012). In the example below, the student's

utterance includes two errors; the teacher in his turn used elicitation to correct the same error

by pausing just before the error in order to let the student complete the utterance. But the

student was able to correct only the first part of the incorrect utterance, and this is called

partial repair.

Example 09:

S: He agree with to visit the India. (Error – grammatical)

T: He … (Feedback – elicitation)

S: He agrees with me to visit the India. (Needs repair – partial repair)

2.1.2.2.6. Hesitation

Hesitation occurs when the student shows uncertainty in response to the feedback move.

Based on this definition, the example below shows that the student reaction towards the

NFprovided by the teacher needs more certainty. The student hesitatedin his response to the

correction.

Example 10:

S: Many people in the society has

T: have not has

S: Many people in the society have, has... ahh, no

To sum up, the main types of both negative feedback and uptake and the relationshipship

between them canbe diagrammatically represented as:

Learner Error
-L1
-gender
-grammatical
-lexical
-phonological
-multiple

Teacher Feedback
-explicit correction
-recast
-clarification request
-metalinguistic feedback
-elicitation
-repetition

Topic Continuation
-teacher
-student

Learner Uptake

Needs Repair
-acknowledge
-different error
-same error
-hesitation
-off target
-partial repair

Repair
-repetition
-incorporation
-self-repair
-peer-repair

Reinforcement

Figure 1. Error Treatment Sequence (Lyster and Ranta 1997, p. 44).

2.1.3. Timing of Uptake

Loewen (2004) suggested another categorization for uptake that is based on the time of uptake occurrence. Thus, immediate uptake is distinguished from delayed uptake.

2.1.3.1. Immediate Uptake

Immediate uptake is the response or feedback to a focus on form episode. All immediate uptake occurrences are considered successful if the students reveal correct uptake immediately after correction.(Karim and Samshudin, 2013)

2.1.3.2. Delayed Uptake

Delayed uptake includes occurrences of uptake that happen minutes or moments after focus on form episodes, coming back to the communicative topic or paying attention to a new focus on form episode. Every instance of delayed uptake is regarded as successful if the students use the related forms correctly after a time that it is focused. (Karim and Samshudin, 2013)

2.2. Focus on Form

In response to the problems that result from an exclusive focus on meaning and in an attempt to incorporate attention to form into communicatively-oriented lessons, Long (1991) has proposed 'Focus on- Form'(FonF) (Karagianni, 2016). FonF has been derived from the communicative language teaching approach as a type of instruction in which the primary focus is on meaning and communication, with the learners' attention being drawn to the linguistic items in the input. The idea of FonF has since gained a broader meaning in literature, with many different terms and different definitions being given to the concept. Central to all developments is focus on strategies that attract learner's attention to the form of the target structures in a meaningful context. For instance, Long and Robinson (as cited in

Long, 1998) pointed out that FonF refers to "How attentional resources are allocated, and involves briefly drawing student's attention to linguistic elements, in context, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication." (p, 40)Long believes that, for acquisition to take place, attention to meaning alone is not enough and that attention to form is also needed (Ammar, 2003, p. 25). According to Norris and Ortega (2001) instruction may be considered as FonF if it addresses the following criteria:

- Learners engage with the meaning of a structure before paying attention to its form, through tasks that ensure that target forms are crucial to the successful completion of the tasks.

- The instruction in a particular form occurs as a result of analysing learner needs.

- Learner's attention be drawn to a form briefly yet noticeably (cited in Chowdhury, 2014, p. 21).

That is to say, FonF is a way of attracting learners' attention to any linguistic form that arises incidentally in an activity with a communicative focus, i.e., learners first engage in meaning.

Long (1998) stated that the purpose of FonF is to provoke what Schmidt (1993) calls noticing, i.e., saving forms of the input in memory without understanding their meaning or function, which is a question of how new items are organized into a linguistic system.

2.3. Learner's Intake

In classroom observation studies, learners' reactions to feedback (uptake, intake, and repair) have often been used as an indication of NF effectiveness.As far as intake is concerned, Reinders (2012) pointed out that it provides a window onto a better understanding of the essential intermediary stage between input and acquisition. Therefore, intake, as an intermediary stage may help to distinguish between input that is used for immediate purposes, such as communication, and input that is drawn on for learning.

2.3.1. Definition of Intake

McLaughlin (1987) stated that up to that time i.e., the late 80s, the term 'intake' "has taken on a number of different meanings, and it is not always clear what a particular investigator means in using it" (cited in Reinders, 2005, p. 80). In essence, as Gass and Selinker (2001) defined it, intake refers to "That part of the language input that is internalized by the learner" (p. 455)

Definitions of intake come into three broad categories: those that see intake as a product, those that see it as a process, and those that see it as a combination of the two.

2.3.1.1. Intake as a Process

Corder (1967) provided the earliest definition of the term as: "a mental representation of a physical stimulus" (p. 165). In other words, intake is something that has been retrieved by the learner, but has not yet been integrated into his/ her system of second language development and it is still connected to the physical stimulus. Corder went on to make an important observation in his study about how input is noticed in the process of L2 acquisition. He discussed the notion of intake as:

> The simple fact of presenting a certain linguistic form to a learner in the
>
> classroom does not necessarily qualify it for the status of input, for the reason
>
> that input is "what goes in" not what is available for going in, and we may
>
> reasonably suppose that it is the learner who controls this input, or more
>
> properly his intake. (as cited in Sun, 2008, p.2)

The above quote suggests that not all the data available to a learner can be absorbed and used to develop the learner's level. Moreover, Corder supposed that the learner is responsible in turning the input into intake as the only condition that would enable the conversion of input into intakei,e., not all input provided and comprehended will be available to the developing

system and become intake. In short, learners control and decide what to take in for their language development

Chaudron(1985) described intake as "the mediating process between the target language available to learners as input and the learner's internalized set of L2 rules and strategies for second language development". He also added that intake is "the processing of target language input" or "referring not to a single event or product, but to a complex phenomenon of information processing that involves several stages" (cited in Chi, 2016, p. 02). Similarly, Leow (1993) distinguished input and intake by maintaining that the latter is "an intermediate process between the exposure to input and actual language acquisition" (cited in Chi, 2016, p. 77). That is to say,from the above definition it is clear thatintake is not created solely by exposure to input; input needs processing for intake, and intake is a stage between input and acquisition i.e. intake happens in the period of getting the available rules and structures by the learner for learning them.

2.3.1.2. Intake as a Product

Faerch& Kasper (1980) viewed intake as a product and made a distinction between intake for communication and intake for learning.Intake for communication is the retrieval input that the learner has comprehended, whereas on the basis of intake for learning, the learner forms his/her hypotheses about the L2 rules and tests them out subsequently (cited inReinders, 2005). The notion of intake as seen from a learning point of view is more limited than as seen from the point of view of communication; while in the former case, intake refers only to input on the basis of how the learners draw their hypotheses about the L2 rules and structures and test them out afterwards, the latter is all of the L2 input that the learner receives and decodes at a particular situation in communication.

Carroll (2001), in turn, viewed intake as a product and made a clear distinction between comprehension and intake by rejecting the view that intake consists of comprehended speech.

Carroll defined intake as "something that happens as a consequence of a successful parse of the speech signal". Also, she argued that intake is a subset of the input consisting ofstimuli that are noticed by the learner (cited in Reinders, 2012, p. 24).

Yet, a different perspective on intake is formulatedbyKrashen (1981) who considered intake as synonymous with comprehensible input, or simply "that subset of linguistic input that helps the acquirer acquire language" (cited in Schmidt, 1990, p. 139). That is to say, intake is all the input that is understood by the learner and subsequently used for learning. Thus, learners must get comprehensible input; mixture of rules and structures that is both acquired and not yet acquired in order to advance or to learn.

2.3.1.3. Intake as a Product in a Process

Researchers who viewed intake as both a product and a process in the example ofAlcon (1998) suggested a combination of both viewpoints, stating that intake is a product of a process. In other words, intake is both the part of the input that learners attend to and process as well as the product acquired after processing is complete. Alcon explained this view by wondering about how the intake, which is seen as a product or a subset of input, is created from input in the first place. Moreover, if intake is seen as a process, then the fact that "the learner's intake can go beyond the boundaries of the input they are exposed to" is ignored (cited in Chi, 2016).Furthermore, Chi (2016) asserted that some researchers define intake as a product, as they mean that intake is a selected part of input that is processed.

Reinders (2012) developed what he calls a 'working definition' of intake. According to him, intake is "a subset of the detected input (comprehended or not) held in short-term memory, from which connections with long-term memory are potentially created or strengthened" (p. 28).

To sum up, the term intake refers to that part of the language to which learners are exposed that actually goes in and plays a role in language learning i.e., language that is internalized or the product of information processing in the brain through the realization, processing, and storage of input. Some researchers believe that intake is that part of the input that has been attended to and noticed by second language learners while processing the input, andnot all of the input that learners are exposed to is utilized as intake for learning.

2.3.2. Stages of Intake

Most researchers use the term intake in a general sense. Meanwhile, some researchers have quite specific views on this issue and categorize intake into preliminary and final intake. (Chi, 2016). For example, Chaudron (1985) organized intake into three stages: (1) the perception of input (comprehension), (2) the recording and encoding of the semantic information into long term memory, and (3) the integration of the linguistic information in input into the learner's developing grammars. This process is referred to as a continuation from preliminary to final intake (Sato and Jacob, 1992).

2.3.2.1. Preliminary Intake

According to Chi (2016) preliminary intake, which is a brief notice of some features of the input,includes the initial part of the continuum, namely the perception and comprehension of forms. Meaning that, preliminary intake refers to what Chaudron (1985) called "the first stage of intake". Which is learner's realization of the provided input.

Gass (1997) refers to preliminary intake with the term 'apperception', making a distinction between it and acquisition.Apperception is defined as "the recognition (by the learner) that there is something to be learned, that is, that there is a gap between what the learner already knows and what there is to know",and acquisition as "the creation of new mental structures which we call grammatical competence" (cited in Reinders, 2005, p. 27).

That is to say, Gass' view of preliminary intake includes the learner's comprehension of the need to learn or realize the input given by the teacher. In addition, it includes the comprehension of what the teacher referred to as the gap between what he/ she knows and what he/ she need to knowi. e matching new information with existing knowledge.

According to Sharwood-Smith (1986) comprehension, another term for preliminary intake, involves "the decoding of particular messages which have been encoded in linguistic form" (cited in Chi, 2016, p. 79).   According to this view, preliminary intake refers to the process of coding the linguistic forms and structures by interpreting them to clear messagesfor using them later. Learners may make use of intake for the purposes of comprehension and communication.

Slobin (1985) argued that preliminary intake includes the processes involved in transferring speech input into stored data that can be used for the construction of language (cited in Richard and Schmidt, 1998). That is to say, preliminary intake is concerned with two stages of the intake which are the realization (perception) and the comprehension (understanding) of the input and saving that information in order to use it in constructing the language.

In summary, preliminary intake is a concept that refers also to the terms *comprehension* and *apperception*. It includes the initial stages of intake, which arethe perception or recognition of the input provided.

2.3.2.2. Final intake

According to Faerch& Kasper (1980), final intakerefers "only to input on the basis of which the learner forms her hypotheses about the L2 rules and tests them out subsequently" (cited in Chi, 2016, p. 78). Hence, final intake is an advanced stage representing the formation and testing of rules about how language works; it invlovesthe integration and

incorporation of linguistic information into the developing language system. It is different from preliminary intake which is the initial part of the continuum, including the perception and comprehension of forms.

Slobinclaimed that final intake refers to the processes used for theorganization and arrangement of the saved data into linguistic systems. Final intake consists of the production of structures that learners construct from different linguistic features. This type of intake can be used to measure the strength of the rules and to test hypothesis (cited in Chi, 2016). In other words, final intake includes the last stage of intake which is the integration and regulation of the linguistic information of the input into the learner's language system.

To sum up, though intake is considered as an important component in SLA. There has been an imbalance in the amount of attention researchers have paid to the two types of intake. For example, Chaudron (1985) focused mainly on the notion of final intake.Preliminary and final intake have special roles, but are also linked to each other because each is a category in the language acquisition process (Chi, 2016).

2.4. Intake in Language Learning Hypotheses

Intake is the piece of information that can be used eventually by the learner for acquisition and a necessary component for subsequent development of the second language. It is the segment of the input which, when noticed by the learner, becomes intake, as revealed by subsequent output.This section discusses the learning hypotheses namely: the input, noticing, interaction and output hypotheses, and placespreliminary intake in each one of them.

2.4.1. The Input Hypothesis

It is believed that not all of the input provided by teachers to learners is used as intake for learning (Ertürk, 2013). Krashen (1981, 1982) hypothesized that the input must be comprehensible to the learner in order to become 'intake'. Thus, the perception and

comprehension of the input (preliminary intake) is a condition for the conversion of the given input into intake. Some years later, he proposed the Input Hypothesis, in which he attempted to explain how the learner acquires a second language and how SLA takes place. The input hypothesis argues that humans acquire language in only one way which is the preliminary intake of the messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input' i.e., acquisition takes place only if input is comprehensible to the learner (Krashen, 1985).

According to input hypothesis, when the language acquisition device is involved, language is subconsciously obtained. That is to say, you do not know that you are acquiring during the process of acquisition because the focus of your consciousness is on the message, not on the form. Therefore, the acquisition process is identical to what has been termed 'incidental learning'. Also, acquired knowledge is represented subconsciously in the brain, it is what Chomsky has termed 'tacit knowledge' (Krashen, 1989).

In addition, Krashen defined comprehensible input as "….the crucial and necessary ingredient for the acquisition of language". In other words, comprehensible input is that input which is slightly beyond the current level of competence of the learner's language. Therefore, if 'i' equals the student's level of comprehension and 'i+1' equals the learner's next stage of knowledge or just beyond that level, the input which the learner is exposed to must be at the i+1 level for it to be acquired.

The input hypothesis recommends that error treatment should be directed at comprehensible input (Varnosfadrani, 2006). Put it simply, acquisition depends on comprehensive input, that is, the input language should be above the learners' existing level and the overall difficulty of it can be understood in order for them to learn language effectively.

2.4.2. The Noticing Hypothesis

The notion of noticing or consciousness and its role in SLA has attracted increasing support on the basis of its assumptions (Zhang, 2012). The noticing hypothesis was originally proposed by Richard Schmidt in the 1990a as concept for explaining language acquisition. The idea stemmed from his own experiences as a learner of Portuguese when he observed that he understood some linguistic forms only when he noticed them. The hypothesis is a claim about how input becomes intake, in which a continuation from the early stages of preliminary intake (brief notice of the input) to the final stage (the integration of the linguistic information into the learner's developing system) takes place. Schmidt (1990) hypothesized that "nothing is learned unless it has been noticed" or "noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning" (cited in Schmidt, 1994, p. 17).

Schmidt further argued that it does not matter whether a learner attends deliberately to a linguistic form in the input or notices it purely unintentionally, once he/she noticed it, it becomes intake (cited in Zhang, 2012). For example, if a learner is given a sentence with an '–ed' past form such as "*I played tennis last Sunday*" as input. When the learner notices the rule: "-*ed* has to be added to the verb in talking about an event that happened in the past", this knowledge becomes intake. (Olagboyega, 2013) That is to say, noticing is a fundamental term for learning, and that students have to be aware about the input in order to acquire the linguistic features for L2 learning to proceed.

Moreover, it is hypothesised that not all the input that learners hear or read becomes intake; only some amount of the input is noticed. In this regard, Schmidt and Frota (1986) asserted that in order for learners to note the specific features of L2, understanding the input is not enough. Instead, the gap between the input and the learner's own interlanguage system has to be noticed.

Some scholars (e.g.,Sharwood-Smith, 1981; McLaughlin, 1987) also advocated noticing a feature in the input is a necessary first step in language processing; (cited in Zhang,2012).

To sum up, attention corresponds with awareness in the context of learning. Awareness at the level of noticing is essential to convert input into intake.

2.4.3. The Interaction Hypothesis

The interaction hypothesis has received considerable attention in the field of education. It has figured prominently in second language classroom research and it has served as the basis for a number of pedagogical recommendations (Ellis, 1991). The hypothesis was proposed by Long (1993), and places great emphasis on comprehensible input in the form of conversational adjustments (cited in Bargiela, 2003). It is suggested that the more speakers are able to make modifications in order to understand each other, the more second language learning will be successful and these attempts will create comprehensible input.

The interaction hypothesis is also associated with the work of Teri Pica. Pica's principal contribution related to the execution of carefully designed experimental studies designed to test the claims of the interaction hypothesis. Pica, Young and Doughty (1987) argued that more negotiation between participants led to more comprehension. That is to say, the more interlocutors speak with each other and discuss different topics, the more they understand each other. However, as Ellis (2008) pointed out, the benefit of interaction treatment can be related to the fact that the group was exposed to this type of input treatment over a longer period of time (cited in Nordal, 2014).

Ellis (1991) summarized the interaction hypothesis as a hierarchical three-part statement. The first part advances the central claim that learners need to comprehend input in order to develop their interlanguages. The second part states that opportunities to modify the structure of a conversation promote comprehension.

Zhang (2009) argued that when input is negotiated and apperceived (comprehension), and when learners produce output in interaction, they selectively "take in" parts of comprehensible input and use correct forms to express themselves. This process makes it possible for the learners to internalize what they have learnt and experienced (intake) .

2.4.4. The Output Hypothesis

Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis was formulated as a reaction to Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis. Both Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis and Long's Interaction Hypothesis argued that SLA relies on the availability of comprehensive input before the learner's internal processing technique can work (Swain, 1995). Swain argued that output was traditionally viewed as a way of producing what had previously been learned (cited in Zhang, 2009). In other words, output is the language that a learner produces. In contrast, the Output Hypothesis spots light on the role comprehensible output has in L2 acquisition. L2 development is possible only when learners are "obliged" to generate understandable output, otherwise comprehended input alone is not enough for the L2 learning process and learners continue to make a wide range of errors.

Swain proposed the hypothesis from a series of studies (Swain, 1995; Swain &Lapkin, 1995), and stated that comprehensible input alone cannot upgrade learner's language acquisition in terms of syntax, and that the production of output in response to input is obligatory for better language development. Thus, she proposed that "producing the target language may be the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning" (Swain, 1985)

The Output Hypothesis specifies three functions of output: noticing, hypothesis testing and metalinguistic functions (kwon, 2006). First, the noticing role gives learners chances to be aware of their problematic part in their production. According to Swain (1995), while the learner is attempting to produce the target language, he/she maynotice consciously some of

their linguistic problems. Also, they may realize what they do not know or only know partly in this language. (Swain &Lapkin, 1995)

The second function that output or language production may play is hypothesis testing; learners obtain L2 knowledge by first making hypotheses about target forms, and then examining them on the basis of the resulting feedback from their output. When external feedback is not available for the modification of their output, Swain argues, learners may still attempt other language structures themselves.(Swain, 1995).These supported her claim that output pushes learners to further internalize the input by noticing and hypothesis testing.

According to Kowail& Swain, (1994) the third function of output, the metalinguistic function, allows learners to accept target language structures by consciously reflecting on their hypotheses about the use of the target language (cited in Kwon, 2006). That is to say, the metalinguistic function of output provide learners with chances to further control of their production of language.

According to Swain (1985, p. 236), comprehensible output is a crucial condition in the transformation of input into intake. The latter, includes two important stages: preliminary intake and final intake. Both input and output are essential to SLA in which the part of input that is successfully covered by the learner (intake) is used for learning.

To sum up, the relationship between input, intake, and output can be diagrammatically represented as:
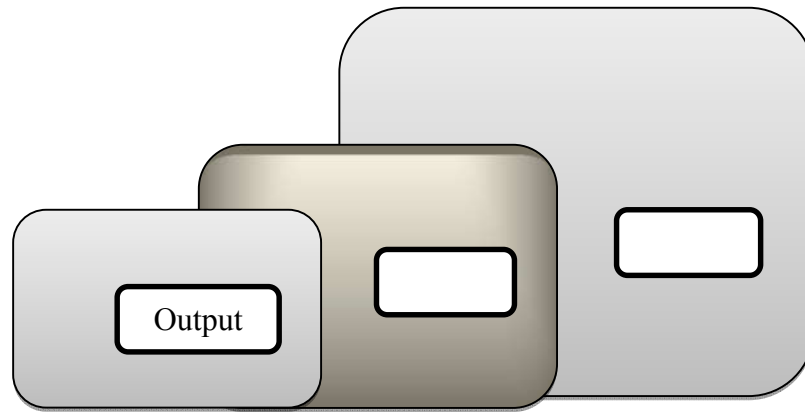
Figure 2: The relationship between Input, Intake and Output in a Quantitative View (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 87).

The figure shows that intake is the part of the input provided that has been attended to and noticed (by the learner) while processing it, and not all of the given input becomes intake. Likewise, output is a part of what has been internalized, which in turn is also a subset of input. Furthermore, a small segment of the learner's output can go beyond the borders of language input.

Conclusion

This chapter explored learner's uptake and intake which are phenomena related to classroom interaction and learning. Learner's uptake is the response of the student that follows the teacher's feedback; it can be immediate, when the student responds immediately after teacher correction, or delayed, when the response happens minutes or moments after receiving NF. Uptake consists of two types: repair and needs-repair. Repairrefers to the learner's ability to correct the erroneous utterance after the NF provided by the teacher. However, needs-repair refers to the unsuccessful reformulation of the incorrect statement by the student, and can be immediate or delayed too. Intake, on the other hand, refers to the deep learning or to the language input that is internalized by the learner. It takes place along a process that is composed of two stages: preliminary intake and final intake. Preliminary intake is the perception or comprehension of the NF provided by the teacher, and final intake

takes place when the input is printed in the learner's mind and results in never repeating the same error again. The chapter is ended by discussing the place of intake in the learning hypotheses: Input Hypothesis, Noticing Hypothesis, Interaction Hypothesis and Output Hypothesis. Accordingly, intake or comprehension of a segment of the input takes place when itis noticed by the learner, used in a correct manner systematicallyas output and in interaction, and finally becomes part of the learner's language.

Chapter Three: Field Work

Introduction

1. Data Collection Procedures

2. Population and Sampling

3. Classroom Observation

   3.1. Description of Classroom Observation

   3.2. Presentation and Analysis of the Classroom Observation

4. Student's Tests

4.1. DescriptionStudent's Tests

   4.2. Analysis of Student's Tests.

5. Overall Analysis of Results

Conclusion

Chapter Three: Field Work

Introduction

This chapter represents the field work of the current study which investigates the effects of negative feedback on learners' uptake and preliminary intake of second year English students at Mohamed SeddikBenyahia University, Jijel.It aims to describe the procedures followed in collecting data and choosing the target population and the sample. Next, the classroom observation scheme and students tests, used as data collection tools, are presented and analysed. The last section is concerned with the interpretation and discussion of the results of the study by way of answering the research questions.

3.1. Data Collection and Procedures

Since the purpose of our research is to investigate the effect of negative feedback on learner' uptake and preliminary intake, two tools are considered appropriate to be used in order to gather the adequate data for the present study: a classroom observation and students tests. First, the classroom observation is conducted to observe the frequency of both negative feedback moves in the teacher's turn and uptake in the students' turns. Second, the reason behind the use of students tests is to check their comprehension (preliminary intake) of teacher's correction.

3.2. Population and Sampling

The population targeted by the study is that of second year students at Mohamed SeddikBenyahia University. The sample consists of an intact class of 33 students that was randomly chosen from this population, on the basis of availability. In addition, our selection of population level is based on the fact that second year students have pre-intermediate to intermediate levels, which implies that they are still prone to make mistakes and receive various NF types by teachers; these students have also been studying English for more than one year together, meaning that they are more likely to respond to the teacher's correction i.e., instances of uptake.

3.3. Classroom Observation

3.3.1. Description of the Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is a tool that offers the chance to gather data from naturally occurring situations. Hence, it is regarded as a convenient tool to attainthe research aims, which are the attempt to probe into the various negative feedback types teachers used to correct the students' errors, and to realize the students' reactions or responses (uptake) towards the correction provided by teacher.

In this study, classroom observation is carried out in order to observe second year English students at Mohamed Seddik Ben yahia University. A class of students consisting of 33 students, attending five oral sessions in a period of 2 weeks starting on the 8th of April and ended on the 23rd of the same month during the academic year 2017-2018 has been the focus of observation. The researchers sat at the back of the class and each time a negative feedback strategy or learner's reaction towards it is observed, it was coded in the classroom observation scheme (Appendix 01). In addition, tape recordings of the whole sessions were used, after asking permission of both the teacher and the students, in order to review online observations and be more exact and thorough in identifying participants. These recordings were analyzed immediately after the end of each lesson so as not to forget small details.

It is worth noting that classroom observation is carried out only with one group, but we have observed other classes and different teachers. We attended four other sessions with three different teachers, but they do not suit our research aims since some teachers did not correct student's errors at all and some others just informed the speakers that they made an error at the end of the session without any provision of the correct forms.

In our study, the definitions of negative feedback types and uptake are adapted from the study by Lyster and Ranta (1997). The following tables (Table 3.01 and Table 3.02) offer a

description and illustration of the classroom observation system. The examples which are

used to illustrates the categories are based on our data and understanding of each definition.

Table 3.01

Categories for Observing Teacher Negative Feedback

A) Teacher NF Type	Definition	Example
1. Explicit correction	Provides learners with a correct form with a clear indication of what is being corrected.	S: My sister loves his cat T: Her. We don't say his.
2. Recast	Refers to the reformulation of the whole or part of learner's erroneous utterance without changing its meaning.	S: he goed to London last week T: he went to London last week.
3. Clarification request	Offered to indicate that the learner's utterance has low intelligibility and a reformulation is required.	S: all womens love parties. T: Sorry?!
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.(Complete needs only the correct version)	S: He have an open mind. T: Do we say Have with third singular pronoun
5. Elicitation	Refers to techniques used by an interlocutor to directly elicit the correct form from the learner. This can be done by repeating part of the utterance, but pausing to allow thelearner to complete the utterance correctly. (not complete, part..+ pause)	S: I not interesting in watching football matches. T: I…

Table 3.02

Categories for Observing Students' Uptake

B) Students' Uptake Categories		
Repair:refers to the learner ability to correct an initially erroneous utterance after the NF provided by the teacher. It can be either **immediate** (following teacher correction immediately) or **delayed** (occurring layter in student's talk)	**Ba) Self-repair:** in our study, self-repair also refers to repetition and incorporation. So it means the student self-correction of the error after a feedback type which does not include the correction, the repetition of the correction only. Or the student incorporation of the correction in a longer sentence.	S: she play handball. T: play? S: plays handball.
	Bb) Peer-repair: means that the error is corrected by another student (not the one who made the error).	S: yesterday I goed to the zoo. T: I'm sorry…? S2: went
Needs repair: refers to a situation where the learner responds to NF but the learner's utterance does not result in repairing the original erroneous utterance. It can be either **immediate** (following teacher correction immediately) or **delayed** (occurring layter in student's talk)	**Bc) Same error**: in our study, we include hesitation and different error together with same error. Thus it refers to the student repeating the original error after the feedback. Also when the student neither corrects nor repeats the correction but commits a different error. Or when the student shows uncertainty in response to the correction.	S: she will travel in America next summer. T: will travel… S:in America
	Bd) Partial repair: in our study, partial repair also includes acknowledgement. Thus, it refers to the student ability to correct only a part of the original error.Or simply saying "yes" in response to the NF.	S: she is sad because she wanted come the party. T: to. S: to come the party.
No Uptake	**Be)** Refers to instances where students do not respond to teacher correction at all	

3.3.2. Presentation and Analysis of Classroom Observation Results

The results obtained are analyzed with reference to the session in which they occur (from Session One to Session Five). Observation of each session is presented in the form of two sub-sections referring to:

(A) *The frequency of NF types* as observed by Table 3.01 above. Only the categories that figured in the session observed are coded in the table given.

(B) *The frequency of uptake* including only the observed categories as shown by entries in Table 3.02 above;

3.3.2.1. Session One

A) The Frequency of Negative Feedback Types

Table 3.03

The Frequency of NF Types in Session One.

NF Types	N	%
1. Explicit correction	01	20
2. Recast	03	60
5. Elicitation	01	20
Total	**05**	**100**

In Session One, the most frequently used NF type is recast, making up 3 instances out of 5 with a percentage of 60%. However, elicitation and explicit correction appeared only once for each with a percentage of 20%. Repetition, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests have not been used by the teacher.

B) The Frequency of Uptake:

Ba) Immediate and Delayed Self–repair.

Table 3.04

The Frequency of Immediate and DelayedSelf-repair in Session One

	Immediate Self-repair	
	N	**%**
2. Recast	02	66.67
5. Elicitation	01	33.33
Total	**03**	**100**

The results from the table 3.04 show that the NF moves that led to self-repair are recasts

and elicitations. Out of the 03 NF types that led to self-repair, recasts account for 02

(66.67%). Elicitation, on the other hand, accounts for 1 out of 3 instances and with a

percentage of 33.33%.

The following example was obtained from the classroom observation of this session where

the teacher provided correction using recast, and the student in his turn corrected the mistake

(repeat the correction)

S: My mother and I cooked many dish for dinner.

T: Dishes.

S: Dishes for dinner.

Be) No Uptake.

Table 3.05

The Frequency of No Uptakein Session One

	No Uptake	
	N	**%**
1. Explicit correction	01	50
2. Recast	01	50
Total	**02**	**100**

We can notice that two NF types led to no uptake, which are explicit correction and recast with one instance for both of them (50%). In one these two occurrences, for example, the student talked about a person using the word 'something'; so a correction was given by the teacher using explicit correction (someone not something); however, no reaction by the student was observed.So, the uptake is said not to be achieved.

3.3.2.2. Session Two

A) The Frequency of Negative Feedback Types:

Table 3.06

The Frequency of NF Types in Session Two

NF Types	**N**	**%**
1. Explicit correction	02	33.33
2. Recast	03	50
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	01	16.67
Total	**06**	**100**

Three NF types are used by the teacher starting with recast being the most frequent (3 out 6) with a rate of 50%, followed by explicit correction (2 out 6) with a rate of 33.33%. However, only 1 instance was responded to with metalinguistic feedback with a rate of 16.67%.

In one of these examples, recast was used by the teacher to correct the student's grammatical error concerning the auxiliary to have, self-repair (repetition) was the student's reaction for the correction.

S: My friend Zahra have a chance to win in the competition.

T: has.

T: has a chance to win the competition.

B) The Frequency of Uptake:

Ba) Immediate and Delayed Self–repair.

Table 3.07

The Frequency of Immediate and Delayed Self-repair in Session Two

	Immediate Self-repair	
	N	**%**
1. Explicit Correction	01	20
2. Recast	03	60
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	01	20
Total	**05**	**100**

Five instances of NF led to immediate self-repair; three of them followed recast (at 60 % of the feedback moves), one for explicit correction and the other for metalinguistic feedback (at 20 % each). In one of these examples, a metalinguistic feedback was used to correct a student grammatical error (tense), and self-correction followed the NF move.

S: My sister always take my personal stuffs.

T: My sister, so what is the form of the verb with the third personal pronouns, she.

S: always takes my personal stuff.

Be) No Uptake.

Only one error corrected by explicit correction did not generate any uptake. In this situation, the student talked about past events using the present simple, (Last year, I go to America), the teacher directly corrected the error; however, the student did not react to the correction provided.

3.3.2.3. Session Three

A) The Frequency of Negative Feedback Types:

Table 3.08

The Frequency of NF Types in Session Three

NF Types	**N**	**%**
1. Explicit correction	08	16.67
2. Recast	15	31.25
3. Clarification Request	03	6.25
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	14	29.16
5. Elicitation	08	16.67
Total	**48**	**100**

Recast is the most frequently used NF type in this session, making up 15 instances out of 48 with a percentage of 31.25%. It is followed by metalinguistic feedback, which appeared 14 times, with a percentage of 29.16%. Moreover, 8 of the 48 errors were corrected using explicit correction and elicitation, yielding a percentage of 16.67% However, only 3 of the 48 instances were responded to with clarification request with a percentage of 6.25%. That is to say, recast is the most preferred NF type by the teacher since it makes up the high rate.

In one of these examples, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation were used by the teacher to correct the student grammatical errors in the use of possessive adjectives 'her' and 'his'.

S1: My sister has his eyes bigger than...

T: My sister has……,

S2: her

S1: yes

S1: ….her eyes bigger than his stomach.

T: his, when speaking about your brother, so, when you talk about your sister or any female when she is absent, what you have to say

S1: her…her.

The teacher used elicitation (paused just before the error) to let the student self-correct the error. Another student provided the correction (peer-repair), buta simple "yes "was the reaction of the student toward the correction (self-repair in terms of acknowledgement). However, the student committed the same error; this pushed the teacher to use another NF move (metalinguistic feedback) by giving some comments and information related to the error in an attempt to elicit exact the correct form from the student. Finally, self-repair (repetition) was the student reaction toward this NF move.

In another example, the teacher used recasts to correct the student errors. Moreover, the correction was followed by self-repair (repetition).

S: educate people have.

T: educated.

S: educated people have the gift of the gap when debate.

T: when they debate.

S: when they debate.

B) The Frequency of Uptake

Ba) Immediate and Delayed Self–repair.

Table 3.09

The Frequency of Immediate and Delayed Self-repair in Session Three.

NF Types	Self-repair				Total	
	Immediate		Delayed			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
1. Explicit Correction	04	22.22	0	0	04	20
2. Recast	10	55.56	01	50	11	55
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	04	22.22	01	50	05	25
Total	**18**	**100**	**02**	**100**	**20**	**100**

Recast is the NF move that led to more immediate and delayed self-repair accounting 11 out of 20 instances (10 for immediate and 1 for delayed) with a ratio of 55%. It is followed by metalinguistic feedback, making up 5 out of 20 (4 for immediate and 1 for delayed) and yielding a percentage of 25%. Last, explicit correction led to 4 instances of immediate self-repair, making up of 20% of all NF types.

The following example was obtained from the classroom observation of this session, in which recast was used to correct a student's error in the use of possessive adjectives. Moreover, self-repair was the reaction of the student towards the correction.

S: My friend sarra his eyes are bigger than his stomach.

T: her, her eyes.

S: her eyes are bigger than her stomach.

In another example, self-repair (repeating the correction) was the student's reaction toward the teacher's explicit correction.

S: if my home goes on fire, I will take some books…, some romance

T: novels not romance

S: novels.

Bb) Peer-repair

Table 3.10

The Frequency of Immediate and Delayed Peer-repair in Session Three

NF Types	Peer-repair				Total	
	Immediate		Delayed			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	01	33.33	03	100	04	66.67
5. Elicitation	02	66.67	0	0	02	33.33
Total	**03**	**100**	**03**	**100**	**06**	**100**

Different from previous lessons, Session Three witnessed the occurrence of peer repair in response to teacher's metalinguistic and elicitation feedbacks. Metalinguistic feedback led to both immediate and delayed peer-repair making following 04 out of 06 NFs (66.67% in which 1 is immediate and 3 are delayed). Elicitation leads only to immediate self-repair accounting for 2 out 6 instances and with a percentage of 33.33%. One noticeable example from this session concerning peer-repair is the following:

S1: I think my father forbid.

T: Not forbid, it is an irregular verb. What is the past of the verb "to forbid"?

S2: Forbade.

T: yes.

S2: I think my father forbade.

Bc) Same error (Needs-repair):

Table 3.11

The Frequency of Same error (Needs-repair) in Session Three

	Same-error	
	N	**%**
3. Clarification Request	03	37.5
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	01	12.5
5. Elicitation	04	50
Total	**08**	**100**

The most NF type which led to immediate same error is elicitation with 04 instances out of 08 yielding a percentage of 50%. It is followed by clarification request with 03 instances and a percentage of 37.5%. Metalinguistic feedback accounts 01 instance with a percentage of 12.5%. As in the following example, clarification request was the NF move used by the teacher to correct the student's misuse of vocabulary (lexical error). However, the correction did not result in repair, and the same error was repeated.

S: Most of the celebrations have eyes bigger than their stomach.

T: Sorry, repeat!

S: Most of the celebration have eyes bigger than their stomach.

Inthe example below, self-repair was the reaction of the learner toward the teacher's correction of his grammatical error (tenses). The teacher used metalinguistic feedback, by providing information related to the rule of using the present simple. The student self-corrected the error as the example shows:

S: My brother always dressing up to….

T: always, regular activities and habits…so which tense should be used

S: dresses up.

Bd) Partial-repair:

Table 3.12

The Frequency of Partial-repair in Session Three

	Partial-repair	
	N	**%**
1. Explicit Correction	01	16.66
2. Recast	01	16.66
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	03	50
5. Elicitation	01	16.66
Total	**06**	**100**

Metalinguistic feedback occurred with more partial repair, accounting for 03 out of 06 instances with a percentage of 50%. The remaining 03 instances are followed recast, explicit correction and elicitation (01 instance for each with a percentage of 16.66%).

The following example was obtained from the classroom observation of this session, in which recast was used to correct the student's grammatical error in the use of the if-conditional. The student corrected only a part of the error, by acknowledging having made an error.

S: If my home goes on fire, I did not take anything, I just run out.

T: I will not take

S: yes.

Be) No Uptake.

Table 3.13

The Frequency of No Uptakein Session Three

	No Uptake	
	N	**%**
1. Explicit correction	03	42.86
2. Recast	03	42.86
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	01	14.28
5. Elicitation	01	14.28
Total	**08**	**100**

The highest rate, 42.86%, represents recast and explicit correction being the most NF types that were not followed by any uptake (03 for each). In addition, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation, make 01 instance for each with a percentage of 14.28 in leading to no uptake too. The following example presents one of the student's problems concerning the plural.

S: Most womans dress up to the night.

T: repeat

S: Most womans dress up to the night.

T: Women

S:...........

It can be seen from the example that, clarification request and recast were the NF types used to correct the student error. The same error was the reaction of the student towards the fisrt correction (clarification request) .But, no reaction to the recasts was observed (no uptake).

3.3.2.4. Session Four

A) The Frequency of Negative Feedback Types:
Table 3.14

The Frequency of NF Types in Session Four.

NF Types	N	%
2. Recast	09	90
3. Clarification Request	01	10
Total	**10**	**100**

Recast and clarification request are the only NF moves that appeared during this session. As was the case in the previous session, the highest rate, 90%, represents recast in Session Four (09 instances out of 10), and 1 instance for clarification request (10%).

B) The Frequency of Uptake:

Ba) Self-repair:

In Session Five, recast is the only NF type that created self-repair, (06 instances). The following example shows the teacher providing a recast to correct the student's error in the use of articles. The student, in his turn, responded to the correction (self-repair in term of repetition).

S: I need a money to help my family.

T: money

S: I need money ….

Bc) Same error (Needs-repair):

Table 3.15

The Frequency of Immediate and Delayed Same-error in Session Four

	Same-error	
	N	**%**
2. Recast	01	50
3. Clarification Requests	01	50
Total	**02**	**100**

Two NF moves were followed by immediate same error which are recast and clarification request, with 01 instance for both (50%).For illustration, a clarification request was used to correct a student error in the use of prepositions; however, no correction followed the NF move, and the same error appeared again in the student's production.

S: I will choose the job according competence and passion.

T: Could you repeat?

S: I will choose the job according competence and passion.

3.3.2.5. Session Five

A) The frequency of Negative Feedback types:

Table 3.16

The Frequency of NF Types in Session Five.

NF Types	**N**	**%**
1. Explicit Correction	04	40
2. Recast	04	40
3. Metalinguistic Feedback	02	20
Total	**10**	**100**

Explicit correction and recast obtained the same frequency in this session, making up 4 instances for each, and yielding a rate of 40%, followed by metalinguistic feedback accounting for 2 out of 10 instances with a rate of 20%. As in the following example, recast was the NF move used by the teacher to correct the student's lexical error (fear). The correctionresulted inself-repair (repetition) in the student's turn.

S: I will fear all my copybooks.

T: burn

S: burn

B) The Frequency of Uptake

Ba) Self-repair

Table 3.17

The Frequency Immediate and Delayed Self-repair in Session Five

NF Types	Self-repair				Total	
	Immediate		Delayed			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
1. Explicit Correction	01	16.66	01	100	02	28.57
2. Recast	03	50	0	0	03	42.86
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	02	33.34	0	0	02	28.57
Total	**06**	**100**	**01**	**100**	**07**	**100**

Recast led to more immediate self-repair (03 out of 06 with a percentage of 50%). It was followed by metalinguistic feedback, making up 2 out of 6, constituting a percentage of 33.34%. Explicit correction is the NF third frequent move that led to both immediate and delayed self-repair, making up 2 out of 07 instances (01 for each) and with a rate of 28.57%.

In this session, delayed self-repair was observed only once when a student talked about a female using the third personal pronoun 'he', (my sister is greedy when he deals with money). The teacher explicitly corrected the error; however, the student did not react to the correction provided immediately and needed a period of time to realize the correction.

Be) No Uptake:

Table 3.18

The Frequency of No Uptakein Session Five

	No Uptake	
	N	**%**
1. Explicit correction	02	66.67
2. Recast	01	33.33
Total	**03**	**100**

Explicit correction makes up 2 out of the 3instances that led to no uptake, with a percentage of 66.64%. Recast, on the other hand, accounts for 1 instance with a percentage of 33.33%. For example, one of the instances that was corrected using explicit correction dealt with misusing the present simple by a student to talk about past events (last week, I travel to Paris); however, no response to the correction was observed in the student's following turn.

3.3.2.6. Summary of Observations

3.3.2.6.1. The Frequency of NF Types
Table 3.19

The Frequency NF Types

NF Types	N	%
1. Explicit Correction	15	18.98
2. Recast	34	43.04
3. Clarification Request	04	05.07
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	17	21.52
5. Elicitation	09	11.39
Total	**79**	**100**

The results obtained from the classroom observation scheme for all sessions reveal that recasts are the most frequently used NF type by the teacher, with 34 instances out of 79 constituting 43.04%. They are followed by metalinguistic feedback, which appeared 17 times and with a percentage of 21.52%. Moreover, 15 errors were corrected using explicit

correction, 09 by elicitation and, last, 04 of the 79 instances were responded to with

clarification requests with a percentage of 6.25%.

3.3.2.6.2. The Frequency of Uptake

      Ba) Self- repair

Table 3.20

The Frequency Immediate and Delayed Self-repair

NF Types	Self-repair				Total	
	Immediate		**Delayed**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
1. Explicit Correction	06	15.79	01	33.34	07	17.08
2. Recast	24	63.16	01	33.33	25	60.98
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	07	18.42	01	33.33	08	19.51
5. Elicitation	01	2.63	0	0	01	2.43
Total	**38**	**100**	**03**	**100**	**41**	**100**

Recasts led to the most occurrences of immediate and delayed self-repair with a percentage of

60% (24 out of 38 for immediate self-repair and 1 out of 3 instances for delayed self-repair

with a rate of 33.33%) because in our study self-repair includes also repetition and

incorporation. Second, metalinguistic feedback, accounted for 8 out of the 41 NF with a

percentage of 19.51% (7 for immediate self-repair and 1 instance out of 03 for delayed self-

repair with a rate of 33.33%). Third, 8 explicit correction moves were followed by both

immediate and delayed self-repair (6 out of 38 for immediate with a rate of 15.79% and 1 out

of 3 for the delayed with a rate of 33.34%). Last, elicitation led to immediate self-repair only

with 1 out 38 instance, yielding a percentage of 2.63%. As for clarification requests, they did

not occur at all with self-repairs in students' turns.

Bb) Peer-repair

Table 3.21

The Frequency Immediate and Delayed Peer-repair

NF Types	Peer-repair				Total	
	Immediate		Delayed			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	01	33.33	03	100	04	66.67
5. Elicitation	02	66.67	0	0	02	33.33
Total	**03**	**100**	**03**	**100**	**06**	**100**

Out of the six teacher NF types, only two co-occurred with peer-repairs; these are

metalinguistic feedback and elicitation. The former led to more peer-repair making up 4 out

of 6 instances with a rate of 66.67%, one of which for immediate peer-repair with a

percentage of 33.33% and 3 instances (100%) for delayed peer repair. The latter, elicitation,

led to immediate peer repair only (2 out of 3 with a rate of 66.67%).

Bc) Same Error (Needs-repair)

Table 3. 22

The Frequency of Immediate or Delayed Same-error

	Same-error	
	N	**%**
2. Recast	01	10
3. Clarification Requests	04	40
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	01	10
5. Elicitation	04	40
Total	**10**	**100**

Clarification requests and elicitations yielded the highest percentage, 40% (4 instances

out of 10 instances for each). The remaining 2 instances represent recast and metalinguistic

feedback (1 instance with a percentage of 10% for each) were also followed by students'

turns that contain erroneous performance, or needs-repair.

Bd) Partial Repair (Needs-Repair)

Table 3.23

The Frequency Partial Repair

	Partial-repair	
	N	**%**
1. Explicit Correction	01	12.5
2. Recast	03	37.5
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	03	37.5
5. Elicitation	01	12.5
Total	**08**	**100**

Recasts and metalinguistic feedback yielded the same percentage (37.5%) in terms of

immediate partial repair. They were followed by explicit correction and elicitation having

also the same percentage (12.5%) with 1 instance out of 8 for each.

Be) No Uptake

Table 3.24
The Frequency of No Uptake

	No Uptake	
	N	**%**
1. Explicit correction	07	50
2. Recast	05	35.72
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	01	07.14
5. Elicitation	01	07.14
Total	**14**	**100**

Explicit correction is the most NF type that led to no uptake, making up 7 out of 14 instances

(50%). Recasts led to 5 instances of no uptake (35.72%), followed by metalinguistic feedback

and elicitation with 1 instance for each (7.14%).

C) The Frequency of Repair VersusNeeds-repair:

Table 3.25

The Frequency of Immediate Repair vs. Needs-repair

NF Types	Uptake				Total	
	Repair		Needs-repair			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Explicit Correction	07	14.89	01	5.56	08	12.30
2. Recast	25	53.19	04	22.22	29	44.62
3. Clarification Request	0	0	04	22.22	04	6.16
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	12	25.53	04	22.22	16	24.62
5. Elicitation	03	6.39	05	27.78	08	12.30
Total	**47**	**100**	**18**	**100**	**65**	**100**

The comparison made in the table above is between NF move types that resulted in successful correction by students (repair) and those that resulted in partial correction or failure to correct the original error (needs repair: partial repair and same error). The Results point out that recast is the most frequent NF move that led to uptake with 29 out of 65 instances (44.62%) divided into 25 repairs out of 47 instances (53.19%) and 4 needs-repairs out of 18 (22.22%). Second, metalinguistic feedback accounted for 16 instances out of 65 with a (24.62%): 12 in the case of repair (25.53%) and 4 instances for needs-repair (22.22%). Third, explicit correction and elicitation shared the same percentage (12.30%) with 8 out of 65 instances of repair and needs-repair. However, explicit correction yielded more repair, 7 instance, than elicitation, accounting for 3 out of 47 instances. Elicitation, on the other hand, co-occurred with more needs-repair yields, 5 instances, than explicit correction did, only 1 instance. Clarification requests came last with no following repairs and 4 needs-repair instances (06.16%).

D) Summary for Results for the Frequency of Uptake

Table 3.26

The Frequency Immediate Repair and Needs-repair

	N	**%**
Repair	47	59.5
Needs-repair	18	22.78
No Uptake	14	17.72
Total	**79**	**100**

In the five lessons observed, students were able to repair their errors in 59.5% of the situations where they were corrected by the teacher. On the other hand, they failed to correct their errors in (22.78%) and showed no sign of repair, no-uptake, in 17.72 % of the corrected examples. This suggests that NF more often than not contributes to the generation of correct utterances by students.

3.4. Students Tests

3.4.1. Description of Students Tests

The student's tests are another tool that is used to check the students' comprehension (the preliminary intake) of the teacher's correction. Before conducting tests, a transcription for the recordings of the sessions was made to serve as a guide in the process (**Appendix 03).** Thus, just after three days of each observed session different tests were conducted with specific students, who committed errors that were corrected by NF moves during the session. When the classroom observation has been finished (the five sessions), 14 students were tested by asking them some questions related to the errors they committed in class. Each student was given some activities to check whether the teacher's negative feedback was effective to the point that it resulted in preliminary intake or not. In addition, the tape recording was used when needed for stimulated recall of the original event of the error and its correction.

The tests contain both written and oral activities for each aspect corrected. The aspects are arranged according to the NF type used by the teacher, this is because our aim is to find which NF types are related to more correct answers by the students (preliminary intake).

3.4.2. Analysis of the Students Tests

In the following tables, results from 75% to 100% on the tests are taken to mean that learners have comprehended the teacher's negative feedback; hence, preliminary intake has successfully taken place, and that their minimal errors may just be slips of the tongue. Moreover, scores above 50% and less than 75% indicate that students are struggling to understand fully the aspects that have been erroneous and corrected by the teacher. However, being correct on less than 50% of the aspects corrected show that students have not understood the way language aspects work, have an inconsistent and rather shaky interlanguage system and that correct responses were more likely to be due to chance, reflecting that input provided by the teacher has not been internalized or transformed into intake. The data gathered from the student's tests was analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively.

3.4.2.1. Explicit-Correction-Related Preliminary Intake

Table 3.27

Comprehension of Aspects Corrected by Explicit Correction.

Aspects Corrected by NF1	N	Percentage to Total Score in Tests		Average
		Written	Oral	
Definite Articles	01	30	40	35
Prepositions	01	80	70	75
Possessive Adjectives	03	49.99	74.44	62.21
Tenses	03	60	45	52.5
personal pronouns	02	55	20	37.5
Vocabulary	04	/	92.5	46.25
Pronunciation	01	/	0	0
Total	**15**	**39.28**	**48.84**	**44.06**

The percentage of comprehension of all the aspects that were originally corrected in the lesson using explicit correction is 44.06%. Preposition were the most comprehended aspects with 75% correct responses in both written and oral tests. Next, the performance of students on possessive adjectives was rather high, 62.21%, but inconsistent between written tests (49.99%) and oral ones (74.44%). Third, students yielded mixed results with tenses (52.5%). As for the remaining language aspects, results were generally negative, with 46.25% correctness in the use of vocabulary, 37.5% for personal pronouns, 35% for definite articles and repetition of the same pronunciation error.

These results show that students understood explicit correction directed at prepositions, possessive adjectives, struggled with the comprehension of tenses, but failed to notice or understand the other language aspects. Hence, the NF of explicit correction benefitted two out of the seven language aspects in students' production.

3.4.2.2. Recast-related Preliminary Intake

Table 3.28

Comprehension of Aspects Corrected by Recast

Aspects Corrected by NF2	N	Percentage to Total Score in Tests		Average
		Written	Oral	
Definite and Indefinite Articles	02	30	40	35
Plural (regular and irregular)	02	75	37.5	56.25
Prepositions	05	60	42.5	51.25
Possessive Adjectives	03	80	53.66	66.8
Tenses	11	41.5	63	52.25
If Conditional	02	72.5	63	68.62
Adjective Formation	02	/	0	0
The personal pronouns	02	25	30	27.5
Auxiliary" To Have	01	85	50	67.5
Pronunciation	04	/	75	37.5
Total	**34**	**46.9**	**45.62**	**46.26**

Recasts as the most frequently used NF by the teacher covered more language aspects than any other NF type. Comprehension that occurred following recasts amounted to 46.26%.

As for the aspects that were somehow effectively treated by recasts as demonstrated by students' performance of the tests, they include the If conditional (68.62%), auxiliary to have (67.5%) and possessive adjectives (66.8%). At a lesser degree figure plural formation (56.25%), tenses use (52.25%) and preposition use (51.25%). Both pronunciation, definite and indefinite articles and personal pronouns seem not to have benefitted from teacher recasts, standing at 37.5%, 35% and 27.5% respectively. Lastly, recast treatment for the language aspect of adjective formation is not noticed or understood at all by the concerned students.

Almost all findings point out that students' responses were more likely to be due to chance, and that recast does not transform directly into preliminary intake (comprehension) since the total results does not reach a high rate. Furthermore, if conditional, possessive adjectives and auxiliary to have are the language aspects that have benefited somehow more from recasts.

3.4.2.3. Clarification-Requests-related Preliminary Intake

Table 3.29

Comprehension of Aspects Corrected by Clarification Request.

Aspects Corrected by NF3	N	Percentage to Total Score in Tests		Average
		Written	Oral	
Irregular Plural	01	100	/	50
Vocabulary	01	/	100	50
Tenses	01	/	50	25
Preposition	01	/	80	40
Total	04	25	57.5	41.25

When we tested students using written and oral tests, we found that they understood the aspects that were originally corrected using clarification requests in 41.25% of the situations. First, students had an average performance on both irregular plural formation and vocabulary

(50%). Correct use of prepositions stood at 40% of the total score while tenses proved harder to grasp by students with only 25% correct answers.

Based on the degree of correct answers, it can be said that it reflects inconsistencies in understanding that does not qualify to be considered as a preliminary intake. Moreover, clarification requests may have benefitted somehow comprehension of the language aspects irregular plural formation and vocabulary.

3.4.2.4. Metalinguistic Feedback-related Preliminary Intake

Table 3. 30

Comprehension of Aspects Corrected by Metalinguistic Feedback.

Aspects Corrected by NF4	N	Percentage to Total Score in Tests		Average
		Written	Oral	
Possessive Adjectives	05	20	39.33	29.66
Tenses	10	42.16	60	51.08
Auxiliary "To Have"	02	30.99	47.5	39.24
Total	**17**	**31.05**	**48.94**	**40**

Only three language aspects were targeted by metalinguistic feedback, and students understood 40% of those aspects. Tenses were the relatively best understood of the three aspects with a 51.08% ratio. Comprehension of the auxiliary 'to have' stood at 39.24% and that of possessive adjectives at 29.66%.

The inconsistent results indicate that metalinguistic feedback did not lead to learner's preliminary intake, and that students' responses were most likely to be due to chance. Tenses was the language aspect that might have benefited more from metalinguistic feedback.

3.4.2.5. Elicitation-related Preliminary Intake

Table 3.31

Comprehension of Aspects Corrected by Elicitation

Aspects Corrected by NF5	N	Percentage to Total Score in Tests		Average
		Written	Oral	
Possessive Adjectives	04	44.44	50	47.23
Tenses	02	32.5	10	21.25
Preposition	01	50	80	65
Vocabulary	01	/	100	50
Pronunciation	01	/	100	50
Total	09	25.38	68	46.69

In the written and oral tests, students understood 46.69% of the aspects which were originally corrected by elicitation. The aspects that gained the highest percentage are: prepositions (65%) and, at a lesser extent, vocabulary and pronunciation (50% for each) and possessive adjectives (47.23%). As for tenses, elicitation did not seem to have drawn students' attention to their correct use (21.25%).

As for what the findings reveal, it can be said that elicitation did not result in sound comprehension, since 46.69%is a not a good indicator of correction being converted into comprehension. Nonetheless, prepositions seem to have benefitted from elicitation.

3.5. Overall Analysis and Interpretation of Results

As mentioned in the general introduction, the aim of the present study is to examine to what extent negative feedback moves have an effect on learners' uptake and to investigate the more in-depth learning of the aspects corrected in terms of their comprehension (preliminary intake).These main objectives were achieved by analyzing the data collected using the previously discussed classroom observation and students tests.

3.5.1. The Relative Frequencies of The Negative Feedback Types Used in the EFL Classroom Selected.

In the teacher's turns, the results from the classroom observation showed that recast is the most frequent negative feedback move in the classroom selected with a percentage of 43.04%. It is followed by metalinguistic feedback at 21.52%. Third, explicit correction accounted for 18.98% of NFs; elicitation came fourth at 11.39% of the moves; fifth and last, clarification request constituted 5.07% of the NFs used by the teacher.

In comparing these results to those established in the literature on the subject, it can be said that the results from this study stand in line with most of the studies concerning the frequency of recast, as the most preferred NF type in EFL classrooms. However, the order of the rest of NF types is slightly different from those in the studies reviewed in the introduction to this research paper (e.g., Lyster and Ranta, 1997, Panova and Lyster, 2002). In the current study, the second most used NF was metalinguistic feedback and isfollowed by explicit correction . This order was reversed in the studies of Lyster and Rantaand Lochtman(2002). Moreover, explicit correction and elicitation got almost the same frequenciesin our study whileLyster, Ranta and Lochtmanfound that explicit correction was the fourth NF used in the classroom.

Results here are similar to those in studies that found clarification request as the least frequent NF move used by the teacher during the correction. Furthermore, the same results were found by Suzuki (2004) concerning recast as the most frequent negative feedback type, but for the second most ued NF, it was clarification requests and it is different from the current study that found metalinguistic feedback as the second most used type. However both studies agree on elicitation as the third in frequency.

3.5.2. The Negative Feedback Types Related to More Uptakes by Students.

In the students' turns, the findings obtained from classroom observation demonstrated that the negative feedback type which led to more uptakes by the student is also recast which generated uptake in the form of repair and needs-repair in 44.62% of the situations. Metalinguistic feedback was second, co-occurring with uptake in 24.62% of the situations, followed by both explicit correction and elicitation at 12.30% each, then clarification request with 06.16% uptake generation.

3.5.3. The Negative Feedback Types Related to More Student's Repair.

It was found from the data gathered in the current study that more than half the number of recasts used are related to student's repairs (53.19%); second, comes metalinguistic feedback (24.62%); third, explicit correction (14.89%) and, fourth, elicitation at 6.39%. Clarification requests was the only type of NF that led to no repair at all.

3.5.4. The Negative Feedback Types that Resulted in Long Term Learning (or Preliminary Intake) of the Aspects Corrected, if any.

Generally speaking, NF did not result in long term learning or preliminary intake. There were mixed results on most of the language aspects originally treated by the teacher in the classroom. Interstingly, however, there is some kind of preliminary intake of 'prepositions' following explicit correction. A less obvious relationship can be observed with 'possessive adjectives' related to both recast and explicit correction, and 'auxiliary to have' and 'if conditional' related to recast. Other language aspects are not adequately understood by students, which means they lie beyond their current level of development. Therefore, they need more instruction by the teacher and more practice and study by the student.

Conclusion

This chapter is concerned with the description and analysis of classroom observation and students tests to observe the distribution of negative feedback moves, students' uptake

and the effectiveness of the negative feedback in making students understand the aspects corrected.

It is our belief that the provision of negative feedback is important, or at least giving negative feedback in one way or another is generally more effective than ignoring oral language errors.The results obtained from the analysis of the classroom observation and the tests have made it clear that during the learning process, negative feedback is a part of the teacher-student interaction and recast is the most frequent NF type used by the teacher. The findings from classroom observation showed that negative feedback has a huge effect on the student's uptake since most of the correction provided was followed by uptake with a high percentage of repairs. However, results from the tests indicated that negative feedback did not really affect significantly all the aspects corrected, meaning that it has not resulted in preliminary intake. This was shown in the relatively low rate of comprehension, which proved that the learners' language systems were still not fully developed, inconsistent and results may even be due to chance. However, written and oral tests revealed that the language aspects of prepositions have benefited more from teacher's explicit correction, auxiliary to have and if conditional from teacher's recasts and possessive adjectives from both explicit correction and recasts, almost equally

General Conclusion

1.Putting it altogether

2. Pedagogical Recommendations

3. Limitations of the study

General Conclusion

1. Putting it altogether

The present study aims at investigating the effects of the teacher's negative feedback on learner's uptake or the immediate response to feedback, and preliminary intake, the comprehension of the negative feedback. This dissertation is divided into two parts: one theoretical and the other practical. The theoretical part includes two chapters, while one chapter was devoted to the practical part.

In the theoretical part of this study, the first chapter started by analyzing the nature oferrors in learning a second or foreign language, in which the term'error' is distinguished from that from 'mistake'and classified into various types. After that, feedback on learner's language was presented, defined and classified into the major types of implicit and explicit feedback, with each subsuming sub-categories, and immediate and delayed, relative to its timing. The chapter closed by exploring the stutues of corrective feedback in the major language leaching methods.The second chapter gave a clear understanding of learner's uptake by providing its definition and its major types and clarifying its timing. Next, the term intake was explained in addition to its main stages. Lastly, the chapter ended by discussing intake in language learning hypotheses.

The practical part, comprising the field work, focuses on interpreting the data. Frequency of both negative feedback types and their relationships to learner's uptake are explored using classroom observation. Tests are subsequesntly designed for the students we were working with to check whether the negative feedback provided by the teacher resulted in preliminary intake or not.This was followed by analysis and interpretation of the results.

To conclude, the findings obtained from classroom observation came in support of our hypothesis which stated that there are certain negative feedback moves which are significantly more frequently used than others in a typical EFL classroom, and that they have different effects on learner's uptake. It is found that NF has a considerable effect on learners' uptake especially in terms of repair, and that recast is the most preferred feedback type in the EFL classroom observed. On the other hand, results from the tests show that negative feedback was, more or less, negatively associated with learner's preliminary intake. However, some of the language aspects corrected have benefited slightly from teacher's explicit correction and recast.

2. Pedagogical Recommendations

The current study is an attempt to shed light on the effectiveness of negative feedback on the student's reaction towards the teacher's correction (uptake) and preliminary intake. The results from the investigation revealed that there is a connection between uptake and negative feedback. On the other hand, it was found that negative feedback moves may not result in preliminary intake. On the basis of these findings, the following recommendations are made:

➢ The errors that appeared in student's productions in the sessions observed were signs of gaps in students' knowledge about how language works. This is because, with regard to most language aspects corrected by the teacher, the students seem unable to grasp the meaning or the target of the correction; hence, they reproduced the same errors again in their performance on the tests.In other words, even when students repaired their errors in interaction (uptake), they could not avoid making them in other contexts (preliminary intake). Hence, teachers should scrutinize the errors made by students, and take them as the basis for designing remedial work or teaching them from scratch.

➢ The students should be encouraged to talk during oral sessions so that they can formulate and test hypotheses about language, thus become more likely to make errors in their utterances, and learn the correct target language form from their trial and error, from teacher feedback on errors and from practice that makes them remember better and internalize correct forms. Therefore, teachers should focus on creatingmore opportunities for teacher-student interaction to allow students to produce more.

➢ Negative feedback should be provided after the occurrence of each error because, as we have seen in the observed sessions, errors that were ignored by teachers continued to occur, and students who were not corrected may not even know that they have committed mistakes.

➢ From the observed sessions and based on the findings of the students tests, we found that teachers should not rely on just one NF type during the correction; they have to vary their use because there is no perfect move and each has merits and drawbacks.

➢ For oral negative feedback to be effective, the concerned education authoritiesshould make the school environment a better place to facilitate the teacher's task of attending and reaching out to all students. Reducing the number of students in each class is predicted to help students in getting more practice and feedback.

➢ Teachers and experts should stress on the importance of oral correctivefeedback by carrying out more studies on the issues studied here.

3. Limitations of the Study

During the preparation of this research we encountered many difficulties that need to be acknowledged. First, the population was limited to only one group because while all of teachers see that classroom observation is an important tool in research, one of them refused to give us the permission to attend the session, and another refused the tape recording of the

session, which is a fundamental help for the observation. Also, we know that the number of students is relatively small because it covers only 33 students with one teacher (one group). In fact, we attempted to include more students, and attended four sessions with different teachers, but none of them served our research since they did not correct the student's errors at all or just informed the speakers that they made an error at the end of the session without any provision of the correct forms. Thus, we were obliged to focus only on the one group which proved helpful for our study. In addition to that, the contraint of time was another obstacle that obliged us to make an effort to finalize the research as timely as possible, possibly affecting the quality of this research.

References

Akhter, T. (2007). Giving feedback and correcting errors in ESL classroom. BRAC University

Ammar, A. (2003). *Corrective feedback and L2 learning: Elicitation and recasts.* McGill University.

Ayhan, Ü.,Arikan, M., &Akbarov, A. (2011). Positive Impact of Corrective Feedback in SLA.

Bargiela, M. M. (2010). Teacher feedback and learners' uptake. Linguagemem (Dis) curso, 4(1), 81-96

Brooks, N. H. (1960). Language and Language Learning, theory and practice.

Brown, H. D. (2000). Principles of language learning and teaching (4 ed.). San Fransisco: Longman

Carroll, S., & Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback: An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. Studies in second language acquisition, 15(3), 357

Chaudron, C. (1977). A DESCRIPTIVE MODEL OF DISCOURSE IN THE CORRECTIVE TREATMENT OF LEARNERS'ERRORS. Language learning, 27(1), 29-46. -386.

Chi, D.-N. (2016). Intake in Second Language Acquisition. Hawaii Pacific University TESOL Working Paper Series 14, 76-89.

Choi, S.-Y., & Li, S. (2012). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in a child ESOL classroom. RELC Journal, 43(3), 331-351

Chowdhury, F. F. N. (2014). *Effects of Form Focused Instructions on outcomes in EFL learning: Teachers' and students' perspectives.* BRAC University.

Chu, R. (2011). Effects of teacher's corrective feedback on accuracy in the oral English of English-majors College students. Theory and practice in language studies, 1(5), 454-459.

Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learner's errors. IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 5(1-4), 161-170.

Day, R. R., Chenoweth, N., Chun, A. E., &Luppescu, S. (1984). CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN NATIVE-NONNATIVE DISCOURSE. Language learning, 34(2), 19-4

DeKeyser, R. (2007). Practice in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Duly, H., Burt, M., &Krashen, S. (1982). LanguageTwo: New York: Oxford UniversityPress.

Doughty, C. (1994). Finetuning of feedback by competent speakers to language learners. *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics: Educational linguistics, crosscultural communication, and global interdependence*, 96-108.

Egi, T. (2010). Uptake, modified output, and learner perceptions of recasts: Learner responses as language awareness. *The modern language journal, 94*(1), 1-21

Ellis, R. (1991). The Interaction Hypothesis: A Critical Evaluation.

Ellis, R. (2001). Investigating form focused instruction. Form focused Instruction and Second Language learning, 1-46: Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. L2 Journal, 1(1).

Ellis, R. (2012). Language teaching research and language pedagogy: John Wiley & Sons.

Ellis, R. (1997). SLA Research. and Language Teaching. Oxford University Press, 198 Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10016-4314

Ellis, R., Loewen, S., &Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. Studies in second language acquisition, 28(2), 339-368.

Ellis, R., Sheen, Y., Murakami, M., & Takashima, H. (2008). The effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback in an English as a foreign language context. System, 36(3), 353-371.

Ertürk, N. O. (2013). Effects of visually enhanced input, input processing and pushed output on grammar teaching. *Porta Linguarum: revistainternacional de didáctica de las lenguasextranjeras*(20), 153-167.

Fanselow, J. F. (1977). The treatment of error in oral work. *Foreign language annals, 10*(5), 583-593.

Fujii, A., & Mackey, A. (2009). Interactional feedback in learner-learner interactions in a task-based EFL classroom. IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 47(3-4), 267-301.

Gass, S. M., &Selinker, L. (2001). Second language acquisition: An introduction. *Mahwah: Lawrence Erbium.*

Gass, S. M., &Selinker, L. (2008). Second language acquisition: An introductory course: Routledgeisition. Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction, 175199.

Han, Z. H. (2002). Rethinking the role of corrective feedback in communicative language teaching. RELC Journal, 33(1), 1-34.

Hendrickson, J. M. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice. The modern language journal, 62(8), 387-398.

Hirschberg, J. (2016). Instances of Repair in Oral Exam Settings. Multilingual Discourses, 3(1)

Jabbari, A. A., &Fazilatfar, A. M. (2012). The role of error types and feedback in Iranian EFL classrooms. International Journal of English Linguistics, 2(1), 135.

James, C. (2013). Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis: Routledge.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). Intake factors and intake processes in adult language learning. University of San Jose State.

Karagianni, I. (2016). The Use of Learners' L1 in Teacher Oral Corrective Feedback: Its Effect on L2 Development. (Doctoral).University of Thessaloniki.

Karimi, L., &Esfandiari, N. (2016). The effect of recast vs. explicit corrective feedback on Iranian EFL learners' stress patterns learning. Theory and practice in language studies, 6(6), 116

Krashen, S. (1985). The input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications: London: Longman.

Krashen, S. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. The modern language journal, 73(4), 440-464.

Kwon, S.-H. (2006). Roles of output and task design on second language vocabulary acquisition. University of Florida.6.

Lavolette, E. H. (2014). Effects of feedback timing and type on learning ESL grammar rules: Michigan State University.

Leiter, J. (2010). Corrective feedback and uptake in the advanced learner classroom. (Doctoral), uniwien.

Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. Language learning, 60(2), 309-365

Lightbown, P. M., Spada, N., Ranta, L., & Rand, J. (1999). How languages are learned (Vol. 2): Oxford university press Oxford.

Llinares, A., &Lyster, R. (2014). The influence of context on patterns of corrective feedback and learner uptake: A comparison of CLIL and immersion classrooms. The Language Learning Journal, 42(2), 181-194.

Lochtman, K. (2002). Oral corrective feedback in the foreign language classroom: How it affects interaction in analytic foreign language teaching. International Journal of Educational Research, 37(3-4), 271-283.

Loewen, S., &Philp, J. (2006). Recasts in the adult English L2 classroom: Characteristics, explicitness, and effectiveness. The modern language journal, 90(4), 536-556.

Long, M. H. (1977). Teacher feedback on learnererror: Mapping cognitions In H. D. Brown, C. A. Yorio, & R. H. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL* '77 (pp. 278-293). Washington: TESOL. 278-294

Long, M. H. (1998). Focus on form Theory, research, and practice Michael H. Long Peter Robinson. *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition, 15*, 15-41.

Lyster, R. (1998). Recasts, repetition, and ambiguity in L2 classroom discourse. Studies in second language acquisition, 20(1), 51-8

Lyster, R. (2001). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. Language learning, 51(s1), 265-301.

Lyster, R., & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. Studies in second language acquisition, 28(2), 269-300.

Lyster, R., &Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. Studies in second language acquisition, 19(1), 37-66

Mackey, A. (2013). Input, Interaction and Corrective Feedback in L2 Learning-Oxford Applied Linguistics: Oxford University Press.

Moore, A. (2001). The effects of formal instruction on EFL pronunciation acquisition: a case study from Germany. England: University of Surrey.

Mosbah, G. A. (2007). Treatment of classroom oral errors: A comparative study between native and non-native speaking teachers. University of Leicester (United Kingdom).

Nicholas, H., Lightbown, P. M., &Spada, N. (2001). Recasts as feedback to language learners. Language learning, 51(4), 719-758.

Nordal, E. (2014). Negative Feedback Perceptions and Practices regarding the Correction of Oral Errors in Norwegian Upper Secondary Schools. (Master thesis), university of OSLO .

OLAGBOYEGA, K. W. (2013). -The Language" Noticing" Hypothesis-Towards Effective Teaching Methods in Japan.

Panova, I., &Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. Tesol Quarterly, 36(4), 573-595.

Park, H.-S. (2010). Teachers' and learners' preferences for error correction. (Doctoral dissertation). CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, SACRAMENTO.

Quinn, P. (2014). Delayed versus immediate corrective feedback on orally produced passive errors in English.

Rassaei, E., &Moinzadeh, A. (2011). Investigating the effects of three types of corrective feedback on the acquisition of English Wh-question forms by Iranian EFL learners. *English Language Teaching, 4*(2), 97.

Reinders, H. (2005). The effects of different task types on L2 learners' intake and acquisition of two grammatical structures. (Doctoral Thesis). Auckland University

Reinders, H. (2012). Applied Research in English:Towards a definition of intake in second language acquisition.1(2).

Rezaei, S. (2011). Corrective Feedback in Task-Based Grammar Instruction: A Case of Recast vs. Metalinguistic Feedback: LAP Lambert.

Rezaei, S., Mozaffari, F., &Hatef, A. (2011). Corrective feedback in SLA: Classroom practice and future directions. International Journal of English Linguistics, 1(1), 21.

Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning. The University of Hawaii at Manoa

Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (1998). The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning. The University of Hawaii at Manoa

Safari, P. (2013). A descriptive study on corrective feedback and learners' uptake during interactions in a communicative EFL class. Theory and practice in language studies, 3(7), 1165.

Sato, E., & Jacobs, B. (1992). From input to intake: Towards a brain-based perspective of selective attention. *Issues in Applied Linguistics, 3*(2).

Schmidt, R., &Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition*, 237-326.

Schmidt, R. (1994). Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. Consciousness in second language learning, 11, 237-32

Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning1. *Applied linguistics, 11*(2), 129-158.

Senior, R. (2006). The experience of language teaching: Cambridge University Press.

Shabani, K., & Safari, F. (2016). Immediate vs delayed correction feedback (CF) and accuracy of oral production: The role of anxiety. Theory and practice in language studies, 6(11), 2222.

Shamsudin, S., & Karim, H. R. (2013). Focus on Form in an EFL Context: Learners' Uptake. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 70*, 1282-1287.

Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. Language Teaching Research, 10(4), 361-392.

Smith, B. (2005). The relationship between negotiated interaction, learner uptake, and lexical acquisition in task-based Computer-Mediated Communication. Tesol Quarterly, 39(1), 33-58.

Spada, N., &Fröhlich, M. (1995). COLT--communicative orientation of language teaching observation scheme: Coding conventions and applications: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

Sun, Y. A. (2008). Input processing in second language acquisition: A discussion of four input processing models. *Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics, 8*(1).

Suzuki, M. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in adult ESL classrooms. Teachers College, Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics, 4(2).

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. Input in second language acquisition, 15, 165-179.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. Principle & practice in applied linguistics.

Swain, M., &Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processestheygenerate: A steptowards second languagelearning. *Appliedlinguistics, 16*(3), 371-391.

Tornberg, U. (2005). Språkdidaktik (3: e ed.). Malmö: GleerupsUtbildning AB.

van der Kleij, F. M., Eggen, T. J., Timmers, C. F., &Veldkamp, B. P. (2012). Effects of feedback in a computer-based assessment for learning. Computers & Education, 58(1), 263-272.

Varnosfadrani, A. D. (2006). A comparison of the effect of implicit/explicit and immediate/delayed corrective feedback on learners' performance in tailor-made test.

Zhang, S. (2009). The role of input, interaction and output in the development of oral fluency. *English Language Teaching, 2*(4), 91.

Zhang, S. (2012). Promoting noticing in EFL classroom. Theory and practice in language studies, 2(3), 579

APPENDICES

Appendix 01:

Classroom Observation Scheme:

Teacher: **Observer:**

Date: **Time:**

	Repair				Needs- repair				No-Uptake
	Immediate		Delayed		Immediate		Delayed		
Mistakes	**Self-repair**	**Peer-repair**	**Self-repair**	**Peer-repair**	**Same-error**	**Partial-repair**	**Same-error**	**Partial-repair**	

- Explicit correction **(01)**

- Recast **(02)**

- Clarification request **(03)**

- Metalinguistic feedback **(04)**

- Elicitation **(05)**

Appendix 02:

Materials used in tests

A) Tenses

1. Which tense should we use when we talk about habits and regular activities?

- Put the verb between brackets in the right tense:

-My father always ………………. (read) books in his free time.

-Sometimes I ……………. (dress up) to the night.

2. Put the verb between brackets in the correct tense.

- Last year, I ……….. (travel) to America.

- I ………… (get) the best mark in the last oral exam.

3. Put the verb between brackets in the right tense:

 - My brother has his stomach bigger than his eyes when he…….. (deal) with money.

 - John……. (travel) to Venice every Sunday.

 - They………. (open) the market at 8:00.

 - It……… (cost) so much.

 - My father ………. (wake up) at six in the morning.

4. Put the verb in the past simple

 - I was very happy, when I …………. (take) my BAC exam.

 - Last year, I ……… (go) to America on holiday.

 - I ………. (read) four books last month.

 - They …… (buy) a new car yesterday.

 - The teacher ……. (give) us an additional lesson yesterday.

 - Last week, I …….. (decide) to India next holiday.

5. Put the verb between brackets in the right tense:

- My friend always…………. (dress up) to the night.

- My brother often………… (practice) sport in his free time.

6. Use the verb "do" in the correct form.

- My cousin……. (do not) have a car.

- I……….. (do not) like to wake up early.

- Sarra……… (do not) come to school today.

- How is the verb "to do"conjugated in the present simple?

7. Complete the sentences using the correct tense:

 - She always…….. (convince) me to change my decisions in the last moment.

- My teacher always …….. (teach) new things.

- He………… (play) tennis once a week.

- Water ……… (boil) at 100 degrees.

- We……… (study) a lot.

8. In the lesson you have said (the student sentence plus using the record), what do you think about your sentence?

Example:

- Rich women are dressing up to the night.

9. Study the correctness of the following sentences:

- My father has the gift of the gab, he always convince me to change my decisions in the last moment.

- My mother hate to dress up to the night.

- In the wedding people were dress up to the night.

- I cannot do the job when I obliged.

- How to form the present simple?

- When we use it?

- Give examples.

- How to form the past simple?

- In which cases it is used?

- Give examples.

9. Correct the following sentences:

- I do not interesting in studying English.

- My friend Rania is not coming to the university today because she does not feeling good.

B) Possessive Adjectives

1. Use the following picture to complete the paragraph below.

Mrs Brown is making lunch for ……..nephew Freddy and …….niece Angela. The Babby sitter told Mrs Brown that Angela likes pizza. But Angela has decided to make thing difficult for……..aunt. Even though………..pizza is already cooked. But Freddy is a calm boy, he takes …….plate and starts eating.

- In the lesson , you have said : (The student sentence)

- What do you think about your sentence?

- What have you understand from this activity about the use of the possessive adjective of the third singular "his" and "her"?

- Give examples.

2.   Use the pictures to answer the following questions:

- Complete the paragraph using the possessive adjectives "her" and "his".

Angela and …….mother have returned from shopping. …..dad can see that

….daughter is not happy because ….. mother refused to give……money to buy ice-cream.

The father feels upset because he do not want to see ……daughter sad.

- What is the the possessive adjective for the 3rd singular that is related to a girl or a boy when s/he is absent?

- Give examples.

3.   Study the correctness of the following sentence:

-   I prefer a job with high salary in order to help myself and your family.

C) **Personal Pronouns**

1.   Use the pictures to answer the following questions:

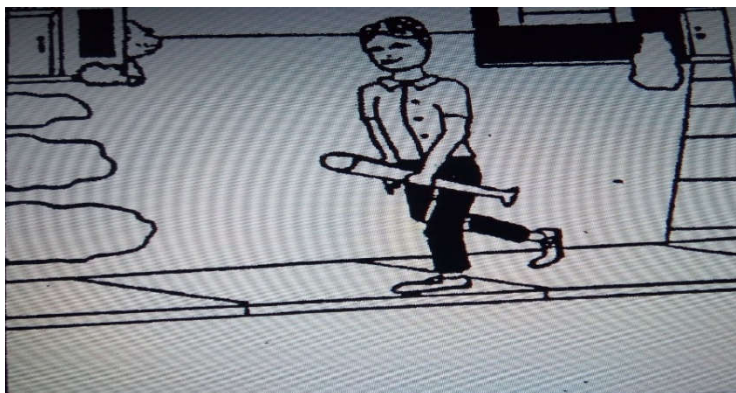- Correct the following short paragraph:

Today is John's birthday . She is twelve years old. She is having a party with his friends and family. Many people are invided. She is very happy .

- Fill in the gaps using the suitable personal pronoun.

Sarra is going to John's party. ………is carrying a present in her arm. It is a game. ……..is happy to be invited to the party and to wear her pretty new dress. ……..does not want to be late.

Adam is John's best friend. ………lives just next to him. …….. has a special present for John in his hand. It is a baseball bat. John loves baseball and plays it every summer. …….is the best player in the team.

2. Correct the paragraph:

John is very excited to see your friend. He is waving her right hand to greet them. Her younger sister Diane is excited too. She has party hat on his head. Diane thinks that birthday parties are super. His birthday is on July. She will have 6 years old.

3. Correct the sentences:

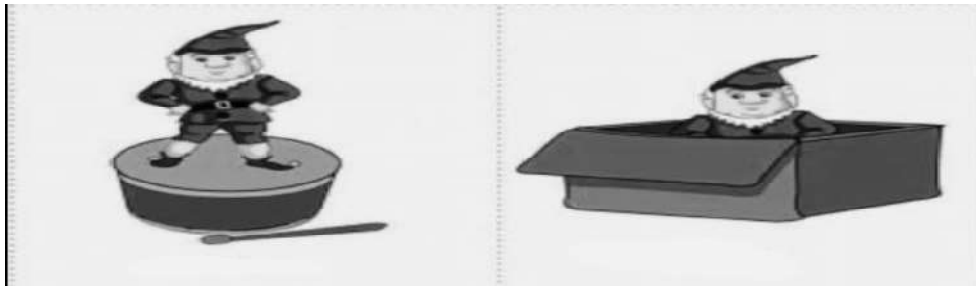- Educate people have the gift of the gap when debate.

D) Prepositions

1. Take a look at these pictures.

- Where is the cat?

- Where is the bird?

- Where is the doll?

- Complete the sentences by using: On, in, to.

- Last year, I went …………….. Batna.

- The books are …………the desk.

  - My father took me ………..a trip……..the forest.

    - In which cases do we use each preposition?

    - Give an example for the each preposition.

2. Put the right preposition when necessary:

- I disagree you.

- I have to home stay my mother because she is sick.

- What do you think about the following sentence

  - I agree my friend's opinion

3. **Definite and Indefinite**

- Put the suitable article

 - I need …………money to buy new books.

 - ……..football is the most popular sport in the world.

 - Many African countries are still suffering from the lack of……..and ……..water.

 - The last question of the exam was about the history of ……India.

 - ……last week, I traveled to Paris.

- What is the rule of using the indefinite article "a" and "the".

- Give examples

4. Auxiliary "To Have"

1. When do we use 'Have' and when do we use 'Has'?

2. Compete the following sentences using the suitable form of the verb to have.

- Many students ……the chance to subscribe in the competition.

- Journalists ……the right to write about many things in the society.

- You should …fight for your rights.

- She ….to be aware about her responsibilities.

3. What do you think about the following sentences?

- Journalists has the gift of the gap.

- My mother have many relatives.

- How to conjugate the verb "to have" in the present?

- Give two sentences, one with have, and the other with "has".

4. Correct the following sentences:

- Many people in the society has her eyes bigger than their stomach.

- Educated people have the gift of the gap when they debate.

- Journalist are the gift of the gap.

5. Plural (regular and irregular)

1. Find the plural of the following words:

- Foot   - Man

- Woman   - Library

- Crime   - University

2. What do the following picture represents?

2. Give the plural of the following words:

- Dish

- Mouse

- Knife

- Library

H) Vocabulary

1. Check the correctness of this sentence

The idiom "has the gift of the gap" refers to **something** who has the talking skill;

somethingwho is persuasive.

2. Here is a list of some people:

   - Adel   -Victor Hugo

   - Cristiano Ronaldo   - Messi

   -AhlamMostaghanmi

- Who are those people?

- You said before most celebrations have the gift of the gap. (Using the record).

- What do you think about your sentence?

NEGATIVE FEEDBACK, UPTAKE AND PRELIMINARY INTAKE

3. Here is a list of some titles:

-The scarlet letter   - The old man and the sea

-Hard times   -Animal farm

- What do they refer to?

- What do you think about the following sentences?

 - If my home go on fire, I will take some books, some romance.

 - This summer, I will read many romance in order to improve my English vocabulary.

 - When I finish studying, I fear all my copybooks.

I) if conditional

1.   Complete the following sentences using the suitable tense.

- If my home goes on fire, I …… (take) anything.

 - If you respect others, they…… (respect) you.

 - Our football team….. (reach) the semi-final, if it …..(win) this match.

- what is the rule of "if conditional" type 01:

 If +……………., +…………….

- Give two examples?

- Once you said, if my homes goes on fire, I just run, I did not take anything. (Using the record).

- What do you think about your sentence?

2. Complete the following sentence using the suitable tense:

-If my home goes on fire, I…………. (take) my money.

- What is the rule of "if conditional" type one?

If + ………….. , +……………

- Give examples

NEGATIVE FEEDBACK, UPTAKE AND PRELIMINARY INTAKE

Once you said if my home goes on fire, I take the money.

- What do you think about this sentence?

- What do you understand?

J) Adjective Formation

1.Find the adjective of the following nouns:

- Society

- Reality

- Underline the correct answer in the following sentence:

My sister does not talk so much, and prefers to stay alone, she has to be social / sociable.

2. Correct the following sentences.

- I will choose my job according to competence and passion, because I will do it with perfection and I feel exciting about it.

- Most educate people are jobless.

K) Pronunciation

1. Read the following sentences

- I promised my father to do my best in order to get good marks.
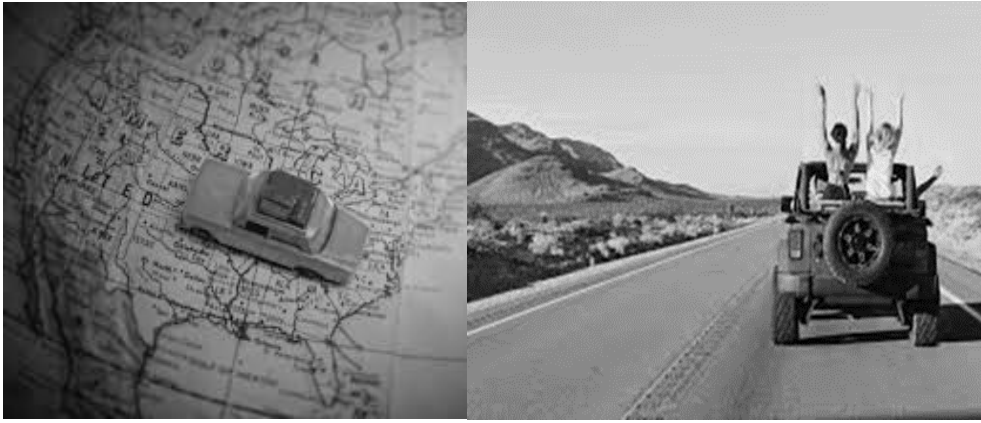
- In the wedding, people dress up to the night.

- Most politicians their eyes are bigger than their stomach when it comes to money.

- The professor is absent today.

2. What are you planning to do in the coming years after getting your diploma?

3. Take a look at these two pictures, then tell me what do they represent?

- In the lesson you have talked about Bejaia, besides Bejaia which places have you been to? Tell me please about other experiences.

Transcripts of NFEpisodes

Session One:

S: The last question of the exam was about the history of the India.

T: History of India.

S: I agree my friend's opinion

T: I agree…

S: I agree with my friend's opinion.

S: the idiom has the gift of the gap refers to something who has the talking skill; something who is persuasive.

T: Someone not something.

S: Rima…, he was..

T: She was.

S: She was…

S: My mother and I cooked many dish for dinner.

T: Dishes.

S: Dishes for dinner.

Session Two:

S: On my opinion, Real Madrid is the best football team.

T: In my opinion

S: In my opinion…

S: My friend zahra have a chance to win the competition.

T: has

S: Has a chance to win the competition.

S: Last year, I go to America.

T: I went not go.

S: My brother loves her car.

T: His car not her.

S: loves his car.

S: My sister always take my personal stuffs.

T: My sister, so what is the form of the verb with the third personal pronoun, she?

S: always takes my personal stuffs.

S: She forgets his books

T: her books.

S: her books.

Session Three

S: Most womens are in love with dressing up to the night.

T: repeat

S: Most womans are

T: ahh, women

S: are in love with dressing up in parties.

S: My friend sarra has really her eyes bigger than his stomach.

T: than her

S: then her stomach.

S: my father has the gift of the gap, he always convince my grandmother to stay.

T: convinces

S: convinces my grandmother to stay.

S: Ahmed has his eyes bigger than his stomach especially when he dealing with money.

T: When…..

S: especially when he dealing with money.

T: when he deals or when he is dealing

S: in nowadays, most of girls they dress up to the night

T: most of girls, why they, you have already mention the subject girls.

S: most of girls dress up to the night in parties.

S: I really want to go with my friend in a trip in Bejaya.

T: on a trip.

S: On a trip in Bejaya.

T: to Bejaya.

S1: I think my father forbid.

T: Not forbid, it is an irregular verb. What is the past of the verb "to forbid"?

S2: Forbade.

T: yes.

S2: I think my father forbade…..But, my mother has the gift of the gap, she always convince me

T: convinces….she.

S: My brother always dressing up to….

T: always, regular activities and habits…so which tense should be used

S: dresses up.

S: rich women are dressing up dressing up to the night.

T: why are dressing up, dress up…use the present simple,

S: dress up to the night.

S1: My sister has his eyes bigger than...

T: My sister has……,

S2: her

S1: yes

S1: ….her eyes bigger than his stomach.

T: his, when speaking about your brother, so, when you talk about your sister or any female

when she is absent, what you have to say

S1: her…her.

S: Journalist are the gift of the gap.

T: are or have

S: has

T: have, journalists in the plural…ok

S: yes.

S: Most of the celebrations have eyes bigger than their stomach.

T: Sorry, repeat!

S: Most of the celebration have eyes bigger than their stomach.

T: celebration! Celebration, celebrities,…celebrations are occasions

S: yes

S: In the Widang(pronunciation)

T: weddings

S: in weddings, people were dress up to the night.

T: why were? People dress up…simply, omit were

S: yes.

S: Many people in the society has the gift of the gap.

T: Have not has, many people…plural ok

S: Have the gift of the gap…. Have her eyes bigger

T: their , plural

S: Their eyes bigger than

T: are bigger…where is the verb

S: are bigger than his stomach

T: oh; are bigger than….., ……than………. their stomach.

S: ………

S: educate people have.

T: educated.

S: educated people have the gift of the gap when debate.

T: when they debate.

S: when they debate.

S: I like to be always dress up to the night.

T: I like to be, why I like to be? Omit it, dress up here is the verb

S: yes

S: my profiss has the gift of the gap.

T: my……, my…..

S: profiss

T: professor right

S1: I hate this person because her eyes are bigger than one's stomach.

T: Than….., than…..stomach

S1: than his stomach.

T: repeat this one's by using an equivalent pronoun, I mean speaking about her or his.

Ss: her

S1: her eyes are bigger than one stomach.

T: no, replace one by….

Ss: her, her

T: which stomach are you talking about, your stomach or her stomach

Ss: her

T: his or her

S1: his ohhh her

T: speaking about a sister or a brother, a male or a female

S1: a male

T: a male so he, repeat

S: her eyes.

T: his, his

S: his eyes are bigger than his stomach.

T: that's it.

S: my sister is dressing up to the night every day

T: everyday, with every day, do we use the present continues

Ss: no the present simple

S: my mother hate to dress up to the night

T: hates not hate

S: hates to dress up to the night

S: ……, he always convince me

T: convinces

S: convinces me to change my decision in the last moment

S: my nephew has her eyes bigger than

T: nephew

S: yes

Ss: his

T: nephew, has her eyes …nephew

S: his

T: who is the nephew?

S: the son of my brother

T: yeah

S: my nephew has his eyes bigger than his stomach

S: ….when I take my BAC

T: when I took.

S: when I took my BAC

S: if my home goes on fire, I take

T: I will take

S: I will take the money

S: ….because, when the fire, fire eating every thing

T: eats

S: eats

T: yeah

S: if my home goes on fire, I will take some books…, some romance

T: novels not romance

S: novels.

S: in fact, I did not take the money

T: I do not

S: I remember something

S: I did not take or something else

T: I do not.

S: yeah, I do not

Session Four

S: I need a money to help my family.

T: money

S: I need money ….

S: I will choose the job according competence and passion.

T: Could you repeat?

S: I will choose the job according competence and passion

S: ….because I can not do the job when I obliged

T: when I am obliged

S: yeah

S: I agree with opinion

T: I agree with my friend's opinion

S: I agree with my friend's opinion

S: I will choose my job according to competence and passion, because I will do it with perfection and I feel exciting about it.

T: excited

S: excited

S: I do not interesting in

T: I am not interesting

S: yeah.

S: I want to go far in my study, for example, I can get doctora

T: doctorate

S:…………

T: why do you need money?

S: to help

T: to help whom

S: to help myself

T: and your

S: and your family.

T: my family

S:yes, my family.

 S: Last week, I decide to…

T: I decided

S: last week I decided to go on a trip

Session Five

S : The teacher was given an additional lesson for us out of the class, he cut the corner for money.

T: repeat.

S: The teacher was given an additional lesson for us out of the class.

T: does it mean you was given at that moment or he early gives.

S1: gave.

T: make your sentence clear as far as grammar is concerned. Repeat.

S: the teacher…

T: first of all, the teacher "who", who's the teacher? You use a relative pronoun. When we say was given, what does it mean?

S2: who gave him

T: in the past, okay

S: an additional lesson.

T: who was given additional lessons?

S: for us out of the class.

T: uham

S: he cut the corner for money.

T: for money or to get money… Allwright

S: most politicians…

T: politicians.

S: politicians cut the corner…

T: good, that's totally true.

S: the last week I travel in America.

T: to America.

S: to America, I get….

T: I got.

S: I got….

S: the last week…

T: not the last week, last week…

S: After the exams and in the heat of the moment, I fear all my copybooks.

T: say burn, not fear.

S: burn

T: I burnt

S: I burn all my copybooks and later I found that I still need them.

S: I can't make a decision in the heat of the moment when I feel hungry.

T: angry or haungry?

S: hungry.

S: I stole a dress of my sister to go to a party, when he…..

T: when he, what's your problem with she and he? It's easy.

S: and when he…

T: she.

S: when she asked me….

S: my cousin don't have…

T: my cousin don't or doesn't?

S: doesn't..

S: Normally kids don't go to the wedding (pronunciation)

T: to wedding

Résumé

Un double objectif est fixé pour la présente recherche : étudier dans quelle mesure les réactions négatives des enseignants ont un effet sur l'acceptation des apprenants en termes de correction, immédiate et retardée; et deuxièmement, étudier l'apprentissage plus approfondi ou bien compréhension des aspects corrigés, appelée admission préliminaire. Cinq observations séparées ont été faites sur l'interaction dans une classe de 33 étudiants en deuxième année Anglais à l'Université Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel, et enseignés par le même enseignant. Ils ont été suivis par des tests explorant la compréhension des aspects linguistiques qui ont été corrigés par l'enseignant pour les 14 élèves qui ont fait des erreurs. Certains mouvements de feedack négatifs sont supposés être significativement plus fréquents que d'autres et ont des effets variés sur l'adoption des apprenants (réponses immédiates ou différées, autoréparation, réparation par les pairs et besoins-réparation) et préliminaire (ou compréhension). Les résultats de l'enquête ont révélé que les refontes sont les mouvements les plus fréquemment utilisés, surpassant en nombre le feedback métalinguistique et la correction explicite; alors que les sollicitations et les demandes de clarification ne sont que très peu utilisées. En ce qui concerne leur adoption par les étudiants, 59,5% des mouvements de feedback négatifsont aassisté les élèves à faire des réparations avec succès. Les résultats des tests écrits et oraux ont montré qu'unfeedack négatif peut ne pas aboutir à un apprentissage à long terme ou à une prise en charge préliminaire des aspects corrigés. Cependant, les prépositions semblent avoir bénéfié de la correction explicite de l'enseignant, l'auxiliaire avoir et le conditionnel à partir de la refonte de l'enseignant et les adjectifs possessifs de la correction explicite et de la refonte.

Mots-clés: feedback négatif, admission, absorption préliminaire.

الملخص

من خلال هذا البحث نصبو الى تحقيق هدفين اساسيين: أولاً، التحقق من مدى تاثير انواع التغذية الرجعية السلبية على استيعاب المتعلم من حيث صحتهم, فوريتهم ومصدره، وثانيا، دراسة مدى الفهم المعمق للجوانب التي تم تصحيحها من خلال اسلوب التغذية الرجعية . للقيام بذلك ، تمت متابعة طلاب السنة الثانية لغة انجليزية في جامعة محمد صديق بن يحيى، جيجل. تستند الدراسة على الفرضية التي تنص على أن بعض أنواع التغذية الرجعية السلبية أكثر استعمالا وتاثيرا من غيرها في الاقسام الدراسية للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، وأن لها تأثيرات مختلفة على استيعاب المتعلم والفهم الأولي. من أجل تحقيق هذه الأهداف، تم اللجوء الى استخدام تقنيتين مختلفتين تتمثلان في عملية ملاحظة الأقسام مع مجموعة طلاب السنة الثانية (العدد = 33) و إخضاع فئة تضم 14 طالبًا والذين تلقوا تصويبات من طرف الأستاذ إلى مجموعة من الإختبارات. كشفت نتائج البحث أن إعادة الصياغة هي الطريقة الأكثر استخدامًا في القسم الذي تم اختياره وأن بعض أنواع التغذية الرجعية السلبية تستعمل أكثر من غيرها. كما تبين أيضًا أن عملية التغذية الرجعية لها تأثير كبير على استيعاب الطالب خاصةً فيما يتعلق بالتصحيح. و كنتيجة ملحوظة لهذه الدراسة استخلصنا أن التغذية الرجعية السلبية لا تؤدي إلى التعلم على المدى الطويل أوما يسمى اصطلاحا الفهم الأولي. ومع ذلك ، فقد استفادت بعض الجوانب اللغوية من فهم أكبر كحروف الجر و ظروف الزمان و المكان، صيغة الشرط، ضمائر الملكية و فعل الملكية عند استعمال الأستاذ التصحيح الصريح وإعادة الصياغة.

الكلمات المفتاحية: التغذية الرجعية السلبية، استعاب المعلم ، الفهم الاولي.