The role of feedback in the SLA process

Chris Sheppard

The idea that input becomes intake and then after processing through a 'LAD' the intake becomes output is very linear in form. It is more than likely, owing to the complexity of the SLA problem, uncovered by the research in the field, that the problem is multi-dimensional. One of the factors which needs to be considered is the role of learner production in the SLA process.

Krashen's (1981, 1982) monitor model predicts that the only role learner output has in the acquisition process is to generate comprehensible input through communication and negotiation of meaning. However, several researchers have developed away from Krashen's ideas. Swain challenges the assumptions that:

> (1) it is the exchanges, themselves, in which meaning is negotiated that are facilitative to grammatical acquisition as a result of comprehensible input, and (2) the key facilitator is input rather than output (1985, 247-8)

She proposes that 'comprehensible output' is also necessary for certain aspects of language acquisition. One function of output, Swain argues, is the opportunity for meaningful use of one's linguistic resources. McLaughlin's (1987) cognitive theory proposes that skills are 'routinized' through consistent use of those skills, or as Smith (1982) put it, one learns to read by reading, write by writing. Simple extrapolation would suggest that one also learns to speak by speaking. A third function of output is to test hypotheses the learner has of the language (Schachter:

1984).

However, the idea of testing a hypothesis makes the assumption that the learner expects some evaluation. This could come from a fellow illocuter, and from this evaluation, it would be expected that the learner would either accept or reject his hypothesis.

Ellis (1985) examined the characteristics of the discourse between a NS teacher and NNS students. Discourse provided building blocks with which to develop new forms and structures. He proposed that the teachers main role in the discourse 'was of supplying those resources required by the language to say what he/ she wanted to say and of supplying feedback' (1985: 82).

Swain used Schachter's proposal that a leaner uses output as a means to test a hypothesis about the target language, in addition to communication. One of the forms of evaluation on this hypothesis is NS feedback. Ellis also proposed that feedback was a major factor in providing new information to the learner.

Obviously, feedback has an important function in the role of learner output as input, if not a primary one. However, a search of the literature finds very little information regarding this aspect of feedback. Feedback was not mentioned as a factor in an evaluation of the theories of second language learning by McLaughlin (1987). Skehan (1989) noted that there has been no research at all on feedback provision. Ellis (1985) noted that there was a need for a longitudinal case-study to examine the interactions in which a new item appears for the first time and the NS's contribution in that interaction. One aspect, if not the main one, of this contribution can be considered to be feedback. Ellis (1994) also suggests

that studies examining the relationship between feedback and the learning process were mostly descriptive of nature, looking at the surface structure of discourse containing feedback. He noted that those which examined the contribution of feedback to input were extremely limited. The role of feedback has also only been examined as a factor of classroom language acquisition.

There is an obviously a need to study the contribution of feedback in the second language acquisition process. With this information I can focus the research question on the role of feedback.

What is the effect of feedback on learner output?
and
What influence does feedback have in the SLA process?

Now that the focus of the question has been determined, to produce valid research, the terms in the question need to be defined, to provide consistency in the research, to enable verification of the results, and to enable the results to be comparable to other research in the same area (Seliger: 1989).

The most undefined item in this question is feedback. Feedback has been used in classroom language learning research for a long period of time.

The Oxford dictionary offers three separate definitions for feedback.

> (1) (Electr.) return of fraction of output signal from one stage of the circuit, amplifier, etc.. (2) Modification or control of a process or system by it's results or effects, esp. by difference

between desired result and actual result. (3) Information about the result of an experiment etc.; response. (1982: 355)

Here we are interested in the second and third definitions, which provide a definition of feedback from the learners prospective. Ellis defines feedback as 'the information given to learners which they can use to revise their interlanguage' (1994, 702). However, this definition can be expanded by research conducted in the area.

Corrective feedback

Studies in classroom language learning focuses on corrective feedback, the explicit corrections provided to a learner. It has been hypothesized that a learner will not receive corrective feedback in a natural communicative situation. Findings on the effect of corrective feedback are mixed, with some studies claiming that it facilitates acquisition, Tomasello and Herron (1989), and others claiming that as corrective feedback focuses on form it can only aid 'learning' and not acquisition, (Cohen, Lars-Freeman and Tarone, 1991). In first language acquisition corrective feedback is sometimes known as explicit correction.

Implicit correction

Brown and Hanlon (1970) have shown that, although a caregiver will rarely correct grammar, they will ensure that what a child will say is true. This is explained by Ellis. In the case of a deviation (for example, if a child mislabels a horse and a 'doggie'.)

the mother will be likely to respond with an explicit correction (corrective feedback) (for example 'no , it's a horsie'), or an

implicit correction (for example, 'Yes, the horsie is jumping').
(1994: 250)

Negative feedback

While corrective feedback focused directly on the error produced by the learner, negative feedback sends the message to the learner that there is some problem with the message they are attempting to send. Negative feedback provides negative evidence regarding the learners output, and in the case the learner is testing a hypothesis, negative feedback will cause the learner to reject it. Chaudron provides for types of negative feedback, which she terms as the 'treatment' of errors.

1) Treatment that results in the learner's 'autonomous ability' to correct themselves on an item.
2) Treatment that results in the elicitation of a correct response from a learner.
3) Any reaction from the teacher that clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement.
4) Positive or negative reinforcement involving expressions of disapproval. (Chaudron: 1977)

Positive feedback

Positive feedback is supplied in forms such as 'I understand you'. It provides the learner with positive evidence that a tested hypothesis had been accepted and is likely to be correct. Positive evidence can also come from NS input which contains information regarding the hypothesis being tested.

Viger and Oller (1976) have suggested that in a meaning-focused situation where the message has been comprehended, but there is a learner error, positive feedback will facilitate fossilization and the negative feedback facilitates acquisition.

Direct feedback, indirect feedback

The idea of feedback, has also been defined at the level of discourse. Direct feedback is a correction of the learners error by the illocutor. Direct feedback is manifested in both explicit correction as in corrective feedback in the classroom, and implicit correction. Indirect feedback is a form of negative feedback, supplied not though a correction but through discourse in the form of clarification requests, confirmation checks. etc.

Ellis (1994) describes findings that show that in a natural contexts, FT provides the learners with little direct feedback, but with plenty of indirect feedback. Which seems to suggest that it is indirect feedback which is crucial for acquisition.

Cognitive vs. affective feedback

Krashen (1982) has the opinion that feedback is not facilitative to language acquisition. He suggests that feedback should not be supplied to the learner as it may have a negative affect on the motivation of the learner. (It may be prudent to note that Krashen defines feedback to be only of the direct variety.) However, in his criticism of feedback, he has identified another aspect of feedback.

Vigil and Oller (1976) have made the distinction between cognitive and affective feedback. The former relates to 'actual understanding'. It is the

feedback which influences language acquisition, as discussed above. Affective feedback has an influence on motivation. As Krashen suggests, an excessive amount of negative feedback could have a negative influence on the motivation of the learner and his/ her attitude towards the provider of the feedback. Feedback can also have a positive effect on a learners affective states.

Definition

Feedback has been discussed at several levels of the SLA process. From discourse structures, in the form of direct and indirect feedback, to only that information which learners can use to modify their interlanguage, as with Ellis. If Ellis's definition is used, research should be focused on which aspects of the discourse hypothesized to become feedback, actually do become feedback.

Therefore, feedback is defined as the information and evaluation provided to learners on their output which becomes intake, and subsequently utilized to modify the interlanguage system. A functional definition would need to include those items directed for this purpose. With this definition we can reword the question.

How is feedback used to assist adolescent Japanese learners in the second language acquisition process?

Experimental design

In the review of research it became apparent that much research in SLA field have problems resulting in a below-standard level of research. Ellis (1994) points out that, for example, we should exercise caution in

making any conclusions about studies involving research in formal instruction classrooms , because of the major weaknesses in their design.

There were two main reasons for the weaknesses. the first was the invalid research was a cross-sectional design rather than longitudinal. The second was the apparatus for collecting the results. Although Ellis touched on it only briefly, I also believe that statistical treatment of a large collective group is invalid in many situations, however there are other situations where such treatment is facilitative to acquisition research. It is also reasonable to claim, that even the results from research which has some kinds of construct validity problems such as the studies above, still have some use. However, it does become difficult to compare the results of these studies with the results of other studies in the same area.

A study of cross-sectional design is one which is conducted over a short period of time. It is simple matter of collecting the data at a single point in time. A longitudinal study is undertaken following a group of language learners over a long period of time, a minimum of one to two months. Some of these studies can take many years. One of the best known studies, quoted by Harding and Riley (1986), is Frederick's study of the Bilingual development in English and German of his two children at the end of last century. He followed their development for eight years. The main reason why longitudinal studies is superior to cross-sectional is because of the nature of SLA. The acquisition of a second language (and for that matter, a first language) is a long process. It involves change over time. In order to obtain some clues as to the nature of this change, observation over at least some of this period of change is necessary.

Cross-sectional researchers do recognize this fact, but they claim that large statistical based studies involving many subjects,, will represent a continuum of proficiencies. This continuum will simulate a longitudinal situation. However, owing to the subjects individual variability in the process it is unlikely that on this assumption alone, this method will achieve the same results as a longitudinal one.

Another problem of current classroom case studies is the method of data collection. Most research only uses one method. such as the observation of the subjects activity in the classroom, or the collection of students opinion though questionnaires. Although each of these methods is valid, due to the complexity of the learning processes, all of the variables cannot be accounted for when using only one method. A more important problem, is that it is difficult to objectively evaluate the validity of a measurement method. One testing method may be inadequate to test a relationship between two variables.

To counter this problem, Ellis (1994) suggests that triangulation may be a solution. Triangulation is used in geographical measurement and cartography. Two known points were used to fix the location of a third unknown point. The use of two or methods in measuring the relationship between variables is desirable to ensure an accurate fix on the relationship.

The third problem is the methods of analysis. Usually classroom research involves a large number of subjects, from 20 to 400 or more. These studies often reduce the results to collective statistics. That is, they have treated the students as a singular learning organism. however, SLA is a process undertaken on the terms of the individual, it is complicated. Including personality, background, attitudes, learning

strategies, to name a few. By treating these as one, This form of analysis assumes that the variables are constant, cancel each other out, or have not resultant influence on the process. These assumptions must be false, as illustrated in the literature review. (There are studies where a statistical method of analysis is valid.)

In the construction of the study, these problems will need to be taken into consideration, so as to avoid producing invalid results.

Methodology

The decisions made in deciding how the research question will be answered are very important in determining the value of the results obtained to the field of study in general. According to Seliger (1989), there are two approaches to research, the 'bottom-up' design and the 'top-down' design. Ellis (1994) defines these as the research-then-theory approach and the theory-then-research approach. A 'bottom-up' design must generate hypotheses for future testing. This is known as research of a heuristic nature. 'Top-down' designs are deductive or analytic in nature and test predictions and hypotheses generated by a theory.

Another distinction made by Seliger (1989) is the synthetic and analytic approaches to research. Synthetic analysis is an examination of a phenomenon at a more macro-level, whereas an analytic analysis is focused on the micro-level.

Given the lack of comprehensive studies in feedback (Ellis 1985, 1994; Skehan 1989; Swain 1985), this study should be heuristic, in the aspect of the effect feedback has on the SLA process. However, the model produced in the review section predicts feedback's place in the larger

picture, so in this respect the research will analytic in nature. All research is attempting to define the universals in language acquisition. This study, then, is macro in nature. However, given the nature of individual difference, SLA research must begin in the micro-level and develop into the macro.

My study was undertaken in a Japanese junior high school utilizing a small number of first-year-students (5) aged 12 or 13 years old. Classes were provided in addition to their compulsory English classes.

Subjects

The study utilized a small number of subjects which discounted a large, collective style statistical analysis. A number between three and eight was specified for the research. Five subjects took part in the class. The learners were attending their first year of a high-level private boys' Tokyo junior high school. The students volunteered for the class, however, in a few cases, they were probably volunteered by their parents.

The method of selection of the subjects was made with an attempt to reduce the effect of individual difference between the students as much as possible, in order to make it easier to predict reasons for differences in individual results. The age of the learner was constant. Although, this may mean nothing as the two influences which age has on the process is the cognitive development of the learner (which is only itself related to biological age) and the determination of the complexity of the input. Sex, which is assumed not to have a large impact on language learning outside of differences in interactions, was also constant.

Owing to the fact that all of the students were in their first year of junior

high, it would be close to their first contact with the English language. In a preliminary interview, this was found to be so, with none of the students taking formal English lessons. The exception was one of the students had received some tutoring from his sister. However, on further inquiry this was found to be limited. The English knowledge, then was assumed to be close to zero for all of the students. They had all had two to three hours of form-focused English instruction for six weeks before the research commenced.

Other variables assumed to be constant was their first language, Japanese. (This also turned out to be a disadvantages, as it distracted from the necessity to communicate in English in the classroom. This was compounded by the fact that the instructor also could speak Japanese.) Owing to the fact that the students all volunteered for the class, it was assumed that they had relatively high levels of motivation. Cultural attitudes and cultural difference were considered to be invariant to a certain degree owing to the fact that the students background culture, Japan, were all the same. The school, which the learners attended was a high level school, requiring an examination to enter. Thus, student intelligence would be relatively uniform, when compared to similar subjects from a public school.

These assumptions were not quantified with tests due to the difficulty of measuring such variables and over-testing considerations. The assumptions could be wrong. In addition to the similarities in the subjects, there are also differences. Learning strategies, personality, learning experience are just a few examples of these.

Learning context

An EFL context was selected as it could be almost certain that the subjects were not in any regular contact with the target language which would ensure that interaction, input, output and feedback would be limited to the research context. However, the subjects were receiving form-focused instruction two to three hours a week. The content of these classes was available in the form of the text-book used in these classes (Flynn: 1997).

The lessons took place over a period of two months. There were two lessons week taking place after the students normal school day. The classes were for a duration of forty-five minutes. Due to school scheduling and the instructors personal life, a total of four lessons were missed. The lessons took place between Japanese spring vacation and summer vacation.

Input: The lesson materials

The lesson materials were designed to supplement the material presented in the language classes, with addition of some necessary items. The focus of the class was on communication. The materials were presented and then negotiated with the students.

Data collection

The classes were recorded on 8mm tape with a portable video recorder. In total, ten lessons were recorded over a period of two months. Eight hours and twenty minutes of data was recorded. Three of the lessons, no.1, no.6, and no. 10, selected for their temporal separation, were transcribed.

The instructors subjective comments after viewing of the classes were also recorded. Each of the learners also took a five-minute interview to determine motivation and metalinguistic aspects of their linguistic performance.

Analysis

As this study has few subjects, the majority of the analysis in this study will be qualitative rather than quantitative. In Ellis's study, he suggests that for some research, especially those which need to measure the individuals contribution to the study, a qualitative analysis is more valid. However, there will be some quantification of classroom activities, feedback and individual learner contributions.

The phenomenon of feedback occurs in discourse between a NS, usually a language instructor and a NNS learner. One of the functions of feedback is discourse repair. Gass and Varonis (1985) proposed a model of the analysis of discourse repair. They argued that every repair exchange consisted of a trigger, T, to begin the exchange, an indicator, I, to show that the message has not been receive, a response, R, to the indicator, and the reaction to the response, RR. This model can be broken up into a trigger/response format.

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Trigger          ---------------->    Response
   T       ---------------->      I ----> R ----> RR
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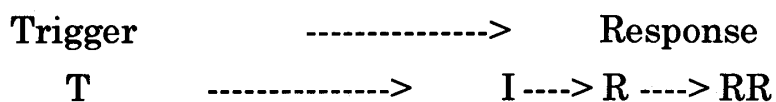
A similar model can be proposed for the analysis of feedback in discourse. The trigger would be some utterance by a learner which stimulates feedback, F, from a NS. The NNS would, in some cases provide some response to the feedback, and then the native speaker

would provide some feedback to the response, RF.

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    Trigger              ------------------>    Feedback
      T            ------------------>    F ----> R ----> RF
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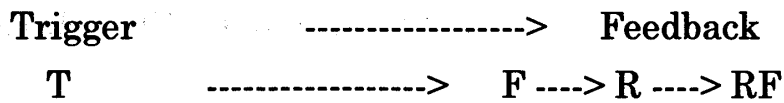
It is possible that the trigger be an indication of non-comprehension by the NNS, or even be silence in a situation where it is obligatory a learner takes their turn in the discourse. The trigger need not necessarily be an error either, as Edmonson (1985) pointed out that some teachers provide feedback for errors which have not even been made.

Classification

The classification needs to be undertaken at several different levels utilizing the above model for feedback in discourse.

The trigger can be either a learner error or a non-error. The error can be a result of a mistake, an interlanguage error (or a mistaken hypothesis), or L1 transfer. The error can be produced from any level of linguistic competence. Syntax, lexis, pragmatic, or socio-cultural just to name a few.

As shown in the definition, feedback can be either cognitive or affective. Cognitive feedback then can be negative (corrective) or positive. Negative feedback can then be direct or indirect, and direct feedback can be in the form of an implicit correction or an explicit correction. Likewise positive feedback can be classified in the same was as negative feedback.

The learner also has a choice in the response they make to feedback offered by a NS. They can ignore the feedback or they can make no

comment, but process the items contained in the feedback. They also have the vocal options. They can indicate that they misunderstood the feedback's role, the can repeat the NS's utterance, or repair their error.

Results and discussion

I identified three categories of positive feedback (encoded PF on the tables). They were a positive response to the students language production (for example, 'good', 'okay'). The second variety of positive feedback was to repeat the learners utterance. This is not observed in NS- NS discourse, so I assumed that this repetition was offering reinforcement to the learner. The third category can be construed as negative feedback. Extenuation was a repeat of the learners utterance, but with some addition of more information, usually a full sentence in response to the learners single word.

    T   -   Short stop

    N   -   Short stop.

In this kind of feedback, learner repetition of the feedback was common, but only if they were aware that their production may have a problem. In the above example, the word short, is a Japanese English-loan-word. The learner was utilizing a communication strategy. The third was noted as 'extend'. This refers to the attempt to extend the learners production by indicating that the subject must provide more output. This variety of negative feedback often resulted in long exchanges where learners would produce full sentences, beyond their normal level of production.

    T   -   Okay, What did you not do on Sunday?

    (pause)

    T   - You did not........

    (pause)

    To   - Study.

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T     - I......
To    - I......
T     - did not......
To    - .....did not study.
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This kind of response to feedback, will be referred to as 'building'.

In the case when the student indicated that they did not comprehend (denoted N/C in the tables), the teacher offered either a repetition, or reworded the sentence. Similar instructional strategies were evident when the learner provided no verbal response to the teachers utterance. There was a distinction in learner proficiency obvious here, as the lower level learners namely, Y and S1, did not respond when they did not understand. It should be also noted that the learners made more indications that they did not understand as the study progress. Y and S1 also tended to have less participation in the classroom.

There were also a few cases of the instructor ignoring errors and providing positive feedback on the content of the utterance (noted No F/B on the tables).

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T     - What did you do on Sunday?
H     - Yesterday?
T     - um
H     -Watch TV and study math and English.
T     - (to another student) What did you do on Sunday?
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In accordance with the context, the use of the past tense for the verbs 'watch' and 'study' is obligatory. The student does not produce them, but the instructor chooses to ignore this. According to the teacher interview, feedback was not provided as it was judged to be too advanced for the learner's current level of competence. However, ignoring learner's error was done only infrequently.

There were also several cases noted where the instructor misunderstood the learners communicative intentions and assumed they were making an error.

H   - Hiking
T   - I did not hike.
H   - I don't know hike
T   - No, I did not hike, did not.
H   - I did not,

Subject H was attempting to signal that he did not understand the meaning of the word 'hike'. However, the teacher missed this and provided negative feedback.

Finally, there is the case of leaner responses to the feedback (denoted LR on the tables. Most of the responses were in reply to negative feedback. However some responses were interesting and developed over the course of the classes. Some were responses to feedback offered to other students, which would mean that other students can use the feedback for their own input.

Other notable points are the lack of development of some of the learners in the class. Their production was low, only providing utterances in the class when called upon by the teacher. These learners also appeared not to be willing to take any risks. Utterances which they deemed as un-comprehended, or as possibly un-comprehended were not responded to. Signals indicating non-comprehension were utilized more in the latter stages of the study, however.

Interviews of the students also uncovered comprehension strategies. The learners who exhibited improvement indicated that they tried to

comprehend the input directly. Attempting to assign the utterance as a whole to a meaning. The learners who appeared not to improve both relied on translation strategies. The utterance was analyzed for main constituents and then these were translated into their first language.

It is also possible that the language learners who do not appear to be participating in class are experiencing a silent-period as explained by Murata (1968) and Ellis (1994).

Leaner strategies and feedback

Although there were only a small number of learners in this study, there was a fair amount of variation in the way which the feedback was responded to. Learners could respond immediately to feedback with self-correction in some cases. Other learners did provide repetition of the feedback in this way. In other cases, the subjects could begin to produce some of the items presented to them and others as feedback. Given these learners level, the items internalized were not of a complicated nature, consisting mainly of the coordinator 'and' and some formulas, such as 'I don't understand'.

There was variation in the learners as well, with some of the learners responding to the feedback in some case, but choosing to ignore the feedback in others.

I propose that rather than internal learner differences, leaner strategies[1] are responsible for the differences in the learners treatment of feedback and possibly for the differences in internalizing feedback items. There

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[1] It would be prudent to note that leaner strategies are not independent from individual differences

was a difference in level of the learners which could have been a factor in determining these varying strategies. However, the difference owing to this factor could not have been that great considering the English background of the learners. The lesson which shows the most cohesively is relation to leaner level is the first lesson, just six weeks after they commenced the study of English.

Other researchers have also discussed the role of individual differences and strategies. Brown (1985) found that older learners regard feedback as a very important factor in language learning ranking it as number four. In contrast, it did not even make it into a list of the top ten items for younger workers. Skehan (1989) suggests that different learner type responses to feedback needs to be studied at a deeper level.

Conclusion

Feedback has many different roles as input in the second language acquisition process.

The utilization of positive feedback in response to learner answers assists the learner in the acquisition of turn-taking rules. The most frequent form of all feedback categories was positive feedback, repeating one of the learners answers. Learners were observed utilizing similar communication strategies in later lessons, leading to an assumption that they were doing so, so as to take their turn in the conversation.

Also, as hypothesized, feedback was found to provide information to the learners as whether to reject or accept a target language hypothesis. Such a case was the use of a Japanese English-loan-word, with the hypothesis that the word was the same in English. This loan-word was

rejected and the learner, adopted the more-target-like version.

When the learners responded to the feedback, it created a context where the instructor could build the learners utterances, so that they could produce at a level outside of their normal competence. This feedback can be hypothesized to have a facilitative effect on the SLA process under certain conditions. The negative feedback which precipitates this process needs to be examined in more depth, to determine if there are any other variables involved.

The feedback does not need to be directed at a particular leaner to be facilitative. Learners in this study appeared to be utilizing feedback provided to other learners to produce utterances. It is not suprising, however, as even those who are not participating directly in the exchange can be active participants, and glean comprehensible input from information not directed at them. This is in line with the silent-method of language instruction and the silent-period in first language acquisition (Murata, 1968). However, it is obvious that non-participants can use the negotiated input and feedback of others to facilitate their own learning.

Learners strategies are also a large factor in feedback. I proposed that it this is a major determinant in how provided feedback interacts with the language acquisition process. The strategies which are utilized when dealing with feedback, the methods of activation, and the influence they have on feedback need to be identified and then examined in more detail.

Table 1: Feedback, input and production for subject N.

Subject N		L1	%	L6	%	L10	%
PF		0	0.00%	4	7.27%	2	6.25%
	Repeat	10	29.41%	8	14.55%	10	31.25%
	Extention	0	0.00%	2	3.64%	5	15.62%
NF		1	2.94%	2	3.64%	0	0.00%
	Provide	0	0.00%	1	1.82%	3	9.38%
	Extend	0	0.00%	4	7.27%	1	3.12%
N/C	Repeat	3	8.82%	3	5.45%	1	3.12%
	Reword	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
N/R	Repeat	1	2.94%	1	1.82%	1	3.12%
	Reword	1	2.94%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
No F/B		1	2.94%	0	0.00%	1	3.12%
Total F/B		17	50.00%	25	45.45%	24	75.00%
LR		2		1		0	
Turns	Directed	34		55		32	
	Produced	38		55		42	

Table 2: Feedback, input and production for subject H.

Subject H		1	%	6	%	10	%
PF		0	0.00%	0	0.00%	2	4.35%
	Repeat	5	10.42%	8	15.09%	8	17.39%
	Extention	0	0.00%	6	11.32%	2	4.35%
NF		4	8.33%	3	5.66%	1	2.17%
	Provide	4	8.33%	2	3.77%	1	2.17%
	Extend	6	12.50%	3	5.66%	4	8.70%
N/C	Repeat	2	4.17%	5	9.43%	5	10.87%
	Reword	0	0.00%	1	1.89%	2	4.35%
N/R	Repeat	2	4.17%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Reword	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
No F/B		0	0.00%	1	1.89%	1	2.17%
Total F/B		23	47.92%	29	54.72%	26	56.52%
LR		8		2		6	
Turns	Subject directed	48		53		46	
	Subject produced	60		45		58	

Table 3: Feedback, input and production for subject To.

Subject To.		1	%	6	%	10	%
PF		0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Repeat	14	30.43%	4	7.69%	5	9.09%
	Extention	0	0.00%	8	15.38%	5	9.09%
NF		1	2.17%	2	3.85%	0	0.00%
	Provide	3	6.52%	0	0.00%	2	3.64%
	Extend	4	8.70%	0	0.00%	4	7.27%
N/C	Repeat	3	6.52%	4	7.69%	6	10.91%
	Reword	0	0.00%	3	5.77%	4	7.27%
N/R	Repeat	1	2.17%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Reword	1	2.17%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
No F/B		0	0.00%	1	1.92%	1	1.82%
Total F/B		27	56.25%	22	42.31%	27	49.09%
LR		3		1		4	
Turns	Subject directed	46		52		55	
	Subject produced	36		47		40	

Table 4: Feedback, input and production for subject Y.

Subject Y		1	%	6	%	10	%
PF		0	0.00%	0	0.00%	3	12.50%
	Repeat	14	24.14%	4	9.76%	4	16.67%
	Extention	0	0.00%	4	9.76%	0	0.00%
NF		0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Provide	4	6.90%	3	7.32%	0	0.00%
	Extend	6	10.34%	0	0.00%	4	16.67%
N/C	Repeat	1	1.72%	3	7.32%	0	0.00%
	Reword	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
N/R	Repeat	5	8.62%	1	2.44%	0	0.00%
	Reword	2	3.45%	1	2.44%	0	0.00%
No F/B		0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Total F/B		32	55.17%	16	39.02%	11	45.83%
LR		4		0		1	
Turns	Subject directed	58		41		24	
	Subject produced	37		18		16	

Table 5: Feedback, input and production for subject S1.

Subject S1		1	%	6	%	10	%
PF		0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	2.50%
	Repeat	11	19.64%	3	9.38%	4	10.00%
	Extention	0	0.00%	2	6.25%	6	15.00%
NF		2	3.57%	1	3.12%	0	0.00%
	Provide	1	1.79%	0	0.00%	1	2.50%
	Extend	3	5.36%	2	6.25%	5	12.50%
N/C	Repeat	2	3.57%	0	0.00%	6	15.00%
	Reword	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
N/R	Repeat	1	1.79%	0	0.00%	1	2.50%
	Reword	16	28.57%	3	9.38%	0	0.00%
No F/B		0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Total F/B		36	64.29%	11	34.38%	24	60.00%
LR		0		0		3	
Turns	Subject directed	56		32		40	
	Subject produced	34		13		26	

Table 6: Teacher- Subject directed utterances

Subject Directed	L1	%	L6	%	L10	%
N	34	14.05%	55	23.61%	32	16.24%
H	48	19.83%	53	22.75%	46	23.35%
To.	46	19.01%	52	22.32%	55	27.92%
Y	58	23.97%	41	17.60%	24	12.18%
S1	56	23.14%	32	13.73%	40	20.30%
Total	242	100.00%	233	100.00%	197	100.00%

Table 7: Teacher- subject feedback

Feedback	L1	%	L2	%	L3	%
N	17	12.59%	25	24.27%	24	21.43%
H	23	17.04%	29	28.16%	26	23.21%
To.	27	20.00%	22	21.36%	27	24.11%
Y	32	23.70%	16	15.53%	11	9.82%
S1	36	26.67%	11	10.68%	24	21.43%
Total	135	55.79%	103	44.21%	112	56.85%
(percentage of Total)						

Table 8: Subject production

	L1	%	L2	%	L3	%
N	38	18.54%	55	30.90%	42	23.08%
H	60	29.27%	45	25.28%	58	31.87%
To.	36	17.56%	47	26.40%	40	21.98%
Y	37	18.05%	18	10.11%	16	8.79%
S1	34	16.59%	13	7.30%	26	14.29%
Total	205	100.00%	178	100.00%	182	100.00%

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