The Effects of Teachers' Interactional Moves on Learners' Uptake in EFL Classrooms

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Abstract
Obviously, learning environment plays a crucial role in how second language or a foreign language is learned. In this regard, the importance of interaction for L2 learning has been emphasized. The current study investigated teachers' interactional moves (IM) and learners' uptake in EFL classrooms systematically. To meet this end, four EFL contexts of speaking and listening courses for English majors were selected to determine the effects of IMs on learners' uptake. The data were drawn from the transcripts of audio recorded classroom interactions made in four EFL classrooms at the intermediate level, totaling 64 hours and including 856 error sequences in the experimental group and 1220 error sequences in the control group. The 2076 error sequences were then coded in accordance with the categories identified by Lyster & Ranta’s (1997) model of IM in response to the students’ erroneous utterances. Twelve weeks of listening and speaking classroom interactions data with 64 participants during a whole semester were analyzed. The statistical analyses performed on the data were a number of non-parametric correlation analyses to check the correlation between IMs and learners’ uptake, and then a profile analysis was performed to compare the performance of the learners in two groups in terms of receiving or not receiving the systematic IM during a whole semester. Later, a one-way ANOVA was run to establish the differences between students’ scores on the three progress tests, and finally, t-test procedures were used to compare the performance of learners in both groups. The results showed that IM significantly improved learners’ performance in EFL classrooms. The findings of the current study offer certain implications for EFL teachers, learners, teacher training programs, syllabus designers and materials developers.

Keywords: Classroom Interaction, Interactional Moves, Learners’ Uptake, Repair, Need Repair, EFL Classroom

Introduction
Classroom interaction has been widely studied in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). Inside the field, many different viewpoints on classroom interaction and discourse have been examined, mainly concentrating on either teachers or students, and their interaction separately or collectively. When the focus is set on second language teaching and learning, and more specifically English as a foreign language (EFL), the main issue is the language itself and how it is used in the collaboration between participants in the classroom.

IM has been considered the most vital element in the instructed second language learning process (Panova & Lyster, 2002). One of the areas studied inside SLA is corrective feedback (CF), which has been defined by Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam (2006) as teacher’s response to learner’s erroneous utterances. CF occurs when a student produces an oral error, or an incorrect utterance of some sort. This erroneous response or answer usually follows a teacher’s question and it results.

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in some type of CF. Furthermore, Lyster (2002, 2004) states that when teacher use IMs in response to student’s erroneous utterances, student may show signs of learning or understanding which might imply that the student has reacted to the teacher’s IM. Since this reaction in the form of uptake is not always visible in the exchange, it is a complex and difficult matter to investigate.

**Classroom interaction**

Recent second language acquisition (SLA) research has demonstrated a need for classroom activities that promote both communicative interaction and attention to form in second language (L2) classrooms (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2003, 2005; Nassaji & Fotos, 2007; Lightbown, 1998; Long, 2006; Pica, 2007; Williams, 2005, as cited in Nassaji & Tian, 2010). One way of promoting such opportunities is through pedagogical tasks that encourage negotiation of meaning, while at the same time providing opportunities for feedback and attention to form (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Pica, 2005; Pica et al., 2006; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Van den Branden, 2006; Yuan & Ellis, 2003, as cited in Nassaji & Tian, 2010). In this regard, classroom tasks that involve learners to work together and produce modified output have been recommended to provide effective opportunities for peer feedback and scaffolding (Swain, 2005). As it is frequently emphasized, classroom interaction is the leading drive to successful language learning. Learners need to learn how to interact in the social context of the classroom in a way that their classroom interaction contributes to their developing target language competence.

Theoretical perspectives from cognitively to socially oriented, advocate that CF is not only useful but also may be essential for pushing learners toward their L2 development. According to Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013), “a cognitive-interactionist perspective attributes a role not only to positive evidence but also to negative evidence in the form of CF that triggers noticing of non-target output” (p. 9). They maintain that skill acquisition theory attributes an essential role to CF, especially in the situation of practice that leads learners from effortful to more regular L2 use (e.g., Ranta & Lyster, 2007, as cited in Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013). Regarding the cognitive-interactional perspective, the interaction hypothesis (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994) predicts that L2 development will take place when a learner engages in negotiation for meaning that consequences from communication incomprehensibility during interaction.

According to the sociocultural theory, CF provides learners with dialogically negotiated support as they move from other-regulation towards self-regulation (e.g., Aljaafreh & Lantoff, 1994; Nassati & Swain, 2000; Sato & Ballinger, 2012, as cited in Lyster, Saito, and Sato, 2013). In this relation, Vygotsky's (1978) notion of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) suggests that learning occurs with support from those more competent, in the zone of proximal developments, that is, at the "outer edge" of a learners' current abilities. So the crucial role of teacher, her/his interaction with learners provides a scaffold to allow for communication to proceed while giving the students access to linguistic data. Scaffolding was developed by other sociocultural theorists applying Vygotsky's ZPD to educational contexts. Lyster, Saito, & Sato (2013) stated that scaffolding is a process through which a teacher or more knowledgeable person helps the student. Whether and to what extent the social interaction of L2 instructional contexts might be provided by teachers as a scaffolding to give essential opportunities for learners to interact with teachers and peers is the necessity of this study.

Spada & Lightbown (2009) argue that "classroom based studies are most likely to lead to a better understanding about the kind of interaction that occurs in classroom where the teacher is the only proficient speaker who interacts with a large number of learners" (p. 159, as cited in Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013, p. 2). One of the factors found to mediate the effectiveness of IM is the length of the treatment. In Lyster & Saito (2010) meta-analysis of oral feedback in classroom studies, the finding showed that longer treatment was significantly more effective than short-to-medium terms treatments. While in Li's (2010) meta-analysis, it was found that "feedback within short treatment was more effective than feedback within longer treatments. However, these differences could be attributed to setting, as almost all the shorter treatments were in laboratory settings and the longer ones were in classroom conditions" (as cited in Lyster & Saito, P. 38).
Relationship between teachers’ IM and learners’ language development

According to Long’s (1996, 2006) interaction hypothesis, feedback that occurs during the interaction and negotiation processes is considered to facilitate language learning (e.g., Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994). From sociolinguistics perspective it provides an opportunity to learn (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, as cited in Nassaji & Tian, 2010). Therefore, interactional processes can supply IM letting learners know that their utterances are problematic. IM is a component of form-focused instruction, which many SLA researchers now consider important for L2 learning (Nakamura, 2008).

Theoretically, many of the above mentioned SLA researches have claimed that, although a great deal of L2 learning takes place through exposure to comprehensible input, learners may require negative evidence (i.e., information about ungrammaticality). Learners need negative evidence in the form of either feedback on error or explicit instruction when they are not able to discover through exposure alone. So teachers’ IM are necessary for the learners to know how their interlanguage differ from the L2 (e.g., Bely-Vroman, 1986; Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1985, 1988; White, 1987, as cited in Sheen, 2004). Schmidt’s (1995) ‘noticing hypothesis suggests that negative feedback helps learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage forms and target forms, and Schmidt & Frota’s (1986) ‘noticing the gap’ has been hypothesized to assist interlanagauge development (as cited in Sheen, 2004).

IM in classroom settings has been demonstrated to promote student-generated repair and, in turn, language acquisition (as cited in Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster 1998a; Tsang, 2004; Sheen, 2004, 2006). According to Tsang (2004), negotiation moves or prompts, have been shown to be able to elicit successful uptake more effectively than explicit correction. He maintains that only negotiations moves were able to bring about student-generated repairs, namely self-repair and different types of IM tend to function differentially according to different types of error. However, most of the studies reviewed above deal with adult learners (except, e.g., Lyster, 1998a, Lyster & Ranta 1997; Oliver 1995, who all worked with children). Additionally, the studies of repair or corrective patterns reviewed so far have been carried out mostly in meaning-centered instructional contexts or a mixture of meaning-focused and form-focused instruction in ESL and EFL with children, while the present study attempted to investigate IM in the FL setting and fill the gaps in the literature in this respect.

The effectiveness of CF on learners’ language development has been measured by many researchers through different direct and indirect measures: uptake and learner repair (e.g., Ellis, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, 2003; Panova & Lyster, 2002); immediate post-test (e.g., Carrol & Swain, 1993; Long, 1998); delayed post-tests (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998, Han, 2002; Mackey & Philp, 1998, van den Braden, 1997); learner perception/noticing of CF by means of (stimulated) recall (e.g., Mackey, 2000; Philp, 2003) all cited in Sheen (2004). Ammar (2003) investigates the differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. He found that prompts were particularly effective for lower proficiency learners, whereas higher proficiency learners appeared to benefit similarly form both recasts and prompts. Nassaji (2011) investigates the immediate learner repair in response to IM and learning targeted forms in dyadic interaction. He examines and compares the relationship between two major types of repair: learner-generated repair following elicitation and teacher-generated repair following recasts. The findings reveal that both types of repair lead to similar degrees of subsequent correction in the immediate testing, but the effect of the former was reduced over time, whereas the effects of latter were remained.

Relationship between teachers’ IM and learners’ uptake in EFL contexts

IM were considered as the most vital elements in the instructed second language learning process (Panova & Lyster, 2002). As Lyster & Mori (2006) asserts, “IM can be classified as one of three types: recasts, explicit correction, and prompts” (p. 271). They state that in the case of recasts, a teacher “implicitly reformulates all or part of the student’s utterance” (p. 271). Prompts consist of the following IM: “Elicitation, in which the teacher directly elicits a reformulation from the student by asking questions, or by asking the student to reformulate his or her utterance” (p. 271); metalinguistic clues, in which “the teacher provides comments or questions re
related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance” (p. 271); clarification requests, in which the teacher uses phrases after learners’ errors to indicate to students that their utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a reformulation is required” (p. 271); repetition; in which “the teacher repeats the student’s ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error” (p. 271). Ellis (2008) states that explicit correction is a type of feedback provides learner with the correct form, while simultaneously indicating that an error is committed.

According to (Li, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007), feedback in FL settings has been found to be more beneficial than feedback L2 settings. They believed to be the case for several reasons: studies have shown that learners in FL settings have a more positive view of error correction (Loewen et al., 2009), perhaps playing a role in the effectiveness of feedback. Some have found that more feedback (in the form of recasts) is provided and used by learners in EFL settings when compared to ESL classes (Liu, 2007; Sheen, 2004, as cited in Li, 2010). More research is needed to investigate if and how the amount of feedback or student view of error correction relate to feedback efficacy especially considering that Lyster & Saito (2010) found no considerable differences between feedback in FL and SL classrooms. A preference for providing IM in EFL instructional settings can be supported with de Bot’s (1996) argument that language learners are likely to benefit more from being "pushed" (as cited in Swain, 1995) to retrieve target language forms from merely hearing the forms in the input, because the retrieval and subsequent production stimulate the development of connection in memory.

Quasi-experimental classroom studies compared different types of CF, the results have shown positive effects for CF as well as advantages for prompts and explicit correction over recasts. According to Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013), in a comparative study by Yang & Lyster (2010) in an EFL classroom in China, the inconsistency effects of recasts, prompts, and no CF on the use of regular and irregular past tense forms were examined in undergraduate majors. The effects of prompts were greater to those of recasts for increasing accuracy in the use of regular past-tense forms. There is little experimental research in the EFL context to confirm the effects of modified output.

The findings of the IM studies have been conflicting in different educational settings, mostly due to extensively varying student populations, types of courses and feedback practices examined and the various research designs used. However, reviewing the CF studies also reveals that there is increasing evidence supporting the effectiveness of CF (Mackey 2007; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). Since most previous descriptive and very little empirical IM studies have been conducted in the context of ESL or EFL in laboratory or classroom settings within a short period of time, therefore, there is very little empirical study that shows the effect of IMs on learners’ uptake over a long period of time. However, studies to date have each examined different instructional contexts such as immersion classrooms, adults ESL, and even adult EFL classrooms with native speaker teachers, the present research dealt with some aspects of IM that has not taken into consideration in the previous contexts.

It seems that these gaps not only exist in learners’ performance in ESL instructional settings, but also EFL classes have the same problems due to the lack of sufficient exposure to input outside their classrooms. Moreover, it seems that these gaps exit in learners’ performance in EFL classes that makes language learning unsuccessful during classroom interaction in terms of learners’ uptake, typically, when the learners make a linguistic error and teachers’ IM are needed to correct learners’ errors by supplying them IM which leads to correct forms of their utterances. Clearly, there are some evidences that EFL learners at Payam Noor University (PNU) even if they pass two courses in Speaking and Listening 1 and 2, they are unable to talk freely. It seems that there are many factors which make EFL classrooms less interactive than it has to be. One of these factors may be related to the lack of teachers’ appropriate IM in response to learners’ erroneous utterances. Therefore, the current study intended to fill the gap in the literature by investigating empirically, the effect of teachers’ IM on the level of EFL learners’ uptake over a long period of time.

Research Questions
The following research questions were considered in this study:

1. Is there any significant correlation between the teachers’ IM and the learners’ uptake during the classroom interaction?
2. Are there any significance differences between the uptake level of EFL learners receiving IM and those who receive no systematic IM during classroom interaction?

3. Can the learners’ corrected oral uptake be sustained over time by teachers’ provision of IM?

4. Is there any significant correlation between the errors corrected by students in the final test and the teachers’ IM?

Methodology

Participants

The students who took part in the research project were members of four intact classes, originally 79 English Translation freshmen in PNU Tehran and Varamin Branches during the first semester of 2011-2012 academic year. Despite the fact that in general PNU is a distance education system that reduces the necessity of the subjects’ attendance in classrooms; students in this project were informed to participate in all classes due to the obligatory nature of such courses in PNU. They were both male and female students but gender was not a variable in the present study. Students were asked to give some information about their age level. Their age range was from 20 to 38 (M = 24.77, SD = 1.66), with 49 female and 15 male.

In order to find the homogeneity of the subjects of this study regarding their general language proficiency, they were pretested through an intermediate level of Nelson’s Proficiency Test. The test contained 50 multiple choice items on structure, reading comprehension, vocabulary, and pronunciation items. Though the test is an already valid test, the reliability of the Nelson Proficiency Test was tested by a pilot study. It was carried out on 25 students in Varamin PNU. The internal consistency of the test was calculated by Kuder- Richardson Formula (KR-21), the result turned out to be (r = .76) representing a relatively high reliability index. After the administration of the Nelson proficiency test, 69 subjects were selected by the researcher. The criterion for the selection of the subjects was the mean and the standard deviation of the subjects’ pretest scores (M = 65.01, SD = .44). The scores between one standard deviation above and below the mean score of Nelson Proficiency Test were selected.

Subsequently, the researcher randomly assigned the subjects into four intact classes, 32 of them were in the experimental groups, the other 32 in the control groups. These students were attending a 4 credit 12 session course entitled Conversation 2 during the implementation of this research. The experimental groups were received teachers' systematic IM in response to their errors, while the control groups continued with their regular curriculum without receiving any systematic IM. Although time span of the study was a factor that restrained this study, the researcher made sure that all the sessions were held fully. In the case of cancellation of some sessions, make up sessions were arranged. Students were informed of the audio-recording. They were informed only that observation and audio-recording were used for classroom instructional purposes. The researcher was present in the classroom at the time of the recording.

Materials

Materials for the current study were composed of two textbooks and 4 tests in the form of a pretest and three progress tests. They are presented below.

Textbooks. The course material for both groups were the students’ regular curriculum course textbooks including the second and third volumes of EFL series, Interchange Third Edition for the students of EFL Speaking and Listening courses 2. The textbooks were adapted versions of the popular series by (Richards et al., 2005) student’s books 2 and 3. For such courses, students study the book for the purposes of improving their listening and speaking skills.

Tests. The researcher used an adapted test as a pretest and developed some tests during the course of this study which are described below.

Pretest. At the beginning of the course, a test of homogeneity was administered in both groups. The purpose of the pretest was to test the students’ proficiency level. It was chosen from Nelson’s Proficiency Test intermediate (level 3), written by Fowler & Coe (1993). It consisted of 50 multiple-choice items on structure, reading comprehension, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The estimated time for answering the questions was 45 minutes. The readability of the homogenous test was measured with respect to the students’ Reading Comprehension course I, using the Readability formula of Fog. The reliability of
the Nelson Proficiency Test was \( r = .80 \) expressive of a relatively high reliability index. Regarding the validity of the Nelson Proficiency Test, it has already been validated for testing learners’ intermediate level of language ability.

**Progress Tests** were developed by the researcher during the academic term. They were basically developed based on the written transcriptions of the students’ audio-recorded frequent erroneous utterances in the classes throughout the sessions. They had subsections on structure, and vocabulary, and pronunciation. Each had 30 items in multiple choice format. These tests were edited by two researcher’s assistants who held Master degrees in EFL with a range of 7 to 10 teaching experiences. Theoretically, progress tests were provided in accordance to the "Small Talk" worksheet of Hunter’s (2011) study, but practically, these tests were provided with a little modification which made it more convenient for the purpose of the current study.

In order to have reliable progress test scores, the selected sentences of students’ errors were edited and rechecked by the same researcher’s assistants. The researcher and three trained raters analyzed the data collected in the study, and the consistency in assigned scores within and between raters were examined too. Interraters’ agreement was further statistically established via a Pearson’s correlation coefficient test of inter-rater reliability. The findings indicated that the consistency was appropriate enough to take the subsequent steps.

Regarding the validity, the current study was limited in terms of external validity. The reason was that the current study just focused on four intact classes in two EFL educational centers at Payam Noor University (PNU), and the result of this study may affect the generalizability of the findings to other EFL contexts outside the PNU EFL classes. With regard to the practical limitations, the researcher pre-tested students’ proficiency level through Nelson’s Proficiency Test to check EFL students’ homogeneity prior to the onset of the project. Although the purpose of the current study was to study the students’ oral output, the pretest was limited to multiple test items. This was due to some constraints regarding selection of three interviewers, availability and willingness of PNU students to participate in at least three interviews and the subjectivity of the interviewer’s scoring rubric. This might have led to some damage to internal validity of the whole work, but the main purpose of the test was finding about the homogeneity of the groups involved.

**Coding scheme:**
For the analysis of teacher-student interaction in classroom settings, Lyster & Ranta (1997) developed an analytic model to code error treatment sequences in terms of CF types and learner uptake. Specifically, they identified six types of IM in response to different kinds of student’s erroneous oral utterances. Example of each type of IM is provided from the data and is shown below.

1. **Explicit correction:**
   St: I like teaching childrens [error-grammatical]
   T: Children is plural. [feedback-explicit correction]
   St: Oh, Yes. I like teaching children [uptake-self-repair]

2. **Recast:**
   St: I see money attract friends. [error-grammatical]
   T: Money attracts, attracts [feedback-recast]
   St: attracts.
   St: Money attracts friends. [uptake-need-repair]

**Prompts** “include a variety of signals—other than alternative reformulations that push learners to self-repair” (Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 271).

3. **Clarification requests:**
   St: It was around 11 o’clock [error-lexical]
   T: Again? [feedback-elicitation]
   St: I’m sorry. It was about 11 o’clock in the morning, when I was going to write a letter [uptake-self-repair]

4. **Metalinguistic feedback:**
   St: I had a lucky break but I refused that because [error-grammatical]
I didn’t know about it. A director asked me to
play in a film.

T: Since you have refused the
director suggestion, [feedback-
metalinguistic F.]
it was not a lucky break. If you
have lucky break,
it will change your life totally.

5. Elicitation:
St: What language speak in
Thailand? [error-grammatical]
T: What language ……………?
[feedback- elicitation]
St: is spoken in Thailand?
[uptake- self-repair]

6. Repetition:
St: It is good to be neat/net/,
clean, and dress up. [error-phonological]
T: It is good to be /net/.
[feedback- repetition]
St: So your appearance is im-
portant. [student- continuation] Based on
the Lyster & Ranta’s (1997) descriptions
of the error types, examples are presented
briefly.

Grammatical errors
Errors in the use of wrong determi-
ners, prepositions, pronouns, grammatical genders,
in tenses, verbs, auxiliaries, negations, and etc…

Lexical errors:
Errors in the use of wrong lexical
items, prefixes and suffixes

Phonological errors:
Errors in the use of mispronunciations,
pronunciations of silent letters, etc…

Lyster & Ranta (1997) distinguished two types
of uptake: ‘repair’ and ‘need repair’. “Repair refers
to uptake that leads to a correction of the error that
the teacher has treated, while needs repair consists
of uptake where the error is not corrected” (p. 49).
According to Lyster (2002, 2004), though uptake is
an important and clear resource for understanding
the effect of the feedback (e.g., the feedback is not-
ticed as correction), it does not indicate that long-
term learning has occurred.

Data collection procedures
Prior to the study a workshop was held for partici-
pating teachers in the experimental groups.
Teachers were provided with a teachers’ guide,
explaining what the IMs are and how they would
be used during classroom interaction and discus-
sion in response to the learners’ errors, approxi-
mately a few days prior to the onset of the in-
structional treatment. During this time, the re-
searcher provided some examples to illustrate
each type of IM from previous classroom obser-
vation studies. This consciousness-raising was
continued after each three sessions for the pur-
pose of refreshing the experimental groups’
teachers of becoming aware to take more benefit
of using IM in their classes for the correction
of students’ erroneous utterances. After each
session, experimental group’s teachers were
required to write one or two examples of dif-
ferent types of IM they used during their classes
on a teachers’ checklist developed by the
researcher (Appendix A).

The teachers in this study were four EFL
guest instructors working in PNU. They had
masters’ degree in TEFL with a teaching experi-
ence of five to nine years. In order to minimize
the Hawthorne effect, the workshop was only
held for the instructors in the experimental
groups’ classrooms. To maintain the consistency
in the treatment, the experimental teachers
were well informed of the procedures before each
session.

Due to the nature of this research, it was re-
quired to choose certain courses in which oral
feedback was provided for the learners. Ulti-
mately, Conversation 2 was opted since it met
both criteria of verbal feedback and sample size.
Altogether, the subjects for the study were se-
lected based on the availability principle. A pretest
was administered at this stage to balance both
groups in terms of their language proficiency. As
mentioned before, it was found that the difference
between the means of students’ performance in the
two groups were not significant.

The performance of student’s oral interaction
was audio- recorded during regular class time
over a period of one semester. Each class was
held once a week for four hours, but with a 30
minutes break interval. The length of session
ranged from 100 to 110 minutes.

All the audio-recorded classroom interaction
data along with the teachers’ error treatment
were fully identified and transcribed by the re-
searcher. To determine the frequency of stu-
dents’ uptake along with their types of errors and
teachers’ different IM, Lyster & Ranta’s (1997)
coding scheme was used. Then the data were
coded in terms of teachers’ CF types, learners’ uptake, and subsequent ‘repair’. The transcription of error treatment sequences were reexamined by two researcher’s assistants who held Masters’ degree in EFL. A third assistant reanalyzed 20% of the coded data.

Data Analysis
This is a quasi-experimental study based on the observational classroom interaction data which utilizes a combination of both descriptive and quantitative methods. The design is especially practical in educational institutes where random assignment is impossible for teachers. Additionally, using quasi-experimental designs reduces threats to external validity drastically as natural environments do not suffer the same problems of artificiality as compared to a maximally controlled setting. According to Best & Kahn (2006), since quasi-experiments are natural experiments, research findings in one such endeavor may be applied to other subjects and settings, making it possible to enjoy certain generalizations to be made about population in general. A kind of institutional randomization naturally happens in Payam Noor University setting since students just register for courses and they are assigned to different classes with different teachers through mere chance.

The statistical analysis used included frequency of occurrence of students’ errors. Then teachers’ IM following students’ errors in terms of six IM in response to students’ errors were listed in frequency and percentage for each session. The quantitative statistical analysis took benefit of certain methods which are elaborated next. First, a Pearson correlation was computed to find the inter-rater reliability of the three raters’ six IMs, learners’ uptake (repairs and need repair). Second, the raw data taken from the transcriptions of data were first examined for the assumption of normal distribution and homogeneity of variance. Kolmogorov-Smirnov was done to ensure the normality of the distribution of data. Applying normality analysis, it was revealed that the use of data follows normality assumptions. Third, a number of non-parametric benefit of this statistical procedure. It was implemented for both groups. Fourth, a profile analysis was performed to compare the uptake Spearman correlation analyses were performed to check the correlation between teachers’ IM and learners’ uptake. Due to the nature of the data and the sample size, the researcher took(repair) level of the learners in two groups in terms of receiving or not receiving the systematic IM during a whole semester. Profile analysis is the multivariate equivalent of repeated measures or mixed ANOVA. Fifth, a one-way ANOVA was run to establish whether the differences between individuals’ scores on the three progress tests in the experimental group were significant. Sixth, t-test procedures were used to compare the mean of the learners’ uptake in both groups.

Results and Discussions
Calculating the inter-rater reliability
Since there might be possible subjectivity associated with the raters scores, the consistency in assigned scores (scorer reliability) within and between raters were examined.

In order to assure consistency within inter-rater reliability, each rater scored each six IM, learners’ uptake, repaired, need-repair, and decided on the final score. All the final scores assigned by the three raters were calculated using Pearson product moment correlation (r) formula. The computed Pearson correlation coefficient for coding the six IM, elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, repetition, recast, and explicit correction were .83, .82, .79, .78, .71, and .77 respectively, and inter-rater reliabilities for coding the students’ uptake, repaired, need-repair were .85, .84, and .81, respectively. As the results show, there is a high positive relationship among the scores rated by the three raters.

Research Question 1: IM and Learners’ Uptake
After obtaining the frequencies of teachers’ IM and learners’ uptake in both groups, a series of non-parametric correlation analyses was implemented to test the first hypothesis. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 illustrate the results.
Table 4.1
Spearman’s Rho Correlation Coefficient for Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Repair</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.733**</td>
<td>-.239</td>
<td>-.127</td>
<td>-.221</td>
<td>-.222</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.634</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.653</td>
<td>.344</td>
<td>.384</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**, Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

The results in Table 4.1 for experimental group revealed that only one IM enjoys a significant level of correlation, namely metalinguistic feedback with a coefficient index of .733 which is meaningful at the .01 level.

Table 4.2
Correlation between Learners’ Repair and Metalinguistic Feedback (Experimental Group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>r. value</th>
<th>Significant value</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguistic F.</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| N | 32 |

Result in Table 4.2 shows that the correlation between learner’s repair and metalinguistic feedback in experimental group is significantly meaningful, because the p. value is less than .05. Table 4.3 shows the result for the control group.

Table 4.3
Spearman's Rho Correlations Coefficient for (Control Group)

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Repair</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td>.653*</td>
<td>-.717</td>
<td>-.479</td>
<td>-.312</td>
<td>-.394</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>.115</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Student’s output in control group correlated significantly with metalinguistic feedback (.653) and explicit correction (.717). It means these two IM, that is, metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction have significantly correlated with learner’s uptake. A summary of significant correlations are demonstrated in Tables 4.4 and 4.5.

Table 4.4
Correlation between Learners’ Repair and Metalinguistic Feedback (Control Group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>r. value</th>
<th>Significant value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguistic F.</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| N | 32 |

The results of Table 4.4 show that the relation between learner’s repair and metalinguistic feedback is meaningful, because the p. value is less than .05.

Table 4.5
Correlation between Learners’ Repair and Explicit Correction (Control Group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>r. value</th>
<th>Significant value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguistic F.</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| N | 32 |
The results of Table 4.5 show that the relation between learner’s repair and explicit correction is meaningful, because the significant value is less than .05. Thus, the first null hypothesis is rejected.

**Research Question 2: Systematic Feedbacks and Performance over Time**

The second question probed the existence of a potentially significant difference between the uptake levels of EFL learners in both groups. The results of the profile analysis are illustrated in Table 4.6 and Figure 4.1.

**Table 4.6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Sig. df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>138.939</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy’s Largest</td>
<td>6.947</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Exact statistic
b. Design: Intercept + group

The result of General Linear Model comparing the Profiles of both groups in Table 4.6 shows that the amount of F value is 138.939 that are completely significant with alpha at .000 and its value is less than .05. As a result, the differentiations between the means of variables are meaningful. Roy’s Largest Root shows significant interaction effects.

Table 4.7 shows the details of Multivariate Tests for comparing the Profiles of both Groups.

**Table 4.7**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F. value</th>
<th>Significant value</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Profiles of two Groups</td>
<td>139.939</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of Multivariate Tests in Table 4.7 show that the differences between the means of both groups in the three progress tests are completely significant, because the F. value is less than .05. Therefore, the second null hypothesis is rejected. Figure 4.1 has shown the differences of both groups in terms of learners’ progression.

The profile analysis for the profiles of both groups showed that at the starting point the profiles overlapped with the same mean (15.80).

The reason for this overlapping is the fact that at the starting point, both groups before the treatment were at the same level of language ability.

During the course, however, the profiles have shown some progression but the profiles of both groups are not equal.

It seems that these increases depend on the amount of treatment both groups receive during classrooms interaction.

**Research Question 3: Sustainability of Uptake**

The third research question was approached by running a one way ANOVA. The results are tabulated in Tables 4.8 and 4.9.

**Table 4.8**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>2478.521</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1239.260</td>
<td>1579.460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>72.969</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>.785</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2551.490</td>
<td>95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To establish whether the differences between individuals’ scores in the three progress tests in experimental groups were significant, a one-way ANOVA was performed. The observed F index (1579.460) was absolutely significant (.000). Due to the results obtained from the one-way
ANOVA, the third null hypothesis is rejected. Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9  
Means for Groups in Homogeneous Subsets Scores (Scheffe³)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Subset for alpha= 0.05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.5313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 2</td>
<td>24.1250</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 3</td>
<td>27.6250</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

³. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size =32.000.

Table 4.9 shows the results of the means of the three progress tests. The differences between the three tests show that the frequency of learners’ uptake increased steadily and was sustained by teachers’ IM provision over time.

Research Question 4: Correction and Uptake

To answer the final research question, the researcher ran a number of t-test procedures. A paired t-test for the experimental group results is reported in Tables 4.10 and 4.11.

Table 4.10  
Paired T-Test for Comparing IM Effect in Experimental Group (Paired Samples Statistics)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 test 1</td>
<td>15.5313</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>62136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test 3</td>
<td>27.6250</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.15703</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results obtained from the first t-tests showed that there is a considerable progression between the results of the first t-test and the final t-test.

Table 4.11  
IM Effects Before and After Treatment in Experimental Group  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>t. value</th>
<th>Significant value</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguistic F.</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 4.11 shows, the t. value is 57 and the p. value is less than .05. Consequently the difference between the two groups Mean score is significant. Therefore, the fourth null hypothesis is rejected.

The final t-test, and an independent one, was carried out to check the difference between the level of uptake of experimental and control groups. Tables 4.12, and 4.13 show the results.

Table 4.12  
Independent T-Test for Comparing IM Effect in both Groups  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental and Control</td>
<td>12.0938</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.20106</td>
<td>.1232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diff</td>
<td>8.0625</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.90647</td>
<td>.51380</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of independent t-test for comparing the effects of IM in both groups showed that there were considerable differences between the obtained results. The results of the t-test have shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13  
Independent T-test for Comparing Interactional Effect in Experimental and Control Group  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t. value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.251</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicated that the difference between the two groups was significant (t= 7.251, Sig. = .000 < 0.05) and thus, the fourth null hypothesis is also rejected.

Discussion

The findings of the current study revealed that some of the IMs have significant effects on the learners’ uptake in terms of repair.

Regarding the first hypothesis, the results of non-parametric correlation showed that only a limited number of teachers’ IMs significantly correlated with learners’ uptake. Hence, the null hypothesis was partially rejected. As it pertains to experimental group, the uptake of the learners was found to be negatively correlated with metalinguistic feedback. It seems that one interpretation can be drawn here. According to the postmodernism approach, the power relationship between people is determined by and is a function of discourse and discourse practice (Kumaravadivelu, 1993). That is, the degree of EFL learners’ power in power distribution with their EFL teacher is decided by the structure of co-constructed discourse that form the type of communication between learner and teacher. The EFL teachers perceive her/him as the only authority of knowledge where the learners have less
power within the power relationship in the classroom, therefore, the teacher controls the flow of discourse, demonstrates, asks, corrects, and then reinforces. Based on this power relationship in the EFL classrooms, it was not surprising for those teachers to use the direct ways of feedback more often than other ways.

The interpretation that was presented above may also work for the control group. However, one observes a difference. The instructors for this group did not have the superior knowledge of IM array at their disposal, yet it seems that they again considered themselves the power of knowledge rather than the facilitator of an active process of learning. With regard to the IM used in the control groups, both explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback turned out to be significantly correlated with EFL learners’ uptake. The result has shown that even students in the control groups were sensitive to the metalinguistic feedback, but at the same time explicit correction turned out to be significantly correlated with EFL learners’ uptake.

Regarding the second hypothesis, the results of profile analysis showed that there is statistically significant difference between the profiles of both groups. As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected. The results of the current study confirmed the findings of other studies that IM occurred frequently in different settings. Sheen (2004) points out that different CF are various in frequencies but not in types across the different settings. So it depends on teacher’s preferences for using feedback strategies in response to the learners’ error types. Regardless of the fact that learning is supposed to happen in the course of time, the experimental groups profile showed that they outperformed the control groups. Considering the fact that IM results need time to surf up in the form of improvement in the performance, this research endeavor displayed the image of success even in a relatively short period of time. This can be quite encouraging for language instructors who may include IM systematically in their teaching.

With respect to the third hypothesis, the results of the one way ANOVA quite strongly illustrated that the uptake level of learners in experimental groups were improving steadily. In the case of this research, there were some mechanisms that, to a certain degree, helped the formation of this sustainable development in learning. The uptake level of the learners in the experimental groups was steady over time by teachers’ IM provision. However, care should be taken that researchers who have used uptake as a measure of potential acquisition have acknowledged that learner repair does not guarantee acquisition (Ellis, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Clearly, in order to demonstrate the effectiveness of IM in learners’ interlanguage development, researchers must show that any effects are sustained over time (Lightbown, 2000). In other words, in the case of this study, the process of correcting and re-correcting had led to a steady learning achievement pattern. Perhaps the most important factor was the comprehensive workshop and the follow up sessions that helped the formation of a steady teaching agenda for teachers in the experimental groups. The study showed that IM has an immediate impact on L2 uptake and that the level of the effectiveness does not decline significantly during the period between the treatment and final test. What is of utmost importance in education is knowledge retention over time. Another factor found to mediate the effectiveness of feedback is the length of the treatment for intervention. Lyster & Saito’s (2010) meta-analysis of oral feedback in classroom studies revealed that longer treatment were significantly more helpful than short-to-medium treatments. Thus, the findings of the current study confirmed the Lyster & Saito’s (2010) meta-analysis of oral feedback in classroom studies.

Regarding the fourth hypothesis, the results of t-test analyses revealed that the mean of the students’ uptake in terms of repair at the end of the term was indeed significantly different from the beginning. The learners’ uptake level in both groups improved significantly and the comparison of the groups also showed significant difference to the benefit of the experimental groups. Teachers in the experimental groups who gained consciousness knowledge about the importance and taxonomy of corrective behavior may have overridden (the evidence shows they did) their previous beliefs. These ideas regarding the correct way of handling students’ errors, errors to be corrected may have had a direct attitude on the performance of the teachers in both groups that are consequently surfaced in the students’ performance.

**Conclusion**

This section summarizes the key findings of the study and provides some implications for the
field of TEFL. It is remarkable that one single IM had a great contribution in terms of impact on uptake level in both groups. One of the important arguments that may be pursued is the cognitive style of adult learners. The fact that the learners in this study were all adults may be linked to the major impact of one single IM.

This study established that a strong positive relationship existed between the teachers’ IM and learners’ oral uptake within the framework provided by Lyster & Ranta’s (1997) analytic model. In other words, in the case of this study, the process of correcting and re-correcting led to a steady learning achievement pattern. Perhaps the most important factor was the comprehensive workshop and the follow up sessions that helped the formation of a steady teaching agenda for teachers in the experimental groups. Another factor found to mediate the effectiveness of feedback was the length of treatment for intervention. The findings of the present study confirmed the Lyster & Saito’s (2010) meta-analyses of oral feedback in educational studies indicating that longer treatments were significantly more effective than short-to-medium treatments.

The results of this study is in line with many previously mentioned studies about feedback in EFL settings and it has also been found to be more beneficial than feedback in L2 settings (Li, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007). In this relation, there are several reasons: studies have shown that learners in EFL settings have a more positive view of error correction (Loewen et al., 2009), perhaps playing a role in the efficacy of feedback. From a logical point of view, students of EFL settings, as the case is for Iran, only receive feedback from teachers in schools and institutes while L2 students can have feedback from many sources such as colleagues and neighbors. As a result, it is natural that EFL instructors and students are more cautious about errors and feedback and sometimes they ask for feedback eagerly.

Based on the findings in the experimental groups, the findings did not support the presumed advantages of all six IMs. Despite the fact that metalinguistic feedback was the most common technique used by both groups’ teachers in their classes, they did not satisfy the need of students. The uptake of the learners was found to be negatively correlated with metalinguistic feedback in the experimental groups. It means that the most the students receive metalinguistic feedback which is teacher-centered feedback, the least it has effect on the students’ uptake. There are some reasons for such findings:

1. It might be related to the nature of the brief and limited interaction that took place during EFL classes.
2. The interaction may not be rich enough to lead to the internalization of the language knowledge.

Regarding the power relationship in the EFL classrooms, teachers often use the direct ways of providing feedback or it may be that metalinguistic feedbacks are not an appropriate kinds of IM in response to the students’ error types. As it was emphasized by (Ellis, 2007), teacher needs considerable skill to determine the appropriate feedback needed as the acquisition process develops. There are other variables that may affect the results of error treatment and such factors make it difficult to separate the effects of IM from other variables such as classroom activities, learners’ age level, developmental readiness, and proficiency level. It seems mandatory that EFL teachers should provide IM for the students’ erroneous utterances. They should be skillful in providing appropriate IMs given at the right time and in the proper contexts.

Pedagogically, the results of the present study have some implications for most novice teachers and researchers who need to have views about what constitutes good teaching which may lead to effective classroom interaction. The findings are useful for teacher training programs and teachers’ awareness of their roles as guidance that can provide opportunities for students to participate in the classroom interaction and can pave the ways for their further language acquisition, and to some extent may prevent learners’ fossilization.

Due to the fact that EFL have not sufficient exposure to the language input in which positive feedback will be provided, they need more negative feedback for the correction of their oral erroneous utterances. In such cases, their errors remain uncorrected and when they don’t receive appropriate IM during their classroom interactions, they frequently commit the same errors and consequently it can be part of their interlanguage system. EFL teachers can benefit by taking time to find out how they currently address students’ errors. Individual learners may well differ in terms of the particular error correction technique most appropriate for their unique language de-
It is important to let the learners correct themselves. If teachers allow time and provide appropriate cues for the learner to do self-repair, more often than not the student will come through. The results of this study can be of some benefit for TTC courses. Teacher trainees can gain awareness about language learner’s interlanguage episodes and the type of errors they commit. Course book developers and teachers can develop course books or handouts that include tasks and exercises to encourage a variety of activities that are drawn from the results of CF studies. Such materials are especially important for local situations that have their own points of strength and weakness. These can be compared with international textbooks that do not always reflect the local needs of EFL learners.

References


Lyster, R. (1998a). Recasts, repetition, and ambiguity in L2 classroom discourse,
Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 20, 51-81. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/


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**Appendix A**

**Classroom Checklist for Teachers’ Use of IM**

Teacher: S  Date:               Session: Eleven  Study Center: Tehran

**Instruction:** Please write an example for the types of IM you used in response to your students’ errors.

1. **Explicit correction**
   
   T: What the land field is? [feedback- elicitation]
   
   ST: It is a place where garbage drown there. [error- lexical]
   
   T: It is an open area where the garbage is taken. [feedback- explicit correction]

2. **Recast**
   
   ST: There are a lot of people wait for you to serve. [error – grammatical]
   
   T: There are a lot of people waiting for you to serve. [feedback-recast]

3. **Clarification request**
   
   ST: A producer usually charges everything in advance… [error- lexical]
   
   T: Can you say some of the activities a producer [feedback-clarification] usually does? ST: He has to be ready to make quick decision, [uptake- repair] to control the budget…etc.

4. **Metalinguistic feedback**
   
   T: what can we do to learn new vocabularies? [feedback- elicitation]
   
   ST: …by looking it up in dictionary. [error –
grammatical]
   T: by looking up the meaning of the new words in a dictionary. [feedback- metalinguistic F.]

5. Elicitation
   St: …the city street are being damaged by trash and it causes many problems.
   St: …it causes dangerous diseases and it endangers people health. [uptake-repair]  
   T: What shall we do to solve the problem? [feedback elicitation]

6. Repetition
   St: One of their friends forgot the party last night. [error-grammatical]
   T: …forgot the party [feedback-repetition]
   St: Sorry, forget the party [uptake-repair]