Negotiating for Meaning and Corrective Feedback in Teacher-Student Interactions

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In interactional communication in English, language learners might find difficulties in expressing their thought, and in understanding their interlocutors' utterances. This is the not only the case with social communication, but also in classroom interaction when language learners communicate with their teachers in English. This paper aimed at finding, one, what learners do when they do not understand, two, how the teacher responds to the learners' errors, and three, the types of corrective feedback used by the teacher in responding to the learners' errors. Data for this paper was collected by recording the interaction between a teacher and six students. They were interviewed on topics relevant to their future jobs as secretaries. The analysis was focused on the occurrence of negotiation for meaning, types of corrective feedback, and backchanneling behaviour, and disfluency markers. The results showed that the learners were willing to ask for clarification when they did not comprehend their interlocutor's utterances. Their interlocutor reacted by giving the information needed or repeating the utterance, providing corrective feedback to the learners' errors, and showing backchanneling. The data showed that recast was the most frequently used type of corrective feedback to which the learners responded in repair. The data showed some disfluency markers: false starts, fillers, self-correct utterances, and L1 influence. These findings might be useful in improving the interactional communication between teachers and students in which the teacher, as the more able person, is expected to give more room for the students to ask and to take some time before production.

Key words: *Negotiation for Meaning, Interaction, Corrective Feedback.*

Introduction

In daily, real-life communication, oftentimes people have a hard time understanding each other, even when they communicate in their first language. It is even harder when they communicate in a foreign language, English particularly. Some might just pretend they understand and wait to get the idea when communication ensues. Some others might be willing when they have difficulty in understanding. The same situation might occur in classroom settings. Some learners might be too shy to ask or be too afraid to do so due to difficulties in raising questions or expressing their opinion. Some other learners are willing to interrupt the flow of interaction to clarify things when they really need to understand; even though they often do it in their first language which their English teachers would willingly respond to. This is true especially when both the students and the teacher share the same first language. They do what is termed as 'negotiation for meaning' in communication.

Restructuring and modification occurs between learners and their respective interlocutors regarding the comprehensibility of the message when an effort is being made to decipher the difficulties perceived in it (Pica, 1994). The term is modified into *speakers' utterance planning and tactics*, which are related to *utterance repair* (Long M. , 1981). In short, when clarification is requested by the listener of the speaker when they have difficulty understanding is a process known as negotiation. This request is followed up by repetition in a simple language that elaborates the original message.

A provision of corrective feedback is usually claimed in negotiation to remove errors (Long M. , 1996). Usually a signal is provided by the teacher to the learner when an incorrect message is delivered in the form of getting more information on learner's understanding or display of facial expressions and body language. The flow of communication necessitates the act of negotiation from learner's side.

Remedial response is given to students most repeatedly in language classrooms, and much of it transpires amidst the communicating activities centred on connotation. This happens usually when errors occur. This is what is known as focus-on-form instruction 'to draw learners' attention to errors in linguistic aspects that occur during the learning process (Long M. , 1991). He ascertained that in order to make feedback coherent, alterations and modifications are required for the interactional composition of the dialogue.
A language learner's willingness to negotiate for meaning in an interaction has been the interest of researchers working on the communicative method. After all, language learning takes place through interaction.

This paper aims to find out what learners do when they do not understand, how the teacher responds to learners' errors in real interactional communication, and the disfluency markers employed by the learners.

Negotiation for meaning is a very useful and convenient way to maintain communication. The participants of the communication use some strategies and techniques regarding clarification and confirmation. They are also willing to give clarification and confirmation. This mutual willingness to communicate is part of communicative competence. Communicative competence is defined as "the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication" and includes pragmatic, sociolinguistic, and strategic competences as well as grammatical competence (Canale, 1983)

Pica (1996) stated that negotiation is communication, but it goes much deeper than the fluent, unbroken sequences of a message exchange characterized by the usual concept of communication. In Pica's term, negotiation is a kind of way out when there is a possibility of any communication breakdown which is caused by a lack of comprehensibility. Pica (1996, p. 20) stated further that when interlocutors negotiate, they engage in any or all the following activities:

1. They expect potential interaction interruptions, as they request explanation queries and verify each other's understanding.
2. They detect interaction interruptions for each other.
3. They fix them through indicators and reformulations.

Gibbons (2009) insisted that meanings are constantly being negotiated through clarification questions, the confirmation of meaning, and in the adjustments to what has been said. The goal of negotiation is to achieve comprehensibility through linguistic activities such as repeating the message verbatim, adjusting its syntax, changing its words, or modifying its forms and meanings (Pica, 1994)

In their research work on negotiation for meaning, Lyster & Ranta (1997) tried to identify the flow and process of negotiation for meaning and found that negotiation of meaning might lead to acquisition provided there is corrective feedback, followed by uptake and repair. Lyster & Ranta (1997, p. 45) created a model of Error Treatment Sequence and explained how to read their model as follows:

The process ensues that, as the learner utters an error, a corrective remark by the teacher follows. In either case communication ensues. If the corrective response is received by the learner and is followed by a remedial repetition of the learner's utterance, the communication is continued. This proves that corrective actions are required of, and provided by, the teacher. Any repair in remedial repetition form is followed by the continuation of the topic or repair-

oriented reinforcement by the teacher. The reinforcement is followed by the continuation if the topic as intended (p. 45). The model is shown in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1. Error Treatment Sequence (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 44)
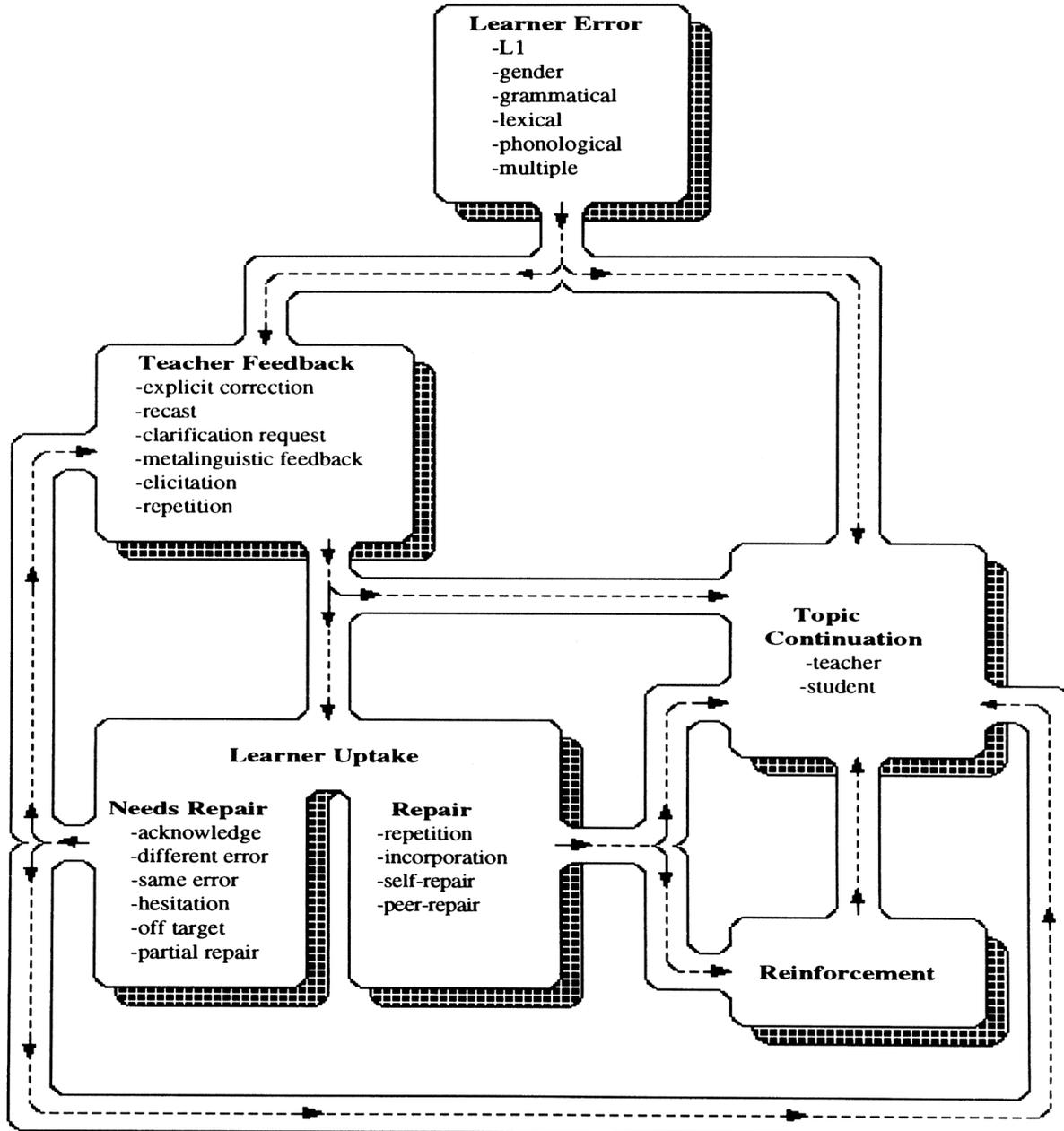
Lyster & Ranta's claim confirmed previous studies, for example, that of Long & Porter (1985), Pica (1987), or Halliday (1993), regarding the type of feedback during mediation that feedback, which suggested that alterations are considerably more rewarding during negotiation than during the rest of learners' communication and that negotiation alters the L2 in approaches that assist learners understand meaning.

In the same vein, Gass & Selinker (2008) described how negotiation in interactions makes room for feedback (recast), and might lead to learning when the learners pay attention (noticing) to feedback. They created a Model of Interaction as can be seen in Figure 2. This = changes made by the learner are what Lyster & Ranta (1997) call uptake. This is basically the learner's statement that instantly ensues the teacher's response (= recasts), and that represents a response to the teacher's intent to call attention to some characteristics of the student's preliminary statement.

Figure 2. A Model of Interaction (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 331)
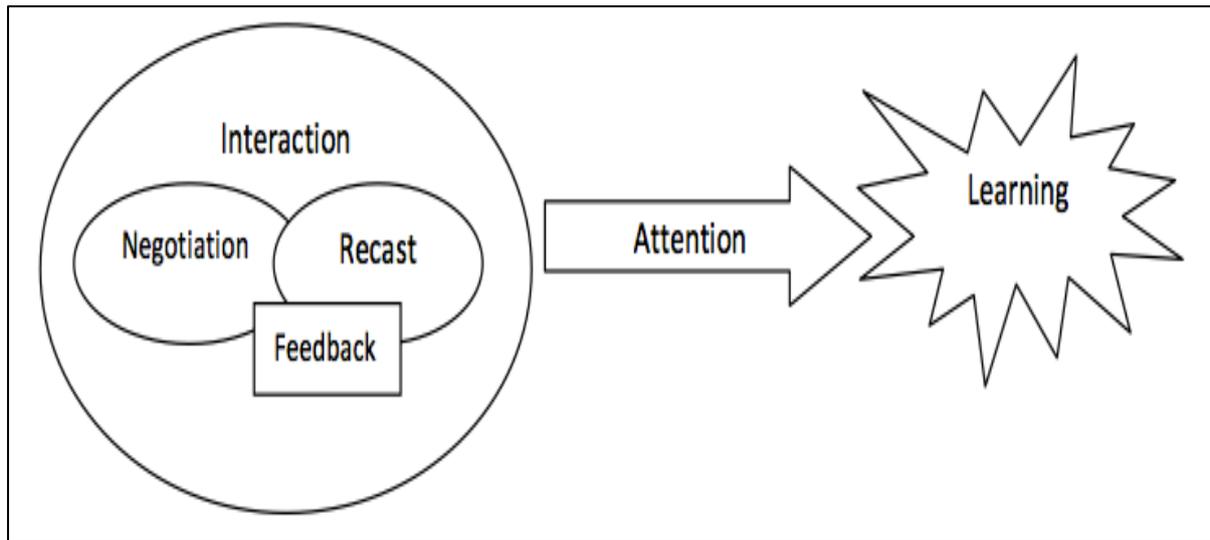
Lyster & Ranta (1997, pp. 46-48) stated six types of corrective feedback which are usually used by people during communication. They are

1. Explicit Correction: the right structure is provided, and the remedial intent is made obvious.
2. Recast: restructuring a learner's expression in an appropriate form.
3. Clarification Request: a query suggesting that understanding or precision was not attained.
4. Metalinguistic Feedback: an explanation of the fault's form is provided, typically with mention to guidelines or linguistic expressions.
5. Elicitation: the learner is encouraged to rectify an article with elision (e.g. *No, it's a ...*), a question (e.g. *How do we say that*?), or a direction (e.g. *Please say that again*.).
6. Repetition: the mistake is repeated, often with a heightened tone to concentrate interest on the objective for rectification. (e.g. *You go to a movie last night*?).

Lightbown & Spada (1990) termed corrective feedback as any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect. This might be explicit (e.g. grammar explanation or overt error correction), or implicit (e.g. confirmation checks, repetitions, recasts,

clarification requests, silence, or even expressions that express confusion). These forms of feedback usually come naturally during communication.

Natural communication is usually characterized by some disfluency markers. These can be identified in utterances in the production of any kind of breaks, silence, murmurs, false starts, fillers, and self-correct utterances that occur during the flow of speech.

Corder (1981, p. 18) termed them as erroneous performance taking forms in false starts, slips of the tongue, and changes of mind. For some people (read: teachers), these disfluency markers seem to be annoying and sometimes are regarded as an 'incapability' in terms of using the language. But as the goal of any language learning (e.g. English as a foreign language) is the attainment of communicative competence, these disfluency markers might be considered one of the communication strategies to help maintain the communication flow.

Materials and Methods

The research was aimed at identifying the occurrence of negotiation for meaning (whether the participants negotiate to mean) when they use their language in interaction, the corrective feedback provided to the participants amidst the interaction, and the backchannelling behaviours as well as the participants' use of disfluency markers.

The participants were selected purposively for the research. They were 6 (six) second-year students of Diploma III Secretary of STIKS Tarakanita Jakarta. They were offered to drop by the recording location at their convenient time. After receiving an explanation about the purpose of this study, they agreed to be interviewed and recorded.

The data for this study was a transcribed 10-minute interview between an interviewer and the participants. They shared their views on the importance of English and Information Communication Technology (ICT) to their future jobs as secretaries. The interview was then transcribed and numbered for easy reference in analysis. The transcription was made using a 'broad' transcription (Ellis, R. and Barkhuizen, G., 2005). By 'broad transcription', they defined it as a transcription that simply provides a written record in standard orthography and puts a note on major pauses. Following Tarone & Swierzbin ((2009, p. xix) the transcripts were then 'numbered by line for ease of reference'.

The data was examined and extracted based on the occurrence of negotiation for meaning in their interaction, the occurrence of corrective feedback provided by the interviewer to the errors made by the participants, and the occurrence of backchannel behaviours and dis-fluency markers in the participants' utterances. They were then analysed and presented according to their frequency. The pedagogical implications were derived from the analysis of the findings.

Results

The transcribed interviews were scrutinized for the occurrence of negotiation for meaning, types of corrective feedback following Lyster & Ranta (1997) the interviewer's backchannel behaviours and the learners' disfluency markers. The findings were shown and discussed below.

Negotiation for Meaning

It was found that there were 25 turns containing negotiation for meaning as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Turns consisting of Negotiation of Meaning

Types of Negotiation for Meaning	Turns	Percentage
Confirmation	6	24%
Recast	14	56%
Elicitation	1	.04%
Clarification Request	3	12%
Repetition	1	.04%
Total Occurrence	25	100%

The findings of this study showed that recast was the most frequently used type of negotiation of meaning (56%), followed by confirmation (24%) and then clarification request (12%). Even though recast was often claimed to be the least effective way in eliciting learner-generated repair, in this study, recast turned out to be the most effective way of maintaining the flow of the communication, especially because the participants were willing to give clarification and confirmation.

Most of the negotiations of meaning were initiated by the interviewer. The participants then negotiated to understand the question about the length of time spent learning English. The interaction was shown by Participant 3 and Participant 5 as follows:

Participant 3

22 I: *OK, that's about English. How long have you learned English?*
23 P3: *Excuse me, Mam?*
24 I: How long have you learned English? Learned English?
25 P3: *Learned English. Starting from ..er.. from Elementary School.*
Participant 5
11 I: And then. Is it necessary for the would-be secretaries?
12 P5: *Pardon, me?*

13 I: For the secretaries.

14 P5: *For the secretaries also it's needed because we know that ..er.. secretaries have .. will meet*

There was no threat of the so-called communication breakdown when the participants produced utterances that the interviewer needed to clarify to understand their point of view. Foster & Ohta (2005) noted that negotiation for meaning is usually initiated by a native speaker or teacher who has not encountered a communication failure, impasse, or breakdown, (i.e. who has understood what the non-native speaker meant) and has chosen what aspect of language to focus on. The initiative is meant to turn the learner's attention productively from meaning and towards form. Swain (2001) claimed that feedback, recasting, and other language-related episodes might shift a learner's attention to language form.

The details of the turns were presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Details of Turns Consisting Negotiation for Meaning

Recast	
P1-5	*I want fluent in speaking speak English*
I-6	Do you want to be fluent in English?
P1-25	*…we will able to practice…*
I- 26	you will be able to practice
P2-17	*make my English better*
I-18	..better
P2-35	*…our job easier*
I-36	..easier to be done
P3-18	*…English simple, I mean*
I-19	..simple English
P4-12	*…we will meet many people …*
I-13	We will meet
P4-18	*…not only in the daily…*
I-19	...daily conversation
P4-22	*…write the correspondence in*
I-23	… letters
P4-28	*...in my opinion IC 3…*
I-29	ICT
P4-31	*...information changes in a few seconds, I mean.*
I-32	Instantly
P3-35	*…in the **diktat**…*

I-36	Handouts?
P4-36	*...We must able to...*
I-37	We must be able.
P5-8	*…I can say English with them*
I-9	You can speak English with them
P5-21	*I think it needs*
I-22	It is needed
Confirmation Checks	
P1-11	*…I also interest in English*
I-12	Do you have an interest in English?
P1-15	*…since I in junior high school*
I-16	..you were in high school…
P2-13	*they cannot speak Indonesia …*
I-14	Indonesian, do you mean?
P4-4	*…unconsciously ...*
I-5	Excuse me? Unconsciously?
P6-16	*we have to learn more about ICTT*
I-17	learn how to use it?
Clarification Request	
P3-23	*Excuse me, Ma'am?*
I-24	How long have you learned English?
P5-3	*… As a younger*
I-4	Younger? What do you mean by younger?
P5-12	*Pardon me?*
I-13	Is it necessary for the would-be secretaries?
Elicitation	
P2-21	*…every student…* (mispronounced)
I-22	..every..
Repetition	
P1-38	*…because ICT is always developing day by day*
I-39	So ICT develops every day
P3-32	*ICT is about technology and computer*
I-33	Information Communication Technology

Corrective Feedback

From the six types of Lyster & Ranta (1997) 's corrective feedback, recast was the most frequently used and it resulted effectively in repair. It means that these participants understood

the interviewer's point in making the corrective feedback. Expecting them to always remember the feedback as not to make similar errors in the future might be too much, but at least for the time being, they noticed the feedback and knew how to react to it.

This also confirmed Long & Sato's (1983) argument that acquisition is more easily facilitated through interaction due to the linguistic and interactional adjustments that take place in the communicative discourse of language classroom, so that it provides the necessary input which is needed for learners to negotiate for meaning while communication breakdowns occur. The feedback received by the participants empowered them to modify and restructure their production to make it more comprehensible to avoid being misunderstood by others.

The occurrences of corrective feedback are sampled below.

P1-5: *I want fluent in speaking speak English*
I-6: You want to be fluent in English*?*
P1-7: Ya. I want to …er…I am a dream to…to fluent in English.

Participant 1 responded to a question, "Why do you learn English?" by explaining it in a bit longer utterance. When the interviewer spotted a repetition and an incorrect expression, she tried to give feedback through recast. Participant 1 acknowledged it, but unfortunately, there was no result in uptake. This is a pretty common phenomenon in the language learning process. It seems that this participant wanted to show that she grasped the feedback, but she just wanted to enjoy talking without too much concern about the 'grammar' thing.

Look at another string of utterances below.

P1-1 I want to ..er.. can speak with pe.. with people ..er.. and also ..er.. with foreign.
P1-9 …*foreigners* (mispronounced) *foreigners* (self-correct)
I-10   Foreigners.
P1-11 *Ya right. And also I like English. I also interest in English.*
I-12   You have an interest in English?
P1-13 *Right. I have an interest in English.*

Participant 1 was capable of making a self-correct pronunciation when the interviewer helped her. She just acknowledged it by confirming it without an uptake. She did an uptake and made a repair after the interviewer did a confirmation check. This is also another common phenomenon in teacher-student interaction where the teacher usually aims at drawing the student's attention to the 'better way of saying something'. This participant noticed, understood, and then made a repair. This, confirming Gass & Selinker (2008), hopefully would lead to learning.

Participant 2 handled feedback in an elegant way by acknowledging it, performing an uptake, and making the repair. The feedback was mostly related to word choice, which was influenced a lot by her L1, Indonesian:

- Indonesia is the country name, while the language is Indonesian.
- 'better' is a direct translation from '*lebih baik*' – the comparative form of '*baik*' (good) which should be expressed simply as 'better'.
- 'easier' is a direct translation from '*lebih mudah*' – the comparative form of '*mudah*' (easy) which should be expressed simply as 'easier'.

P2-13   … *they cannot speak Indonesia.*
I-14   Indonesian, do you mean?
P2-15   *Indonesian and I.*

P2-17   … *make my English better*
I-18   better
P2-19   *Better*
P2-35   *Because it will help us a lot to finish our job to make our job easier*
I-36   Easier to be done.
P2-37   *Easier to be done.*

Another utterance influenced by L1 was shown by Participant 3 who borrowed the Indonesian word '*diktat*' to refer to the materials she received in class.

P3-34 is *OK. Er, factly I..we. I did not learn about that in my speaking class*.
P3-35 *But we're just learning about the secretarial … in the diktat. But it's more about secretarial*.
I-36   Handout?
P3-37 *Ya, handouts*.

The same can be observed of the utterance of Participant 6, lines 5-7, where she referred to her first language as '*Bahasa ibu*' – simply a term in Indonesian which means mother tongue.

P6-5   more challenging for for for me, er.. er.. er.. especially in work maybe.. English English English
P6-6   English is so so so important like Bahasa ibu. For me is for me learning English is more is more
P6-7   is more important than, for me, it is more important than the other subjects.

L1 influence in L2 production is unavoidable, and in some cases is even beneficial for English learners, and Indonesian English learners, by providing a base of reference. This confirms Auerbach (1993) who advocated the use of L1 for adult EFL *Learned* learners.

Another form of corrective feedback that was employed by the participants were clarification requests when they did not understand an interaction. They used the common phrases, such as Excuse me, Mam? Pardon me? below.

I-22 OK, that's about English. How long have you learned English?
P3-23 *Excuse me, Mam?*
I-24 How long have you learned English? Learned English?
P3- 25 *Learned English. Starting from ..er.. from Elementary School.*

I-11 And then. Is it necessary for the would-be secretaries*?*
P5-12 *Pardon, me?*
I-13 For the secretaries.
P5-14 *For the secretaries also it's needed because we know that ..er. secretaries have .. will meet*

The use of clarification requests in an interaction, as a form of negotiation for meaning, has to do with the willingness to communicate (WTC) which is crucial in interaction. Lightbown & Spada (1990) stated that negotiation for meaning is an "interaction between speakers who make adjustments to their speech and use other techniques to repair a breakdown in communication". Long (1996) encouraged learners to negotiate for meaning to help them understand the content of the message delivered in L2 by their interlocutors.

Clarification requests can also be done using the 'hesitation technique' in pronouncing words, as shown by Participant 3 inline 32 below.

I-32 is OK. In Speaking Class, one of the topics in ICT. What do you think about that?
P3-32 ICT is about technology and computer.
I-33 Information Communication Technology.
P3-34 is *OK. Er, factly I..we. I did not learn about that in my speaking class*.

It seems that she was not sure what the abbreviation stands for. The interviewer noticed this and responded. And it worked. Participant 3 was successful in getting the information.

Interviewer's Backchanneling Behaviour

The interviewer made use of backchanneling behaviour to encourage the participants to keep on talking, and express their opinion. As it is common in face-to-face communication, not every backchannel can be expressed in words. Maintaining eye-contact, head-nodding, smiling,

showing interest through facial expression are some forms of backchanneling behaviour. The interviewer managed to show these backchanneling behaviours through eye-contact, head-nodding and showing interest through facial expressions.

Table 4 below showed the backchanneling expressed by the interviewer in verbal expressions (in bold).

Table 4: Backchanneling in Verbal Expressions

Participant	The Utterances
P1	13 Right. I have an interest in English *14 **Uh uh. Why?***
	27 Ya to practice our learning in Tarakanita. *28 **OK**.*
P2	27 Right? *28 **OK**. …*
	33 How to use a computer? *34 **Why?***
P3	5 … May be just asking a question or answering the question in English. *6 **That's interesting.***
	27 Improved a little bit. *28 **Why is it so?***
P4	8 … What else? In Tarakanita? **4 No-no-no. Do you think… later on…**

Disfluency Markers

As it is common in learner's language, disfluency markers were also abundant in the utterances of these six participants. Disfluency markers include fillers, false start, repaired utterance (self-correct) and L1 influence. Both the participants and the interviewer shared Indonesian as their mother tongue and they were active users of it, therefore the L1 influence is unavoidable.

Table 5 showed that all six participants experienced a false start. Participant 6 made the most frequent false starts; perhaps because she did a translation from Indonesian. This is a common technique among Indonesian English learners. Most of the false starts can even be categorized as 'unnecessary repetition'. The second frequently used disfluency marker was fillers, showing moments of collecting thought and finding the words to express their thoughts. A teacher and an interlocutor should be patient and give rooms for learners to do this.

Table 5: Disfluency Markers

Ps	Li	Utterance	Type
P1	2	First, is because English is … English is…	False start
	3	And it is important for us…for us to learn that	False start
	8	I want to …er… can speak with pe…people ...er…	Fillers; false start
	9	Foreigner (*mispronounced*) foreigners	Self-correct; repaired utterance
	17	Ya since I was in high school …er… junior high school	Self-correct; repaired utterance
	20	So I become motivate motivated ...	Self-correct; repaired utterance
	30	… is a really common thing in .. *apa*? Is really …	Filler; L1 influence
P2	6	…. You don't didn't need to speak their language	Repaired utterance
	23	… work in multinational com… company.	False start
P3	9	So that you can ...er... know English more …	Filler
	13	…I think it's improved me … improve my English …	Repaired utterance
	34	OK. Er.., factly I… we...I did not learn about that …	False start
	39	O ya. …	L1 influence
P4	22	And then we … I learn how …	False start
	38	… and ya it is important …	L1 influence
P5	7	…young people ...er…because ya English is …	Filler; L1 influence
	14	…we know that …er… secretaries have ... will meet	Filler; repaired utterance
P6	2	Er... the reason I learned English because of …er.. in …	Filler
	3	I do not like English at all. The last in my high school I try I try to	False start
	4	… because I know the demand for the… for the future	False start
	5	more challenging for for for me, er er er … English English English English …	False start; filler

	6	English is so so so important like Bahasa Ibu. For me is for me learning English is more is more	False start; L1 influence
	7	is more important than, for me, it is more important than…	False start
	10	…I think I think…	False start
	13	…with with some technology because er	False start; filler
	15	…We have to…we have to… we have to… we have to…	False start
	18	…If we … if we…	False start
	19	… we will..we will..we will not..we will do...	False start

Discussion

To sum up, the interview data showed that negotiation for meaning can be found in the interactions between learners and interlocutors (teachers, more able persons). The meaning is negotiated through recast, confirmations, clarification questions, elicitation, and repetition. The most frequently used type of negotiation for meaning was recast (56%) and the second most frequently used type was confirmation. The use of meaning for negotiation was followed right away by corrective feedback, which was meant to facilitate the students in making adjustments to what had been said. Corrective feedback is primarily intended to facilitate second language learning, or particularly to make language comprehensible. As Lyster & Ranta (1997, p. 41) stated, error treatment (i.e. corrective feedback) is useful in

- one, producing comprehensible output, which entails the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers and,
- two, language features can be made more salient in the input during subject-matter lessons as teachers interact with students; that is, they can provide feedback to students that draw attention to relevant language forms during meaningful interaction (p. 41).

The data also showed that recast was the most frequently used type of corrective feedback, followed by confirmation checks and clarification requests. Surprisingly, all of them resulted in repair. This showed that corrective feedback is effective in helping the students adjust their utterances, not only focusing on getting the message across, but also getting it across using the acceptable language form.

The data also showed that in order to keep the students talking, the interviewer displayed both non-verbal and verbal backchanneling. No-verbal backchanneling behaviours were shown by maintaining eye contact, head-nodding, and showing interest through facial expression; while verbal backchanneling was shown through expressions such as *Uh..uh. Why?; OK; Why; That's interesting.; Why is it so?; No-no-no. Do you think... Later on.*

The data showed the abundant occurrence of disfluency markers: False start was the most frequent marker (16), followed by filler (8), self-correction /repaired utterance (6), and L1 influence (5).

These findings showed that when the learners did not understand the utterances of their interlocutor, they generally showed a willingness to negotiate for meaning by asking for clarification using expressions such as *Excuse me?* and *Pardon me*? or by using the 'hesitation technique' when uttering the words, which involve the expectation that the interlocutor will correct or clarify the utterances.

The teacher (or the interlocutor) on the other side, reacted to errors made by the learners by showing a willingness to give feedback to the students' errors through recast, confirmation checks and clarification requests. It was not because of the possibility of the so-called communicative breakdown, but it was done as a way to 'draw the students' attention to the linguistic errors that arose during the interaction (Long M. , 1991). The teacher also showed some backchanneling behaviour to encourage more oral production and it worked.

The study showed that recast was the most-frequently-used type of feedback by the teacher and it turned out to be quite effective in triggering the learners' utterance repair. This is what is called learner uptake, i.e. a learner utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback (= recasts) and that constitutes a reaction in some ways to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspects of the student's initial utterance (Lyster, R. and Ranta, L., 1997).

The findings also showed that the learners possessed some disfluency markers, which were common in interactional communication. The disfluency markers were dominated by false starts, followed by fillers, self-correct, and L1 influence.

Natural utterances are characterized a lot by some disfluency markers as language production actually involves several stages that open the possibilities to the production of disfluency markers. Following Levelt's (1989) stages of speech production: conceptualiser, lexicon, formulator, monitor system and articulator, Bergmann et al (2015) found that "the high incidence of disfluencies in the L1 attriters - as speakers with a deeply entrenched L1, but also a highly active L2 - highlights the role of language competition on speech production".

Conclusion

The participants were identified to have the willingness to negotiate for meaning when they did not understand. This eventually led to the willingness to communicate no matter what might come in the interaction. They were also open to feedback, some even did an uptake and made repair eventually. As is common in second language learning, they also experienced some

disfluency markers in their utterances which were just fine in natural communication. As the more able person, the interlocutor exercised some backchanneling behaviours. This was not only to show appreciation and understanding, but also to prompt the participants to be more relaxed and enjoy the interaction.

In a classroom setting, it is possible to apply negotiation for meaning and corrective feedback. Teachers might want to make use of recast as it is proven to be quite effective in modifying the students' utterances. As most types of negotiation for meaning and corrective feedback are initiated by the teacher, other techniques such as confirmation checks and clarification requests might be used. Only when it is necessary or when the errors are prevalent among students, explicit correction focusing-on-form might be employed.

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