

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION**

## **1.0. Introduction**

The study on the role of feedback in second language learning has been well struggled in various issues, including psychology (e.g. de Bot, 1996), cognitive science (e.g. DeKeyser, 1998, 2001) and linguistics (e.g. Schwartz, 1993; White, 1987). Researchers' views vary to a great extent regarding the types of evidence provided by feedback, their classification, as well as their role in the development of specific domains of a second language.

Underlying these different views are diverse theoretical stances regarding the role of negative evidence and positive evidence (Gass, 2003), input and output (Krashen, 1982, 1985; Swain, 1985, 1995), and explicit and implicit learning (DeKeyser, 2001; Ellis, 1994; Schmidt, 1990,1995) in SLA, which reflect the researchers' academic background and the research context from which they come.

It was suggested that learners in Canadian immersion classrooms failed to achieve native like proficiency for some structures of language despite remarkable exposure to comprehensive input. Based on these observations, (Swain, 1985) hypothesized that immersion learners did not achieve native like grammatical competence because they had few opportunities to produce the target language. According to Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985, 1995) output triggers language acquisition by forcing the learner to process language syntactically, to formulate and attest a hypothesis about target language, and to notice a gap between his/her utterances and the target utterance.

To put it simply, Output Hypothesis claims that, under some circumstances, output stimulates language acquisition by pushing learner to process language syntactically. According to Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1995), whereas the learner can often comprehend a message without much syntactic analysis of the input, production pushes the

learner to pay attention to forms with which intended messages are expressed. In so doing, it is thought, output promotes language acquisition by making learners recognize problems in their interlanguage and prompting learners to do something about those problems. Swain (1985, 1995) enumerates several functions for output;

- A) *To generate better input,*
- B) *To force syntactic processing,*
- C) *To develop automaticity,*
- D) *To test hypotheses,*
- E) *To notice mismatches between learner utterance and teacher utterance.*

One of the salient functions of output is *noticing/ triggering* function. This function of output is closely related to Noticing Hypothesis of Schmidt (1990, 2001) which postulates that output facilitates the noticing of problems in the interlanguage and the relevant features in the input. This noticing may stimulate the cognitive processes of language acquisition.

However, later development in Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996, 2007) highlighted the facilitative role of interaction in the process of second language acquisition. Interaction hypothesis states that "negotiation *for meaning* and especially negotiation work that triggers *interactional adjustments* by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive way" (Long, 1996, PP. 451-452). Interaction hypothesis has generated a large body of empirical and descriptive studies which demonstrated the positive role of interaction between native speaker and nonnative speaker or between learners and teachers.

### **1.1. Negative Feedback**

Recent research in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) has revealed that the teaching of grammatical points in isolation does not cause learners to achieve higher levels of communicative abilities and fluency (Swain, 1985). Rather, meaning-focused instruction should be complemented with form- focused instruction (Long & Robinson, 1998). Form-focused instruction refers to "any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form either implicitly or explicitly" (Spada, 1997, P. 73).

Gass (2003) pointed out that negative evidence (negative feedback) refers to the type of information that is provided to learners concerning the incorrectness of an utterance (this might be in the form of explicit or implicit information). Ammar & Spada (2006) attributed the increased interest in corrective feedback to the difficulties learners experience with accuracy, particularly in terms of morphology and syntax.

Negative feedback through interaction may contribute to L2 development by informing learners about comprehensibility of their utterances (Long, 1996) and by raising their awareness of language (Ellis, 1994). Negative feedback is thought that, may draw learners' attention to the language forms they have produced and help them to detect gaps or holes in their L2 knowledge or to notice specific linguistic forms in the subsequent input (Gass, 2003; Long, 1996; Schmidt, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Taken together, Long (1996) asserts that negative feedback may serve L2 development by encouraging learners to attend to features of the input that otherwise may have remained undetected. A lot of empirical studies have shown the contributions of negative feedback both in classroom setting and laboratory conditions (Mc Donough 2005).

Corrective feedback is of two major types: implicit and explicit. The former types can take the form of recasts (Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998). The latter types, on the other hand, can take a variety of forms. A number of researchers believe it includes metalinguistic

information (e. g. Elis, et. al., 2006). For other, still, explicit feedback involves the indication that an error has been made (Carrol & Swain, 1993). It should be mentioned that this classification itself is contentious. (See Yang & Lyster, 2006).

## **1.2. Recasts**

A considerable amount of recent research has concerned *recasts* ( Lyster, 1998a, 1998b, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Philip, 1998). Long (2007:2) defines a recast as a reformulation of all or a part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items are replaced by the corresponding target form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning not language as an object.

There has been a considerable body of research that highlighted the positive role of recasts for SLA development (Egi, 2007; Philip, 2003). Justifying the role of recasts, (Doughty 1998) argued that recasts constitute the ideal means of achieving an "immediately contingent focus on form" and afford a "cognitive window" in which learners can rehearse what they heard and access material from their interlanguage.

It is argued that learners, particularly early-staged learners cannot attend to both meaning and form without difficulty. One of the potential benefits of recasts in helping learners overcome this challenge is their semantic transparency (Long, 2007). Because a recast provide linguistic information that is semantically contingent to the learner's problematic utterance, its meaning might already be understood by the learner, at least partially. This might reduce the cognitive demands of processing meaning to form, potentially facilitating form-function mapping (Egi, 2007: 531).

In the same vein, (Long, 1996) asserted that recasts work for acquisition precisely because they are implicit, connecting linguistic form to meaning in discourse contexts that promote the microprocessing (i. e., noticing or rehearing in short-term memory) required for implicit language learning. As recasts are provided immediately after a nontargetlike form, the salience of the positive evidence is enhanced. Philip (2003), also, concluded that the attentional resources and processing biases of learners modulated the extent to which they noticed the gap between their nontargetlike utterance and the corrections found in recasts. Han (2002), likewise, hypothesized that recasts should be more beneficial for linguistic forms that are already in the process of being internalized than for forms that are unfamiliar to learners. Moreover, it is claimed that recasts might be much more salient than NS interactional moves that contain positive feedback, thus leading to significant gains of L2 development.

Nonetheless, a number of researches raised questions about the accessibility of the negative feedback available in recasts on the grounds that recasts can be ambiguous to the learner (Lyster, 1998). Because recasts often occur in the same discourse contexts as noncorrective repetitions and other sorts of feedback without explicit cues that identify them as corrective in nature, it has been suggested that recasts might be perceived as alternative ways of expressing the same meaning (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002).

### **1.3. Prompt**

Prompts, also, have been the focus of attention of SLA researchers in the past two decades (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b, 2004). Prompts aim to provide negative evidence because they signal that the learners' utterance is problematic. In this way, corrective feedback withholds the correct reformulation and instead encourages learners to

self-repair through clarification requests, repetition of learner error, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation (Lyster, 2002, 2004).

According to Lyster (2004) there are a variety of signals through which learners can be pushed to self-repair;

1. *Elicitation* (in which the teacher elicits a reformation from the student by asking questions or by pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher's utterance).
2. *Metalinguistic clues* (in which the teacher provides comments or questions related to the accuracy of the student's utterance)
3. *Clarification requests* (in which the teacher uses phrases like "pardon" and "I don't understand" after learner errors to tell them that their utterances are ill-formed and a reformulation is needed).
4. *Repetition* (in which the teacher repeats the students' erroneous utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error).

Lyster (2002) believes that the self-repair process helps learners to reanalyze what has already been learned and to restructure their interlanguage. Likewise, de Bot (1996: 549) argued that learners benefit more from being pushed to make the right connection on one's own than from hearing the correct structures in the input.

Trying to theoretically justify the prompts, Lyster & Izquierdo (2010) explained the effectiveness of prompts through provision of negative evidence and 'skill acquisition theory' which describes L2 learning as a gradual change in knowledge from declarative to procedural mental representations (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998, 2001). The transformation has been claimed that involves a transition from controlled processing, which requires a great deal of

attention and use of short-term memory, to automatic processing, which operates on automatized procedures stored in long-term memory.

#### **1.4. Significance and justification for the present study**

Ellis and Sheen (2006) believe that studying recasts serves as a means of investigating two issues of general theoretical importance in SLA. The first issue concerns the roles of positive and negative in SLA. The second theoretical issue that has to be addressed by researches on recasts concerns the relative impact of implicit and explicit types of negative feedback. The purpose of the present study is to build on previous empirical study by adding other variables to investigate the effects of these factors on the efficacy of recasts and prompts on the target structure. The target structure will be studied here is (past passive tense of English). It is claimed that the structure is linguistically easy but psycholinguistically complex. It should be emphasized that no empirical study has investigated this structure within recasts and prompts literature and Ellis and Sheen (2006) argued that recasts have received an unusually large amount of attention in SLA research, owing in large part to logically consistent for study. They continued:

*Despite the strong theoretical claims regarding the inquisitional potential of recasts, there is no clear evidence that recasts work better for acquisition than other aspect of interaction such as models, prompts, or explicit corrective strategies (p. 597).*

And it will prove the effect of these two types of corrective feedback over each other. Moreover, knowledge about the effects of recasts and prompts on the acquisition of this target structure will be of significance for both cognitive approaches to SLA and those who adhere to the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2003) which suggest that classroom activities and



tasks should be selected and sequenced on the basis of cognitive factors than linguistic ones. Finally, research into the effects of recasts and prompts on the acquisition of specific target structures may shed illuminating light on the learnability and teachability of these structures as well as cognitive mechanisms underlying different corrective feedback. The pedagogical implications of such studies, is thought that, will be of immediate application for both theory and practice of SLA English language teachers in communicative classroom settings. And it would be interesting to see if, for the same reasons, prompts were more effective than recasts for improving use of past passive tense of English or not.

### **1.5. Design**

The design of the study (to tackle research question number one and two) will be as follows: placement test, treatment, and posttest. Three intact classes, they will be randomly assigned to three groups (recast, prompt, and control). These three groups will receive the same form- focused instruction of the target structure. The treatment will include 3 hours of form-focused instruction distributed over two weeks. The recast group will received corrective feedback in the form of reformulation of their nontarget like utterance. The prompt group will be pushed to self- repair their errors through clarification requests, repetition of learner error, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation (Lyster, 2002, 2004). The control group will receive no feedback with respect to the target structure. After treatment, the participants will take posttest (oral tasks).

The dependent variable is the linguistic development, as measured by tests of participants' performance and production of the target structure. The independent variable will be corrective feedback type (Recasts and prompts which will be compared to control group).

## **1.6. Analysis**

To address research questions repeated measures of variance (ANOVAs) was employed to investigate the statistical differences among three groups (recasts, prompts, and control group). When significance differences found, Post hoc analyses was used to determine the relationships.

## **1.7. Research Questions**

The present study would like to address the following research questions:

1. Do the groups that carry out form- focused activities and tasks while receiving corrective feedback show superiority in acquiring past passive tense of English over the control group which perform the same tasks and activities without receiving corrective feedback on the target structure (past passive tense ) ?
2. Do prompts have differentials effects on the learning of past passive tense of English?
3. Do recasts have differentials effects on the learning of past passive tense of English?

## **1.8. Instructional Materials**

Instructional materials for the present study will include three different tasks and class activities (that will include four hours which spread over two weeks); a dictogloss will be administered to the students to carry out with the help of the teachers in all three groups. Second, grammar work activities will be given to the participants to focus on the target structure. Finally, an information- gap task will be given to the learners to transact and to gain control over the taught target structure. It should be mentioned that during the treatment

procedure, the recast group will receive corrective feedback in terms of “reformulation” on the part of the teacher while learners in prompt group will be pushed to self- repair their ill-formed utterances. And the participants in control group will receive no corrective feedback on the target structure errors and the teacher in this group will give corrective feedback to the content rather than the form.

## **1.9. Definition of key terms**

The following terms have been used in this study.

### **1.9.1. Recast:**

Reformulation of all or a part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items are replaced by the corresponding target form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning not language as an object.

### **1.9.2. Prompt:**

It encourages learners to self-repair through clarification requests, repetition of learner error, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation (Lyster, 2002, 2007; Yang & Lyster, 2010).

### **1.9.3. Corrective Feedback:**

It is any indication to learners by teachers, native speakers or non-native speaker interlocutors that their use of the target language is incorrect (Lighthorn and Spada 1999).

## **CHAPTER TWO**

# **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

## **2.0. Introduction**

This chapter begins by reviewing linguistic concepts in the discussion of general mechanisms of second language acquisition relevant to the study of feedback. Following this review, issues specifically related to feedback classification and efficacy in the larger picture of second language learning processes are raised.

### **2.1. Form-focused Instruction**

Form-focused instruction refers to "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form" (Ellis, 2001, pp. 1-2). Form-focused instruction differs from the traditional grammar-and-translation method in that the former relates these forms to their communicative functions; therefore, the forms noticed during communicative interaction may be more likely to be retrieved when confronted by similar communicative contexts. In contrast, the grammar points presented in the traditional decontextualized manner may be remembered in similar contexts such as a discrete point grammar test, but difficult to retrieve in a communicative context (Lyster, 2004a). In such a context, learners tend to treat language instruction as separate from language use (Lightbown, 1998).

The mutual exclusion of grammar and communicative contexts may explain why many learners in the foreign language context are able to achieve high scores in discrete point grammar tests, yet lack the ability to communicate fluently and accurately in communicative contexts (Hu, 2003). Hu (2003) demonstrates in his study that learning experience and regional differences may explain the difference in students' performance in high order language tasks and communicative competence. Rao (2007) summarizes common features of

teaching and learning English in the Chinese context as: (a) concentration on intensive reading as a basis for language study; (b) use of memorization and repetition as fundamental acquisition techniques; (c) emphasis on grammar rules and linguistic details; (d) use of translation as both a teaching and learning strategy; and (e) the teacher's authority and the student's passive role. Within the highly form-oriented Chinese context, there is a need for the implementation of form-focused instruction embedded in meaningful communicative activities in order to achieve a balance between the development of communicative competence and grammatical accuracy. One such form-focused instructional technique that has drawn researchers' attention in recent years is corrective feedback.

## **2.2. Feedback and Second Language Learning**

The effect of corrective feedback in second language acquisition has provoked a substantial number of empirical studies as well as theoretical discussions in the past three decades. The nativists' language acquisition theory proposes that language learning is primarily input-driven, and feedback does not and should not play a significant role in language acquisition. This is based on their claim that the formation and restructuring of second language grammar is solely attributable to an innate human linguistic mechanism working in tandem with positive evidence. Accordingly, negative feedback has little impact on language learning, merely affecting performance but not leading to changes in underlying competence (Schwartz, 1993). A similar position in second language acquisition in the 1980s maintained that all learners needed to acquire a second language was exposure to comprehensible input and motivation to acquire the L2 (Krashen, 1985).

In contrast, other researchers have argued that corrective feedback (or negative evidence) facilitates second language acquisition by drawing learners' attention to errors in their interlanguage and assisting in their second language development (Chaudron, 1988; DeKeyser, 1998, 2001; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Spada, 1997). Cognitive theories have also acknowledged the significant role that feedback plays in the "cognitive comparison" between learners' interlanguage and the target language (Nelson, 1981, 1987; Tomasello & Herron, 1989) as well as in the process of automatizing partially acquired target features in the L2 (DeKeyser, 1998, 2001).

While it is generally contended in L2 literature that feedback has a positive effect on second language acquisition, recent studies in Canadian immersion and ESL contexts have shown that not all feedback types are equally effective (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2004b; Panova & Lyster, 2002), as measured by either "uptake rate" or "gains in test scores." The results of these studies contrast with the findings from a number of studies conducted in laboratory settings (Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Ishida, 2004).

As pointed out by Ammar (2003), some of the factors that have led to the discrepancies in previous research are differences in definitions and operationalizations of different feedback types. Therefore, before addressing the research questions, it is necessary to examine the definition and terminology of the important constructs in the present study.

### **2.3. Definition of recast and prompt**

Drawing on Lyster's (2004b) classification, feedback moves were differentiated as one of two types (i.e., recasts or prompts) in the present study. The fundamental difference

between recasts and prompts is that the former provides learners with the correct form, whereas the latter offers learners various cues to self-repair while withholding the target form. By providing recasts, the teacher supplies the target form in a natural flow of conversation and implicitly reformulates part or all of the student's utterance, as shown in Example 1.1.

Prompts include a range of feedback types: (a) elicitation, in which the teacher directly elicits a reformulation from the student by asking questions such as "How do we say that in English?" or by pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher's utterance, or by asking the student to reformulate his or her utterance; (b) metalinguistic clues, in which the teacher provides comments or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance such as "We don't say it like that in English"; (c) clarification request, in which the teacher uses phrases such as "What?" or "I beg your pardon?" following learner errors in order to indicate to students that their utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a reformulation is required; and (d) repetition, in which the teacher repeats the student's ill-formed utterances, adjusting intonation to highlight the error. According to Lyster and Mori (2006), prompts are pragmatically different from explicit correction and recasts in that "By prompting, a teacher provides cues for learners to draw on their own resources to self-repair, whereas by providing explicit correction or recasting, a teacher both initiates and completes a repair within a single move" (p. 272). Examples of the two types of feedback are as follows:

#### Example 1.1

##### Recasts

S: Once upon a time, there lives a beautiful girl named Cinderella.

T: Once upon a time, there **lived** a beautiful girl named Cinderella.

#### Example 1.2



### Prompts (Repetition)

S: Mrs. Jones travel a lot last year.

T: Mrs. Jones **travel** a lot last year?

S: Mrs. Jones travelled a lot last year.

Descriptive studies in communicative and immersion contexts (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) have shown that prompts were more likely to elicit student responses than recasts, and thus more conducive to noticing. However, other studies in EFL settings (e.g., Korean EFL, Sheen, 2004), including my pilot study in the Chinese EFL context (Yang, 2006), have claimed that language learners were primed to notice the corrective purpose of recasts as well as other types of feedback because of their form-focused language learning experience. Experimental and quasi-experimental studies that have compared the relative efficacy of prompts and recasts have also yielded mixed results. While some studies have demonstrated the superiority of prompts over recasts (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Ellis, 2007; Lyster, 2004b), others did not show such an advantage for prompts (Loewen & Nabei, 2007).

Interestingly, most of the previous studies that have professed prompts as superior over recasts targeted rule-based grammatical features. Until now, the exact nature and efficacy of different types of feedback (i.e., recasts and prompts) on various types of grammatical features as well as the cognitive mechanism they invoke still remain to be examined (Ellis, 2007). Research in this area is especially scarce in EFL contexts, where L2 pedagogy and even learning processes may differ to a large extent from that of immersion or content-based contexts. In addition, past tense has been shown to be a form difficult to acquire for Chinese learners even at the advanced level partly because in Mandarin Chinese, past tense is not

morphologically marked as in English (Cai, 2007). The present study investigates how different types of feedback may benefit Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of regular and irregular English past tense, in an attempt to answer the question of whether recasts and prompts have distinct functions in the acquisition of rule-based versus exemplar-based grammatical forms.

## **2.4. The role of input and output in SLA**

In second language acquisition research, there has been an on-going debate over the role of positive evidence and negative evidence as well as the effect of input and output on language learning.

### **2.4.1. Krashen's input hypothesis**

The Input Hypothesis by Krashen (1982, 1985) sends away all traditional classroom interventions (e.g. grammar teaching and error correction) and the role of negative evidence in language learning. Krashen (1982) has claimed that all second language learners need to acquire language is exposure to sufficiently rich comprehensible input; that knowledge of consciously learned language is distinct from unconsciously acquired language in representation; that only the latter type of knowledge can be deployed in spontaneous language use and, furthermore, that there can be no interaction between "learning" and "acquisition." The non-interface position states that learned knowledge can never become acquired knowledge.

However, other linguistic theories challenged the nativists' view and Krashen's Input Hypothesis which both emphasize the role of input and positive evidence in language

learning. For example, White (1987) points out the importance of feedback, particularly as a source of negative evidence to indicate the inadequacy of learners' interlanguage system, and suggests that positive evidence alone is insufficient in second language acquisition. She further proposes that it is negative evidence triggered by incomprehensible input that becomes the impetus for learners to recognize their inadequate rule system, especially when they are required to go from a broader grammar (superset) to a narrower grammar (subset).

#### **2.4.2 Swain's output hypothesis**

Swain's (1985, 1995) Output Hypothesis challenges the traditional assumption that input is the only necessary requirement for second language acquisition, and that output is only the end product of second language acquisition that does not have any significant function in language acquisition processes (e.g., Krashen, 1985). From her research experience in French immersion contexts, Swain found that, despite years of exposure to sufficiently rich comprehensible input in communicative classrooms, students lacked grammatical accuracy in terms of morphology and syntax (Harley & Swain, 1984; Lightbown & Spada, 1990, 1994). She therefore argued that comprehensible input alone is not enough for learners to produce grammatical and error-free utterances. Furthermore, one of the most important reasons for promoting output as a means to improve second language learning is that when learners experience communication difficulties, they need to be pushed into making their output more exact and appropriate.

In general, the importance of output in learning may be construed in terms of the cognitive processes triggered by output and learners' active engagement in these processes. As Gass, Mackey, and Pica (1998) pointed out, it is the necessity for learners to engage in

syntactic processing to strive towards comprehensibility rather than comprehension of interlocutor input that may play a crucial role in the acquisition process. It is also claimed that producing the target language may serve as "the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning" (Swain, 1985, p. 249). Furthermore, Swain regards considerable importance to corrective feedback, in effect associating the insufficient for feedback as well as the inadequacy of pushed output with students' poor performance in grammatical accuracy in immersion classrooms.

Since the Output Hypothesis was first proposed, Swain has refined her hypothesis and specified the following four functions of output (Swain 1993, 1995, 1998). First, output has a fluency function which provides learners with opportunities for developing speedy access to their existing second language knowledge in the actual use of grammar in meaningful contexts. Second, output has a hypothesis-testing function. In the process of producing output, learners are able to form and test their hypotheses about the comprehensibility and linguistic accuracy of their utterances in response to feedback obtained from their interlocutors. Third, output has a metalinguistic function. It is claimed that "as learners reflect upon their own target language use, their output serves a metalinguistic function, enabling them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge" (Swain 1995, p.126). In other words, output processes enable learners to reflect upon their use of the target language and make stronger their linguistic knowledge about the grammatical features of which they already have declarative knowledge. Reflection on language may enhance their awareness of forms, rules, and form-function mapping in a meaningful context. Finally, output serves as a noticing function. Namely, in producing the target language, "learners may notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognize what they do not know, or know only

partially" (Swain, 1995, pp.125-126). The recognition of problems may then prompt the learners to selectively attend to the relevant information in the input, which will trigger their interlanguage development.

In summary, Swain's Output Hypothesis claims that output can, under certain conditions, promote language acquisition by allowing learners to invite feedback from interlocutors and teachers which informs them of the comprehensibility and well-formedness of their interlanguage utterances, also allowing them to move beyond semantic processing to syntactic processing. It is this syntactic processing that is believed to be an important element in the underlying second language acquisition mechanism.

### **2.4.3. Schmidt's noticing hypothesis**

Drawing on data from the study by Schmidt and Frota (1986), Schmidt found that neither of the aforementioned two accounts could explain his own experience in learning Portuguese. Journal notes indicated that the forms he actually used were those he noticed people saying to him. Also, he found that a particular verb form that had been taught did not guarantee that it would appear in his output. Presence and frequency of input did not account for what was actually learned. Furthermore, he found that only the linguistic forms that he noticed were incorporated into subsequent language output. Schmidt (1990) maintains that this study provides strong evidence for a close connection between noticing and emergence in production. This claim developed into one of the most influential theories in the second language acquisition field—the Noticing Hypothesis.

In Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, two important constructs in cognitive psychology were raised. Attention and awareness are thought of as accounting for the creation of new

knowledge and/or the modification (restructuring) of existing knowledge. Attention and awareness are related, but not synonymous, constructs that subsume various concepts.

Schmidt (1995) points out that it is difficult to distinguish between attention and awareness. Attention is a limited-capacity system that is sometimes associated with the differentiation between controlled and automatic activities. Tomlin and Villa (1994) divide attention into three components: detection (the cognitive registration of stimuli), alertness (general readiness to deal with incoming stimuli), and orientation (the direction of attentional resources to specific stimuli). They argue that detection is necessary for learning because "detection is the process by which particular exemplars are registered in memory and therefore could be made accessible to whatever the key processes are for learning" (pp. 192-193). However, they believe that awareness may enhance alertness and orientation, yet detection does not necessarily imply awareness (Tomlin & Villa, 1994, p.198). It then follows that learning can take place without awareness but not without detection.

In contrast, Schmidt (1990, 1995) and Robinson (1995, 2003) argue for a critical role of awareness in learning. Robinson defines noticing as "detection with awareness and rehearsal in short memory" (1995, p.318) and distinguishes noticing from detection that is not accompanied by awareness. According to Robinson (1995), noticing the form of input is the result of attentional allocation leading to detection and rehearsal in short-term memory (STM), which is a necessary stage in SLA. Furthermore, what is noticed may be subsequently transferred to long-term memory (LTM). Noticing, therefore, plays an important role in illustrating the relationship between attention and memory.

Awareness is a subjective experience and commonly equated with consciousness (Schmidt, 1990). In his early work, Schmidt strongly opposes any unconscious learning, rejecting a dissociation of awareness and learning. It is posited that learners must consciously

notice input in order for it to become intake. Schmidt differentiates two levels of awareness: awareness at the level of noticing (e.g. simply being aware of linguistic forms in the input) and awareness at the level of understanding (e.g. understanding the underlying rules of the linguistic form). It is awareness at the level of noticing that Schmidt claims is crucial for language learning, whereas awareness at the level of understanding is facilitative but not necessary for second language acquisition.

## **2.5. Feedback and its functions in second language acquisition**

Feedback, as a reactive form of form-focused-instruction (Lightbown, 2001), has been claimed to be effective in promoting noticing, and thus conducive to second language learning (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Philp, 2003; Sheen, 2007; Trofimovich, Ammar, & Gatbonton, 2007). However, it has also undergone a substantial amount of discussion over the past three decades regarding its explicitness and/or implicitness, its effectiveness on second language acquisition, the type of evidence it provides, and more importantly, the learning mechanism it triggers (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Lyster, 2004b; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2007 ). The detailed discussion of the term feedback begins with a look at its classification.

### **2.5.1. Feedback classification**

Researchers in second language acquisition tend to differentiate feedback in terms of how explicit or implicit it is. In the case of implicit feedback, there is no clear indication that an error has been committed or where the error is, whereas in explicit feedback types, there is such an indication (Ellis et al., 2006). Implicit types of feedback often take the form of recasts, defined by Long (2007) as:

a reformulation of all or part of a learners immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning not language as an object. (p. 2)

However, this dichotomous classification of feedback can be problematic. Research shows that depending on contexts (cf. Sheen, 2004) as well as characteristics of recasts (such as linguistic targets, length, and number of changes), recasts can also be quite explicit, for example, by adding intonation and stress (Egi, 2007a).

Explicit types of feedback can also take a variety of forms according to different scholars. Ellis et al. (2006) claim that explicit feedback takes the form of either explicit correction, in which the response clearly indicates that the learner produced an erroneous utterance, or metalinguistic feedback, defined as "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.47). Others have operationalized explicit feedback in various ways. For example, Carroll (2001) and DeKeyser (1993) distinguished between explicit feedback that involved some specification of the nature of the error and explicit feedback that provides more detailed metalinguistic knowledge (also see Sheen, 2007).

Lyster (2002) questioned the reliability of comparing the effects of feedback in accordance with degrees of explicitness, based on his observation that it is self-repair which results from the illocutionary force of prompts rather than from their explicitness that contributes to second language development. He distinguishes recasts from prompts, which consist of clarification requests, repetitions, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation of the correct form. He draws such a distinction based on the idea that, while recasts provide learners with



the target forms, prompts may engage learners in a deeper level of processing because they require the learner to retrieve the target form themselves. This view of categorizing different types of feedback is further illustrated in the following section.

### **2.5.2. Types of evidence that feedback provides**

While the explicitness of recasts and prompts is still the subject of heated debate (Ellis & Sheen, 2006), the theoretical argument on the type of evidence that different feedback techniques provide leads us to alternative approaches to differentiating feedback types.

As Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001) maintain, it is not difficult to understand that recasts afford learners with positive evidence, but whether they also provide negative evidence, as originally proposed by Long and Robinson (1998), is less clear. Other researchers (cf. Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Egi, 2007a) believe that whether recasts provide positive evidence, negative evidence or both, largely depends on learners' perceptions of them which in turn affect the effectiveness of recasts on language acquisition. If learners are consciously aware that they are being corrected, then they may perceive recasts as providing negative evidence, which may trigger the cognitive comparison between learners' interlanguage and the target language. If, on the other hand, in the meaningful interaction in which recasts occur, learners interpret recasts as a conversational reply confirming the content of the utterance rather than form, then recasts may simply serve as positive evidence (i.e., as examples of what is acceptable in the target language). The latter interpretation is highly likely in meaning-oriented classroom contexts (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Therefore, it is posited here that, depending on the context in which recasts are provided, they can provide positive evidence alone or positive and negative evidence concomitantly. In the latter case, it

follows that recasts take on a corrective characteristic whereas the former type of recasts provide positive exemplars only.

In the same vein, prompts, including repetition, clarification request, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation may also range from implicit to explicit depending on the discourse context. For example, Lyster (2002) argues that form-focused negotiations may appear relatively implicit if teachers in immersion classrooms feign incomprehension and provide simple prompts such as clarification requests. Therefore, he suggests that a more reliable way of differentiating feedback types would be in terms of whether or not they provide the correct reformulation because this would allow us to compare the effects of different retrieval processes.

As positive evidence in classroom input, recasts may help learners with establishing knowledge of new exemplars. Recasts elicit a relatively small number of modifications of students' ill-formed utterances and the uptake elicited may be only mechanical repetition of the correct form. Prompts, in contrast, clearly provide negative evidence to the learner since they signal that the learners' utterance is problematic as "a teacher provides cues for learners to draw on their own resources to self-repair" (Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 272). The self-repair process is claimed to help learners re-analyze what they have already learned at some level and restructure their interlanguage (Lyster, 2002). According to de Bot (1996), learners benefit more from being pushed to "make the right connection on one's own" than from hearing the correct grammatical structures in the input (p. 549). Furthermore, prompts may help learners gain greater control over already-acquired forms and access them in faster ways. The discussion on the classification and relative efficacy of different feedback types reflects researchers' diverse perspectives on how language learning takes place, and therefore would be better understood within a theoretical framework of second language learning mechanisms.

## **2.7. Theoretical framework on the relative efficiency of feedback**

The debate concerning the efficacy of different feedback types has highlighted an underlying issue - that of the exact nature of the learning mechanisms involved in second language acquisition. Does explicit knowledge lead to better SLA than does implicit knowledge? Researchers have attempted to answer this question with both empirical studies as well as theoretical discussion. A detailed review of the various empirical studies conducted is provided in the following chapter. In this section the theoretical framework of SLA is discussed.

There are two other issues implied in the debate about the type of evidence that feedback provides, issues which involve the precise role and relative efficacy of evidence in the actual mechanisms and successful achievement of second language acquisition, respectively. With respect to feedback, the questions that remain to be answered are: a) do prompts contribute to the development of learners' implicit knowledge or do they enhance metalinguistic awareness (explicit knowledge) only; and b) if both types of feedback techniques can contribute to the development of implicit knowledge, is one type more effective than the other?

Empirical research aiming to compare the relative effectiveness of these two types of feedback have shown that the explicit type overall proves to be more effective in assisting the learning of certain grammatical structures (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis et al., 2006; Lyster, 2004b). However, other studies in experimental and classroom settings have also shown that recasts had positive effects on learning as well (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Long, Inagaki & Ortega, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998). Partly due to methodological discrepancies, studies on

the effect of feedback yielded mixed results pertaining to the relative effect of the two types of feedback, yet they reflect the diverse theoretical frameworks upon which different scholars draw.

### **2.6.1. The distinct functions of recasts and prompts**

If Skehan's Dual-Mode Hypothesis is tenable and if rule-based and item-based structures co-exist in the language system and involve various learning procedures, it follows, then, that Focus-on-Form activities that aim at distinct areas may serve different functions in second language learning. For example, DeKeyser (1995) found in his study that subjects learned simple abstract morphosyntactic rules in a miniature linguistics system significantly better under explicit learning conditions than under implicit conditions, but they learned similarity patterns better in the implicit inductive conditions than in the explicit-deductive conditions. Robinson and Ha (1993) also suggest that both structural complexity and developmental readiness may determine whether the learner relies on item-retrieval or rule-searching in their second language learning process.

In terms of the efficacy of different types of feedback on second language learning, Lyster and Mori (2006) maintain, "Prompts and recasts can be seen as complementary moves with different purposes for different learners in different discourse contexts" (p.273). They further hypothesize that recasts may provide exemplars of positive evidence and thus may be the right candidate for facilitating the encoding of new target representations when they occur in appropriate contexts, while prompts, because of their function as overt signals to elicit modified output without providing any positive evidence, may serve to enhance control over already acquired items by accelerating the transition of declarative to procedural knowledge (de Bot, 1996; Lyster, 2004b).

Although this hypothesis has theoretical foundations, it has yet to be empirically examined. The controversial issue of whether recasts can be an effective technique that offers negative evidence, and which type of feedback is more effective in assisting the learning of which types of grammatical features remain to be explored. Empirical data so far have either provided descriptive observations in the classroom where the effectiveness of recasts was measured by immediate student response only (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004), or in experimental conditions where recasts appear to provide useful input in second language development (e.g. Long et al., 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998).

The few classroom studies that actually compared recasts with prompts and that are comparable in methodology to some extent (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis et al., 2006; Ellis, 2007; Lyster, 2004b) have shown an overall positive effect for prompts over recasts in facilitating second language development. Interestingly, most of these studies used language features that have been described by DeKeyser (1998) as rules that are abstract in nature — possessive determiners in English (*his/her*) in Ammar and Spada (2006), regular past tense (*-ed*) in Ellis et al. (2006), and regular past tense (*-ed*) and comparatives (*-er*) in Ellis (2007). It is perhaps because of the more abstract nature of the target language structures that the prompts were found in these studies to be more effective than recasts.

A target feature that is more difficult to categorize as unequivocally rule-driven, and therefore more difficult to associate with the appropriate feedback type, is grammatical gender in French. Contrary to many French grammarians and teachers who claim that gender attribution is arbitrary and unsystematic, Lyster (2004b) argues that grammatical gender is largely rule-governed, but that the rules derive from similarity patterns based on word-internal properties (p. 408). The difficulty in categorizing grammatical gender as rule-based or

exemplar-based highlights the difficulty in assigning the appropriate feedback type to the appropriate target language feature. Sheen (2007) notes in her study that, "Research has demonstrated that the noticing of the corrected feature in recasts depends largely on the linguistic feature that is being targeted" (p.319.). Ellis (2007) also argues that the effects of feedback would vary according to the structure being targeted and called for research that investigates how linguistic factors determine which different types of feedback will work for acquisition.

Based on a limited number of studies that compared recasts with prompts on a limited number of linguistic structures, it is speculated that most of the features that were tested in the studies favor prompts because they are rule-based; as a result, practice and prompts may assist learners to gain better control over or have faster access to these features. Contextual factors may also explain the overall positive effect of prompts, because most of these studies were carried out in either content-based or communicative ESL classes where meaning was the primary focus in the classroom. The question that needs empirical investigation is whether prompts would also work well when it comes to the learning of exemplar-based language features by EFL learners. In other words, can both types of feedback be effective in such a context, differing only in terms of the type of language structures they cater for? The answer to this question can contribute to larger theoretical issues regarding implicit and explicit learning, negative and positive evidence, and the cognitive model upon which feedback studies build.

## **2.7. General effect of feedback in SLA**

A plethora of empirical studies in second language research have well documented the role of corrective feedback in second language acquisition. My review of these empirical studies begins with studies that demonstrate the general effect of feedback, followed by observational studies describing patterns of feedback and uptake in different contexts, then proceeds with the discussion of the effect of recasts in relation to other feedback types, drawing on results from a series of experimental and quasi-experimental studies.

Many studies and meta-analysis on corrective feedback have reported the overall beneficial effects of corrective feedback on second language acquisition (Tomesello & Herron, 1988, 1989; Mackey, 2006; Russell and Spada, 2006).

In two classroom studies, Tomesello and Herron (1988, 1989) investigated the effects of feedback provided during teacher-led drills using the Garden Path technique<sup>2</sup>. They found that when teacher feedback enabled learners to engage in cognitive comparison between their own erroneous utterance and the target grammatical structure, the students learned better than in situations in which they simply received a series of correct exemplars of the new structure. Furthermore, their results could be applied to both L1 transfer errors and L2 overgeneralization errors.

Researchers have claimed that interactional feedback promotes L2 learning because it prompts learners' noticing of L2 forms. In order to empirically examine this issue, Mackey (2006) explored relationships between feedback, noticing, and subsequent L2 development. The target features were questions, plurals, and past tense forms.

Twenty-eight high-intermediate level adult ESL learners at a university intensive English program participated in the study. There were 15 students in the experimental group and 13 in the control group. All learners participated in three 50 minute game show activities.

The experimental group and the control group received the same input and had the same opportunity to report noticing, but the control group seldom received interactional feedback. Learners' noticing was assessed through on-line learning journals, in which they made introspective comments while viewing classroom videotapes and questionnaire responses. Through a controlled pre- and post-test design, analyses of L2 development and noticing were carried out for each individual learner. Results showed that there was a positive relationship between noticing and interactional feedback. There was also a positive relationship between reports of noticing and development of one of the target forms (question forms).

More evidence about the beneficial role of feedback in promoting noticing and second language development can be found in studies that used a retrospective recall method (Kim & Han, 2007; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Mackey, Philp, Egi, Fuji, & Tatsumi, 2002), cued immediate recall (Philp, 2003), "on-line visually cued discrimination accuracy" (Trofimovich, Ammar, & Gatbonton, 2007), and a combination of a retrospective recall method and post-test scores (Egi, 2007b).

Russell and Spada (2006) synthesized recent findings obtained from both descriptive and experimental studies on oral and in written feedback, and concluded that corrective feedback is effective both in learners' oral and in written performance in general. Moreover, they found that the effect of corrective feedback is large and durable. This meta-analysis provides empirical evidence against Truscott's (1999) and Krashen's (1994) argument that error correction is ineffective and even detrimental to second language development. Another more recent meta-analysis by Mackey and Goo (2007) reveals that interactional feedback<sup>3</sup> is one of the key beneficial features of interaction as measured by the short-term post-test



scores, but not by delayed post-test scores. While empirical studies have demonstrated an overall effect of feedback, there is still much to understand about the relative efficacy of different types of feedback.

## **2.8. Empirical studies on the relative efficacy of feedback**

If feedback is, in fact, facilitative in second language acquisition, the next question we seek to answer is whether certain types of feedback work better than others. Earlier work on corrective feedback, including Chaudron's study (1977) in French immersion classrooms, have already shown that not all feedback is noticed and incorporated by learners in the classroom. A challenge in determining which types of feedback are noticed is to devise a way of measuring the effectiveness of feedback. The descriptive studies reviewed in this section employed a number of measures on the efficacy of feedback including uptake and repair rate, conversational analysis, and private speech.

### **2.8.1. Descriptive studies on feedback**

In their seminal work, Lyster and Ranta (1997) conducted an observational study of corrective feedback and learner uptake in four French immersion classrooms at the primary level. In their study, six types of feedback techniques were first identified and a model was developed to analyze transcripts of a total of 18.3 hours of classroom interaction taken from both subject-matter and French language arts lessons. Results include the distribution and frequency of the six different feedback types in addition to the distribution of different types of learner response following each feedback type. The findings indicate that teachers in

French immersion classrooms tended to use recasts most of the time. In fact, recasts were used in over half of the total number of teacher corrective feedback turns (55%). However, they claim that recasts are the least effective in terms of eliciting learner repair in these French immersion classrooms. Four other types of feedback (elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and repetition) led to a greater number of student-generated repair moves. Based on this result, they hypothesize that the four latter types of feedback (i.e., negotiation of form) may engage learners more actively in a deeper level of processing by letting them retrieve the correct form themselves; recasts and explicit correction, whereas the former simply provide the correct form to them.

In his following articles, Lyster (1998a, 1998b) explains the differential effects of recasts and negotiation of form (which he later termed as "prompts") on eliciting immediate repair. In a further analysis of his data, he found that three quarters of teachers' recasts following ill-formed learner utterances were used in a similar way as non-corrective repetition after well-formed learner utterances. In the French immersion context, these identical functions of recasts and repetition may "override any corrective function that might have motivated the reformulations entailed in recasts" (Lyster, 1998b, p. 188). The corrective potential of recasts may be further reduced by various signs of approval that teachers provide to confirm meaning. As a result, learners in such a context may perceive recasts as negotiation of meaning instead of negotiation of form. In other words, recasts may offer positive evidence in the same way as non-corrective repetition, but they may not be perceived by the students to offer negative evidence as many other researchers have claimed (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996).

In Canadian communicative ESL classrooms, Panova and Lyster (2002) found similar patterns of corrective feedback and learner uptake. A lower rate of uptake and repair followed

recasts and a substantially higher rate followed negotiation of form. In contrast, Ellis, Basturkman and Loewen (2001) reported a higher level of learner uptake after the provision of recasts in their study when compared with the immersion and Canadian ESL contexts. Their data came from the observation of adult ESL communicative classrooms with a combination of form-focused instruction and meaning-focused activities in New Zealand.

Both the Panova and Lyster (2002) and the Ellis et al. (2001) observational studies used the same coding scheme of corrective feedback and uptake yet yielded different patterns of uptake and repair in relation to different types of feedback. The question that arises is: what factors may influence the rate of uptake and repair following different types of corrective feedback? A comparative study of these studies conducted in different instructional contexts may provide possible answers to this question.

#### **2.8.1.1. The issue of context in descriptive feedback studies**

Sheen (2004) reviewed descriptive classroom feedback studies in four different contexts (ESL in New Zealand, ESL in Canada, French Immersion in Canada, EFL in Korea). She found that in more meaning or content oriented contexts, such as ESL in Canada (Panova & Lyster, 2002) and French immersion (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), recasts were less likely to be followed by repair and uptake than prompts, whereas in more form-oriented contexts, such as ESL in New Zealand (Ellis, Basturkman, & Loewen, 2001), or EFL in Korea (Sheen, 2004), recasts were equally effective at inviting uptake and repair. Suzuki (2004) confirmed Sheen's (2004) conclusion by investigating corrective feedback in a typical U.S. ESL context where people of many language backgrounds and nationalities were present in the same class. In her study, the uptake rate following recasts was much higher than Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study.

Nicholas et al. (2001) investigated the relationship between recasts and instructional settings and concluded that:

Taken together, the results of the classroom studies indicate that the context (particularly the communicative and/or content-based classroom) may make it difficult for learners to identify recasts as feedback on form and hence difficult for them to benefit from the reformulation that recasts offer. The exception may be some foreign language classrooms in which students' and teachers' focus is more consistently on the language itself. (p.744)

Lyster and Mori (2006) compared teacher-student interaction in two different instructional settings at the elementary school level (18.3 hours in French immersion and 14.8 hours in Japanese immersion in the U.S.). In their study, the immediate effects of explicit correction, recasts, and prompts (namely, rate of uptake following feedback) were investigated. The results showed a higher rate of student uptake and repair following recasts in Japanese immersion settings, whereas a larger proportion of repair resulting from prompts was revealed in French immersion settings. Using the Communicative Orientation to Language Teaching coding scheme (COLT), (Spada & Frohlich, 1995), Lyster and Mori identified Japanese immersion as characterized by an analytic orientation, which may have primed learners' attention to form.

These results lend support to the argument that the saliency and efficacy of feedback may vary across different instructional settings, highlighting the importance of distinguishing implicit and explicit feedback based on the discourse context (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). Research into the patterns and effects of corrective feedback in foreign language context in comparison

with communicative or content-based second language classrooms may provide empirical evidence for this argument.

#### **2.8.1.2. Descriptive Feedback Studies in Foreign Language contexts**

Despite some common characteristics in foreign language contexts, the way in which teachers in foreign language classrooms organize corrective feedback techniques as well as their pedagogical focus, may vary to a large extent. So far there have been only a few studies of feedback and learner uptake conducted in foreign language contexts, yet the mixed results of these studies render it difficult to draw a conclusion as to the effect of different types of feedback on learning a foreign language. This difficulty is largely due to the fact that these studies lack uniformity in design, both in the use of terminology and in providing a detailed description of the classroom context. My review of the following feedback studies, therefore, is based on the results of each individual study, with a discussion on the general trend at the end. The review begins with a look at how foreign language classrooms are different from each other.

Some foreign language classrooms can be described as "analytic" while others may be characterized by "experiential teaching strategies" (Stern, 1990, 1992). The key differences between the two lie in the fact that the former strategy treats language as the subject of study and focuses on accuracy and error-free utterances, whereas the latter "focuses on content (subject matter, themes and topics of interest) rather than language *per se*", and therefore emphasizes fluency and meaning (Fazio & Lyster, 1998, p. 304), which resembles immersion or communicative ESL classrooms.

In order to study analytic language classrooms, Seedhouse (1997, 2004) adopted a Conversation Analysis methodology in analyzing classroom interaction excerpts and indicates that certain features of organization of repair are particular to this context. One such feature is that even when the learners produce utterances that are linguistically correct and appropriate, teachers might still repair them until the desired utterances are produced. Another very unusual phenomenon is that when a learner has failed to produce the targeted string of linguistic items, the teacher invites other learners to repair the learners' error, which is termed as "other-initiated other repair" (Seedhouse, 2004, p.147). Such kind of repair enables learners to focus on linguistic accuracy of the utterances without necessarily expressing their personal ideas and messages. In the meantime, this kind of repair also allows the students to become accustomed to the idea of peer-correction. Arguably, they will be able to help each other without hurting each other's feelings in the future (Seedhouse, 2004).

This kind of correction may also prime learners to develop a bias towards language form; therefore, a higher rate of uptake following a recast is expected in this kind of context. In Lyster and Mori's (2006) comparative study, although Japanese immersion students are instructed in an overall content-based, communicative curriculum, some analytic teaching strategies were detected by the COLT scheme. Namely, these strategies were the use of choral repetition and an emphasis on speaking as skill practice in isolation through repetition and reading aloud. These analytic practices partially explained the larger proportion of uptake and repair following recasts (72% and 50%, respectively) in Japanese immersion than in French immersion (32% and 19%, respectively).

Similar findings were reported by Sheen (2004) in her observational study conducted in an Korean English as a foreign language context. In what she called "free talking" adult communicative classrooms, the uptake rate following recasts was 83%, a finding much higher

than Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study in immersion contexts (31%). The repair rate of total uptake is also higher in Korean EFL contexts (70%) than in immersion contexts (57%). Sheen explained her findings in terms of the educational purpose and formal instruction which enabled learners to attend to the teachers' feedback and thereby notice the gap between their erroneous utterances and the teachers' correct form. Recasts in such contexts were more salient since they were often provided for a single linguistic error, which may also facilitate the opportunity for uptake after recasts, and thus explains the high uptake and repair rate.

The results of Sheen's study can be supported by another observational study in a foreign language context. In a German as a foreign language secondary school in Belgium, Lochtman (2002) conducted a descriptive study of corrective feedback. Tape-recordings of 12 lessons totaling 600 minutes were analyzed using Lyster and Ranta's (1997) coding scheme. Interestingly, results in this study reveal that the majority (55.8%) of feedback types are prompts, which is different from previous studies in EFL and ESL contexts (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004), where recasts are the predominant type of feedback. Furthermore, this study also reveals that recasts and explicit corrections elicit less but nonetheless successful uptake, whereas prompts result in more but less accurate uptake. The author found that "recasts in analytic FLT highly resemble explicit corrections and therefore appear to be fairly salient" (p. 276). In such a context where the focus of analytic teaching was on form, recasts not embedded in meaningful interaction elicited a higher uptake and repair rate (47.5% and 35%, respectively) than those in immersion contexts (31% and 18%, respectively).

Using a different research method, Ohta (2000) investigated the reaction to recasts by adult foreign language learners of Japanese. The focus of the study was on students' noticing of recasts directed to any member in the classroom. It was detected that students were able to

respond to teachers' recasts in their "private speech"<sup>4</sup>. Furthermore, learners were more likely to react in private speech when it was directed at another learner or to the class as a whole, rather than when it was directed towards their own error. The results may have been influenced by several factors, however. As Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001) point out: first, the classroom had a strong focus on form, thus, the students were oriented to accuracy and language form rather than subject matter and other topics; second, the presence of individual microphones may make the students more aware of their language behavior. Finally, not all students wearing microphones were responding to recasts, which indicated that students' readiness of noticing and responding to feedback may vary even in the same classroom.

Overall, the studies of feedback in foreign language contexts present results that are more or less consistent in the following aspects: first of all, students in these contexts were able to react to feedback, irrespective of the feedback types, as measured either by uptake and repair (e.g. Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006) or private speech (Ohta, 2000). Second, it is likely that in form-oriented<sup>5</sup> foreign language contexts where students and teachers were mostly focusing on language form and accuracy, the corrective purpose of all feedback techniques seems more transparent. Furthermore, given that in foreign language settings, discourse tends to be repetitive and limited in the language used (Guthrie, 1984), short recasts with just one or two changes which are not embedded in meaningful interactions might be more easily recalled by learners (Philp, 2003) than recasts with multiple corrections combined with signals that confirm meaning.



Although descriptive classroom research on feedback provide an interesting yet complicated picture of patterns of feedback and uptake, many researchers (Mackey & Philp, 1998; McDonough, 2007; Philp, 2003) question whether there is a direct relationship between feedback and uptake, on the one hand, and between uptake and interlanguage development, on the other. For example, Mackey and Philp (1998) argue that uptake does not necessarily associate with interlanguage development and a lack of uptake or repair does not necessarily imply that learning is not taking place. As a result, experimental and quasi-experimental studies that employed a more rigorous pre-test, post-test design may provide more convincing evidence regarding these issues.

### **2.8.2. Experimental and quasi-experimental studies on recasts and prompts**

Lopment (Mackey & Philp, 1998; MacDonough, 2007). A review of experimental and quasi-experimental studies that directly measure the effect of learning through post-test scores may promote further understanding of the differential effects for recasts and prSome observational studies (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) have shown that in communicative or immersion contexts, recasts and prompts may have differential effects on eliciting immediate uptake and repair, which arguably indicate that these two types of feedback may have distinct functions in second language learning. However, the question still remains whether uptake is an indicator of noticing and a predictor for interlanguage develops. Motivated by both theoretical (i.e. the contributions of positive and negative evidence to L2 acquisition) and practical issues (i.e., what kind of form-focused instruction to recommend to teachers) (Ellis & Sheen, 2006), the effectiveness of recasts compared with other types of feedback has especially drawn researchers' attention during the past few years. The distinction

referred to hereafter draws on Lyster's (2004) classification of feedback; namely, *recasts* versus *prompts*. While the former type of feedback reformulates learners' erroneous utterances by providing the correct form, the latter provides various cues for learners to retrieve the target form themselves. As argued by Lyster (2004), although these four types of prompting moves (i.e. clarification request, repetitions, metalinguistic clues and elicitation) represent a wide range of feedback types, they all have one feature in common: they withhold correct forms and offer learners the opportunity to modify their output themselves, whereas recasts provide learners with a covert reformulation. This implies that the two types of feedback moves may have distinctive functions in the acquisitional process: recasts provide positive evidence and exemplars to enhance connection in memory whereas prompts offer negative evidence that triggers retrieval from long term memory and restructuring of the interlanguage form. Before such a claim can be made, however, it is necessary to explore whether recasts are effective in second language learning. This is perhaps one of the most controversial issues in the feedback literature over the past few years (Ammar & Spada, 2006).

#### **2.8.2.1. Classroom studies.**

Lyster's (2004b) study investigated the effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on immersion students' acquisition of grammatical gender in French. Eight classes of 179 fifth-grade students participated in this study. Form-focused instructional treatments designed to draw learners' attention to selected noun endings that predict grammatical gender were implemented in the regular subject-matter instruction. During the 5-week instructional period, the three feedback groups also received different feedback treatment (ie., recasts, prompts, or

no feedback), while the control group continued their normal classroom instruction. Based on the results of pre-tests, post-tests and delayed-post tests, each of which included two oral measures (object identification and picture description) and two written measures (binary choice and text-completion), Lyster found that form-focused instruction was more effective when combined with prompts than with recasts. Also, overall, form-focused instruction with feedback was better than no feedback as a means of enabling learners to acquire French grammatical gender. Ammar and Spada's (2006) quasi-experimental study investigated the potential benefits of recasts and prompts on the acquisition of a different structure: possessive determiners for French speakers in ESL contexts. Sixty-four students in three intact grade 6 intensive ESL classes were assigned to the recast group, prompt group and the control group. The treatment period was spread over a period of 4 weeks. Results revealed that all three groups benefited from the treatment, but the feedback groups showed superior performance than the control group. Furthermore, while the group receiving prompts significantly outperformed the recast group on written and oral post-tests, the effect of recasts depended on learners' proficiency levels. In particular, high-proficiency learners benefited equally from both prompts and recasts, whereas low-proficiency learners benefited more from prompts than from recasts.

Havranek (2002) carried out a quasi-experimental study on the relative effect of feedback on second language development in an Austrian EFL context. The study showed that the effects of various kinds of corrective feedback on second language development vary to a large extent. In this study, data were collected from 207 learners at six different age and proficiency levels, ranging from 10-year-old beginners to mature university students

specializing in English. Using a tailor-made post-test design, the author presented results confirming that corrective feedback was effective in second language acquisition. Furthermore, findings showed that not only did the learner who initiated and engaged in feedback learn from these instances, but his or her peers (or auditors) who were present in the classroom also profited from feedback, more so when they were making silent responses and comparing their own hypothesis with the target form provided by the teacher. In terms of the effect of different types of feedback, recasts without uptake (which was termed as "repetition" in this study) were the least effective, followed by recasts plus repetition. Elicited self-correction and other types of prompts resulted in significant improvement in the students' test scores.

As noted by Havranek (2002), there are certain conditions for the superiority of elicited self-correction (or prompts) over other types of corrective feedback: first, the learner's attention has to be drawn to the structure to be learned; second, the learner has to be actively involved in the interaction and must voluntarily make an effort to correct; and last, but not least, the learner must be developmentally ready for the structure to be corrected. This is also true for auditors who benefit from corrective feedback. Auditors have some advantages in incorporating feedback into their interlanguage in that they are freed from the high demand of on-line processing of classroom discourse; as a result, if they are ready for the target form, they have time to make the comparison of their own form with the teachers' target form. This could possibly explain why recasts, though less effective, still have an influence on learners' overall second language development of the corrected structure in foreign language classrooms. Similarly, this study also showed that corrective feedback addressed to one learner may have a potential facilitative role in other learners' second language acquisition. The limitation of this study, however, is that there is no pre-test that established baseline data

in comparison with post-test scores, nor was there a control group; therefore, the findings could have been confounded by other factors than feedback alone.

Two recent classroom studies (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Sheen, 2007) compared recasts with metalinguistic feedback. Both studies showed that the metalinguistic group outperformed the recast group on the acquisition of the target feature (two functions of English articles in Sheen, 2007; and English regular past tense in Ellis *et al.*, 2006).

In Ellis *et al.* (2006), the effect of metalinguistic feedback and recasts on the acquisition of regular past tense in English *-ed* was examined. Participants were 34 low-intermediate level ESL students in a private language school in New Zealand. They were in three intact classes, which served as the three groups (the metalinguistic group, the recast group, and the control group). The two treatment groups received instructional treatment (two different half-hour communicative tasks), while the control group continued with their normal instruction. The relative effectiveness of both types of feedback was assessed by means of an oral elicited imitation test, a grammaticality judgment test, and a test of metalinguistic knowledge. Results showed that the explicit feedback (i.e., metalinguistic information) was overall more effective than implicit feedback (i.e., recasts). However, the effect was found mostly in the delayed posttest rather than the immediate posttest.

Sheen (2007) addresses the effect of different types of feedback on the acquisition of English articles and the extent to which individual differences mediate the effectiveness of corrective feedback. The study employed a quasi-experimental design in which 80 students in five intact classes participated. The participants were divided into three groups: the recast group, the metalinguistic group, and the control group. One difference between Ellis *et al.*'s (2006) study and Sheen's study was the operationalization of the metalinguistic feedback. In

Ellis et al.'s study, metalinguistic feedback was similar to Lyster's (2004b) definition of prompts in that the teacher first repeated the error and then supplied the metalinguistic information without providing the target form to the learner; in Sheen's study, however, metalinguistic correction was operationalized as teacher's provision of the correct form following an error together with metalinguistic information. Sheen made this distinction explicitly based on the argument that "the distinction between recasts and prompts is conflated with another important distinction, namely the implicit and explicit distinction" (p. 304). In doing so, she claimed that recasts and metalinguistic feedback in her study were both input-providing (Ellis, 2006), but different in terms of the degree of explicitness and the nature of the input provided in the feedback. Results showed that both in the immediate and delayed post-tests, the metalinguistic group outperformed the recast and the control groups. Recasts, however, did not show any significant positive effects.

The studies reviewed so far have compared recasts with one other type of feedback. The following study went a step further to compare recasts with both an implicit type of feedback that elicits self-repair (i.e. clarification request) and a more explicit type of feedback that elicits self-repair (i.e. metalinguistic feedback). Using a quasi-experimental design, Loewen and Nabei (2007) set out to investigate the following questions: (a) Does corrective feedback on English question formation errors during meaning-focused tasks lead to an increase in learners' performance on three types of tests that measure either implicit knowledge or explicit knowledge? (b) Is there a difference in the effectiveness of the three types of feedback for learners' performance on the three types of tests? Sixty Japanese EFL learners participated in the study. The recast group consisted of 10 students, while 8 students were in the clarification request group, 7 in the metalinguistic feedback group, and 10 in the no feedback

group. The control group was an intact class consisting of 31 students who received no treatment at all.

To answer the first research question regarding the effects of feedback on learners' performance on the three tests, the researchers found that the untimed grammatical judgment test and the oral production test did not show any increase in post-test scores while the timed grammaticality judgment test did. On the timed grammaticality judgment test, all the groups improved in their performance from pre- to post-test including the control group. Nevertheless, the feedback groups improved at a higher rate than the non-feedback groups. This result points to the fact that feedback may have an impact on learners' performance on a test that measures implicit knowledge. However, this effect was not shown in the other test (i.e. oral production test) that was also claimed to measure implicit knowledge. The authors explained this difference in terms of the receptive/productive nature of the tests and concluded that feedback may have an impact on the learners' ability to detect grammaticality of the sentences, yet may not impact their ability to produce them. An alternative explanation, however, might be that it takes a longer time to proceduralize the knowledge that they acquire and to make it accessible during oral production than to make on-line grammaticality judgments.

Another finding from this study that contrasts with previous studies (e.g. Lyster, 2004b; Ellis et al., 2006) is that no significant difference was found among the different feedback groups. Two possible explanations include the brevity of the treatment session (only 30 minutes) and differential amount of feedback provided among different groups (18 instances in the recast and elicitation groups, only 5 in the metalinguistic group) during the treatment session. The results should be interpreted with caution due to the small sample sizes in the

treatment groups and lack of delayed post-test which may show effects of feedback more effectively (Ellis et al., 2006).

#### **2.8.2.2 Lab studies.**

Although classroom quasi-experimental studies generally demonstrated the overall beneficial effects of prompts (or metalinguistic feedback) over recasts, results obtained from laboratory studies are rather mixed. A study in a laboratory context was conducted by McDonough (2005), who investigated whether negative feedback and modified output produced in response to that feedback were significant predictors of development in second language learners' question formation, operationalized as stage development. Sixty Thai university EFL learners carried out a series of communicative tasks with native English speakers in four conditions that provided different feedback and modified output conditions. The "enhanced opportunity group" received repetition of the error with stress and rising intonation plus the opportunity to produce modified output; the "opportunity to modify" group received clarification requests plus opportunity for modified output; the "feedback without opportunity to modify" group only received repetition of the error with stress and rising intonation without the opportunity to modify output; while the "no feedback" group received neither feedback nor any opportunity to modify their output. The development of question formation was measured by an oral test after the treatment sessions.

Although statistical analysis did not show any significant differences between the feedback group and the no feedback group, the logistic regression analysis showed that modified output in response to feedback was the only significant predictor of question development. Furthermore, there were more learners in the "enhanced opportunity to modify"



group that produced more advanced question forms than in the "opportunity to modify" group. And learners in the "no opportunity to modify" group and the "no feedback" group did not produce stage 5 questions at all. This study thus provides empirical evidence for the output hypothesis and points to the importance of feedback and modified output in ESL question development.

Situated in the line of research that compares recasts with other types of feedback in lab contexts, McDonough (2007) carried out another empirical study that investigated the developmental outcomes associated with two types of interactional feedback, namely prompts and recasts. Different from the two studies mentioned earlier (Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2007), this study did not compare recasts with a more explicit type of feedback such as metalinguistic feedback; instead, it compared recasts with clarification requests, which arguably also belong to the implicit type of feedback, yet differ from recasts in that they elicit responses more effectively. The study took place in a Thai EFL context and employed 74 participants. The participants carried out a series of communicative activities with native speakers within one week. Length of the treatment sessions, however, was not reported. Before and after the treatment sessions, they also participated in a pre-test and three post-tests measuring oral production tests. The measure of development in the study was operationalized as the emergence of new simple past activity verbs in all the three post-tests combined.

The results suggest that both clarification requests and recasts facilitated the emergence of simple past activity verbs. In addition, the findings revealed no advantage for clarification requests over recasts. Based on the analysis of audio-recordings of the treatment and testing sessions, McDonough (2007) also points out that clarification requests are more effective in eliciting learners' responses than recasts, which confirmed previous findings. In the

meantime, it was argued that lack of response after recasts may not necessarily indicate that learning did not take place. Although no significant differences were found between clarification requests and recasts on the development of simple past activity verbs, *post hoc* analysis did indicate that clarification requests facilitated the emergence of progressive activity verbs more than recasts. No significant difference between the recast group and the control group was found, however.

Notwithstanding its partially contradictory results from previous studies that showed differential effects between recasts and prompts (e.g. Lyster, 2004b; Ammar & Spada, 2006), one needs to bear in mind at least two factors that may have confounded the results of McDonough's (2007) study. The first one is that although the study was carried out in a school setting, the treatment sessions were conducted as one-to-one interaction. In such a context, the dyadic nature of the interaction excludes the possibility that recasts were interpreted as confirmation of meaning (Nicholas et al., 2001). In other words, recasts were likely to be as explicit and noticeable as other types of feedback, which can explain the fact that there was no significant difference between the recast group and the clarification request group in their development of simple past activity verbs.

The second factor is that development in this study was measured by emergence of new activity verbs, which followed the prediction from the line of research on tense-aspect hypothesis (Andersen & Shirai, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig, 1998, 1999, 2000). However, this way of measurement has rarely been used in the second language literature, as noted by the author herself. More longitudinal observational studies need to be conducted to establish the validity of this type of measurement and the developmental sequences of simple past tense in English.

Another lab study by Lyster and Izquierdo (2010) sets out to investigate the differential effect of prompts and recasts on the acquisition of grammatical gender by adult second

language learners of French. Twenty-five undergraduate students enrolled in an intermediate-level French course participated in the study. All students were exposed to a three hour form-focused instructional treatment on the target feature and each individual student participated in three different oral tasks in a dyadic interaction with a native or near-native speaker of French who provided either prompts or recasts in response to their errors. The study employed two oral production tasks and a computerized reaction-time binary-choice test. No significant differential effects between the recast group and the prompt group were found in this study. Instead, both groups significantly improved accuracy and reaction-time scores over time. It was argued that although no significant differences were found between the groups, these two types of feedback provide different opportunities for second language learning. Specifically, learners receiving prompts benefited from the repeated exposure to negative evidence as well as the opportunity to modify their output whereas recasts provided positive evidence as well as opportunities for learners to infer negative evidence due to the enhanced saliency of recasts in dyadic interactions.

The experimental and quasi-experimental studies reviewed here demonstrate mixed results regarding the relative efficacy of recasts compared with other feedback techniques. It is difficult to come to a firm conclusion regarding the relative efficacy of one type of feedback over the other (Ellis, 2007). What factors, then, may mediate the effect of feedback? Do prompts have an overall more beneficial effect over recasts on all kinds of grammatical structures? Does linguistic structure dictate the type and effectiveness of feedback necessary? These questions are discussed in the following section.

## **2.9. The effect of recasts in second language learning**

Some researchers have found that recasts (or negotiation of meaning) provide learners with implicit negative evidence and thus serve to benefit second language development in laboratory settings. For example, Mackey and Philp (1998) show that providing second language learners with intensive recasts, which focus consistently on one grammatical feature, is more effective for learners than interaction without recasts. In their study, 35 adult ESL learners from beginner and lower intermediate intensive English language classes participated in three sessions of communicative interaction (each lasting from 15 to 25 minutes) with native speakers. The recast groups received intensive recasts of their nontarget-like use of question forms from the interlocutor; the interactor group performed the same tasks but did not receive any form of feedback; and the control group only participated in the pre- and post-tests. Results suggest that learners at higher developmental levels who received recasts showed a greater increase in the correct use of structures than learners who did not receive intensive recasts. It was also found that the presence of modified output after recasts did not seem to be an indicator of development of question formation. Therefore, they questioned whether learners' immediate responses to recasts are a good indicator of their subsequent use of recasts.

In another experimentally controlled condition, Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998) compared the effects of recasts and models on foreign language development of Japanese and Spanish. The treatment involved an information gap communication game. It was expected that the model and recast group would show greater development in the production of target forms than learners who did not receive any feedback. Positive results were found in the Spanish study in which recasts were more effective than models in the acquisition of adverb placement. However, the same effect was not found in Spanish object topicalization or in Japanese locative construction and adjective ordering. Long et al. explained their results in

terms of structure difficulty and individual variations but nonetheless claimed that the results of the two experiments provided support for the facilitative role of negative feedback in second language learning.

The effects of recasts compared with models (or positive evidence) on the development of second language structures are rather unclear (Ishida, 2004). In some of the studies, the recast group performed better than the model groups (e.g. locative construction and adjective order rule in L2 Japanese (Mito, 1993)), but in other studies no significant differences were found in gains score for the recast group compared with the model group (Inagaki & Long, 1999). Ishida explains the mixed findings in terms of methodological discrepancies. She claims that in Inagaki and Long's (1999) study, the students in the model condition also had the output opportunity to repeat the model.

Ishida attributes this output opportunity to enhancing the salience of the positive evidence, which is equivalent to the recasting intervention that juxtaposes the interlanguage form with the corresponding target form. Another important factor that may affect the effectiveness of recasts is learners' prior knowledge of the target structure. Ishida believes that learners should have certain knowledge of the target structure in order to benefit from recasts. This issue has also been discussed by a number of scholars that take developmental readiness into account (e.g. Nicholas et al. 2001). Nicholas et al. commented that "recasts can be effective if the learner has already begun to use a particular linguistic feature" (p.752).

Following this line of thought, Ishida (2004) investigated the effects of intensive recasting in learning the Japanese aspectual form *-te i-(ru)* (a language feature for which learners already demonstrated partial knowledge), using a time-series design. Four college level learners participated in 8 conversational sessions. Overall accuracy increased in

correlation with the number of recasts provided during the treatment sessions and, furthermore, the accuracy rate was retained in delayed post-tests. However, this study only had four participants and apparently no generalization is applicable to the research findings. Also, since there was no control group and the researcher employed a number of other feedback techniques (p.340) during the treatment sessions, it is questionable whether the increase in accuracy is only attributable to recasts.

In another small-scale study, Han (2002) investigated whether recasts would benefit the learning of linguistic forms that are already partially learned or in the process of being proceduralized (i.e., past tense in English). The subjects were eight adult female learners of English divided randomly into two groups (recast and control). They participated in 11 sessions of written/oral narrative tasks with the researcher as the interlocutor over a period of 2 months. The researcher employed a pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test to measure the learners' tense consistency. Quantitative results of mean proportion disparity scores showed that the recast group developed a much higher control over tense consistency than the control group. Qualitative analyses of some learners' written narratives also revealed that recasts heightened the learners' awareness of tense consistency. Due to the small-scale nature of the study precluding the use of inferential statistics, it is difficult to evaluate Han's claim that this study provided "convincing evidence" (p. 565) on the positive effect of recasts on tense consistency.

In all of the aforementioned studies, the one-on-one nature of the interaction in performing those communicative tasks may have drawn learners' attention explicitly to the target feature, which Nicholas et al. (2001) claim to be a major concern in comparing experimental studies on feedback with classroom studies. As they suggest, the positive effects for recasts in the laboratory studies "may be due to the dyadic nature of the laboratory

interactions, which may help learners recognize the interlocutor's feedback as corrective" (p.749). The few target structures which have been intensively recast may be easier for the learners to notice than recasts that were provided after a number of different grammatical features in classroom settings; therefore, the corrective nature of recasts is rather salient for the learners to recognize in laboratory settings.

Doughty and Varela's study (1998) was one of the first studies that investigated the effects of recasts in classroom settings. This study showed that "corrective recasting" preceded by a repetition of the learners' errors and emphasized with prosodic stress, was more effective than no feedback in learning simple and conditional past tenses for ESL learners. The results of this study, however, need to be interpreted with caution (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster & Mori, 2006). The level of explicitness of "corrective recasting" and thus its effectiveness in this study is questionable. The "corrective recasting" in their study consisted of two phases: (1) "repetition to draw attention followed by (2) recasts to provide the contrastive second language forms" (pp.123-124). The operationalization of recasts in this way is in line with Lyster's (1998a) "repetition in combination with recast" (p. 68). In Canadian immersion contexts, uptake following corrective repetition in combination with other feedback types indicate that these combinations are relatively effective at eliciting repair and uptake (Lyster, 1998b). In effect, this type of recast already loses its implicitness as implied in its original definition by Long (1996), since repetition already draws learners' attention to the language form. The recast following repetition is more or less similar to explicit correction in providing positive evidence to the learners. As noted by Ellis and Sheen (2006), this type of didactic recast contains clear signals that make it explicit.

Another classroom study by Muranoi (2000) examined the impact of interaction enhancement on the learning of English articles. The researcher operationalized interaction

enhancement as the teachers' provision of implicit feedback ("request for repetition" and "recasts"), together with debriefing on form or meaning. Ninety-one Japanese EFL learners participated in the study and were divided into three groups (Interaction enhancement plus formal debriefing group, Interaction enhancement plus meaning debriefing group, and Non-enhanced Interaction plus meaning focused debriefing group). The instructional treatment included three 30 minutes sessions of interaction in the target language. The researcher/teacher then provided feedback in response to all errors involving indefinite article and some errors with tense-aspect forms to the treatment groups while the control group received feedback on meaning alone, and only when there was a communication problem. The groups then received debriefing either on form or meaning, depending on their pre-set conditions. Findings revealed that interaction enhancement had positive effects on the learning of English articles; and the group receiving interaction enhancement with debriefing on form outperformed the group receiving interaction enhancement with debriefing on meaning.

Although this study may provide evidence pertaining to the effect of implicit feedback on the acquisition of certain grammatical forms, it is difficult to tease the effect of implicit feedback apart from the effect of formal instruction (or "debriefing" in the author's term). Furthermore, similar to the recast group in Doughty and Varela's (1998) study, the treatment groups in Muranoi's study also received "repetition" together with "recast" as feedback. Therefore, it remains unclear whether it was the repetition or the recast that drew learners' attention to the target structure and contributed to subsequent development. More refined analysis of the effect of recasts without any intervening factors is certainly warranted.



## **2.10. Relative efficacy of recasts in comparison with other feedback types**

The aforementioned experimental and quasi-experimental studies that either focused on recasts only or compared recasts with models or no feedback, irrespective of their methodological discrepancies and differences in terminology, showed some positive effect of recasts on the development of certain grammatical structures by second language learners. Other recent studies that compared the effect of recasts and other types of feedback on second language acquisition yielded mixed findings. Some studies demonstrated the positive effect of prompts over recasts on the learning of certain grammatical features (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Ellis, 2007; Lyster, 2004b); while others did not show any differential effect of recasts and other types of feedback (e.g. Loewen & Nabei, 2007; McDonough, 2007). My review of these studies begins with classroom studies that compared the effects of recasts and other types of feedback, followed by studies carried out in laboratory contexts.

## **2.11. Summery**

This chapter reviewed previous literature relevant to the role of different types of evidence, input and output as well as cognitive theories in second language learning in search of a rationale for feedback as an appropriate focus-on-form technique in second language pedagogy. Specifically addressed was the question of what types of feedback cater to what types of learning.

It was argued that, in terms of linguistic input, both positive and negative evidence may contribute to second language acquisition in significant but perhaps different ways. Positive evidence provides learners with grammatically correct sentences that are processed by the learner to extract useful information (exemplar or abstract rules) for future language

production. Negative evidence in second language literature has also been shown to be highly valuable, at least in certain aspects of second language development.

Different from the Input hypothesis which places the indispensable role of input in second language learning, Swain argues that output is complementary to input in allowing the learner to move from "semantic processing" prevalent in comprehension to more "syntactic processing" necessary for second language development. In the meantime, it was argued that in an interactive environment, feedback provides a tremendous resource for output to perform its four functions and to assist in the restructuring of interlanguage.

Cognitive theorists such as Schmidt believe that attention is a key concept in accounts of the development of L2 fluency (Schmidt, 1992). A number of researchers and theorists have argued that there may be two types of learning (e.g., declarative and procedural, or explicit and implicit, or rule-based and instance-based) that differ in their reliance on awareness, but both depend on attention (Carr & Curran, 1994; Tomlin & Villa, 1994).

Drawing on previous theoretical frameworks in the study of feedback, it was argued that Skehan's (1998) dual mode system hypothesis complements previous models such as the Interaction Hypothesis and Anderson's information processing model. Skehan's model has a solid foundation in the psycholinguistic as well as the second language acquisition literature and is superior in explaining the mental state learners have at their disposal, as well as in illuminating the developmental stages that learner undergo.

Finally, the theoretical discussion led to a pedagogical issue concerning the role of feedback in second language learning, which has drawn the attention of researchers across various fields as well as teachers in real classrooms. Drawing on previous research, it has been argued that there is no clear answer pertaining to which type of feedback is superior to the other in learning grammatical structures. This is because the theoretical stances regarding

learning mechanisms are still under debate, and more fine-tuned empirical research needs to be done before one can reach a conclusion.

However, based on the cognitive model proposed by Skehan (1998), it was hypothesized that recasts and prompts may serve different functions for learning different grammatical structures. Specifically, recasts favor the development of exemplar-based grammatical structures since they provide positive evidence that may lead to the registration of new exemplars or consolidate the partially acquired items, while prompts better facilitate the acquisition of rule-based structures since they require a deeper level of processing through self-repair and therefore provide conditions for faster access to these structures. This hypothesis stems from cognitive theories of second language acquisition and needs to be tested empirically in both laboratory settings and classrooms for validity concerns. The next chapter reviews feedback studies conducted in a variety of settings, with a view to addressing methodological as well as contextual issues in relation to the efficacy of different types of feedback.

This chapter presents a review of previous studies on the effect of feedback in general as well as the relative efficacy of one type of feedback in comparison with other types of feedback. Drawing on the theoretical framework presented in Chapter 1 and results from previous feedback studies summarized in Chapter 2, the research questions and hypothesis of the present study were formulated. The next chapter will describe the research methods employed in the present study to test the research questions and hypotheses outlined in this section.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

# **METHODOLOGY**

### **3.0. Introduction**

This study was carried out at Collezaban private English language institute in Miyandoab, Iran. The institute was served as an appropriate research setting. Despite a substantial amount of research conducted on the role of feedback on second language acquisition in general and the effect of specific types of feedback (such as recasts) on certain grammatical structures, so far there has been a paucity of research that unequivocally shows the beneficial role of one type of feedback over another on the acquisition of one types of grammatical structures at the same time. Thus, the purpose of the present study is to improve the research design of previous feedback studies and further probe this issue by investigating the effect of recasts and prompts on the acquisition of one type of grammatical structure (i.e. past passive tense) in an Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context.

This chapter begins with the design and procedure of the study. And it examines the role of recast and prompt employed on the acquisition of the past passive tense of English.

### **3.1. Target structure**

The target structure used in this study is past passive tense of English. Past passive tense of English is typically introduced in elementary and higher- intermediate textbooks. It is acquired after present progressive, prepositions, plural, past irregular, possessive, articles, past regular and tenses. Research by Pienemann & Johnston (1987) has led them to conclude that the acquisition of grammatical structures will be determined by how different those items are to process psycholinguistically, rather than how simple or complex they are grammatically. However, this grammatical rule is difficult for learners to master.

Moreover, N. Ellis (2006) pointed out that many grammatical meaning- form relationships, particularly those that are notoriously difficult for second language learners like

grammatical particles and inflections such as the past passive tense of English are of low salience in the language stream.

### **3.2. Participants**

Participants were sixty learners of English as a foreign language (male), acquiring English communicatively in private language institute. They are intermediate learners of English language. To make up for the assumed limitation in the previous studies in recasts and prompts research, the same teacher who is instructed to those three groups will teach three classes (recast, prompt, and control group). They are from the same L1 background (Turkish).

Participants were 60 Iranian male EFL learners, aged between 17 and 25 (mean= 20) who had been in an intermediate level of oral proficiency in English. The participants included 60 learners from a private language institute in Miandoab, Iran (collegezabanara English language institute). They passed two immediate last terms with an average of over 85 out of 100. Before participating in the research, the participants had received English education for approximately 3 years. Moreover students has been checked and made some piloting to help the researcher to ensure the homogeneity of the participants. 20 of the participants were assigned in recast group and the second group (20 participants) was in prompt. Likewise, 20 out of the 60 participants were in control group. One of experienced teachers, who held MA in TEFL, also, helped the present research and provided essential information on the current level of English proficiency and the number of the years of English instruction of the participants.

The participants were from the same L1 backgrounds, including Turkish. Deliberate attempts have been made to select participants randomly and avoid any bias towards any

group of the learners. The selection procedure was done according to the student number allocated to each student through drawing lots procedure. All the participants in this study expressed their satisfaction prior to the research and they were told that the result would not have any effect on the students' grades in the courses they were taking.

Table 3.1 *Bio-data for participating students in the 3 classes*

classes	treatment	No. of the students	Male	female	Ave. age	Ave. year of learning English
1	Recast	20	20	–	20	4
2	Prompt	20	20	–	20	2
3	control	20	20	–	20	3
	Total	60	60	–	20	10

### 3.3. Instructional Materials

Instructional materials for the present study will include three different tasks and class activities (that will include four hours which spread over two weeks); a dictogloss will be administered to the students to carry out with the help of the teachers in all three groups. Second, grammar work activities will be given to the participants to focus on the target structure. Finally, an information- gap task will be given to the learners to transact and to gain control over the taught target structure. It should be mentioned that during the treatment procedure, the recast group will receive corrective feedback in terms of “reformulation” on the part of the teacher while learners in prompt group will be pushed to self- repair their ill-

formed utterances. And the participants in control group will receive no corrective feedback on the target structure errors and the teacher in this group will give corrective feedback to the content rather than the form.

### **3.4. Instruments**

To carry out this research, a number of verbs were needed. So fifteen transitive verbs regardless of regular or irregular randomly selected. Accordingly for each of these verbs two pictures were prepared. So the following steps have been taken into consideration and done regularly such as:

1. Consent form
2. Oxford placement test
3. Fifteen random transitive verbs
4. Photos to present the literal meaning of verbs
5. Teaching guideline in a sheet to instruct the way of treatment in each of the classroom settings
6. Another fifteen random transitive verbs used in a Persian story in order to be translated into English by the students
7. Some questionnaires accompanying the story set to evaluate the degree of effectiveness of each feedback type on language acquisition

Different steps were taken to conduct this study. First, the Oxford Placement Test (Appendix A) was used to ensure that the participants have relatively the same proficiency level and to make the students homogeneous. Seventy students took the test. Sixty students were chosen according to their performance on the test (those who got grades around the mean). At the next step, and in another session, the subjects were taught the target structure.



Another questionnaire including fifteen pair pictures based on the fifteen random transitive verbs was designed (Appendix B), and was presented by the researcher to the participants. Each verb in the questionnaire was followed by a pair of photos, determining to the participants an action which has been done (the target structure).

### **3.5. Procedure**

The study was conducted through different phases. A consent form (Appendix. C) was given to the participants informing that they were going to participate in the investigation. The form contained some personal information. The participants were to read and sign it.

#### **3.5.1. Pre-treatment procedure**

In order to create homogeneity between all participant the selected target structure was taught with the aid of some pictures. These pictures were designed in a way that they helped participants the actions intended.

The teacher wrote the target structure on the board and provided some sample examples. There were some pair pictures each pair presenting an action to the students. (Appendix. A) The teacher showed the students each pair of the photos and asked them to explain the action which had been done in the picture (for example a dirty car and a clean car). The procedure is done as the follows:

Teacher: What kind of car is it?

Students: It is a dirty and muddy car.

The teacher shows the clean car picture and asks

Teacher: What kind of car is this one?

Students: It is a clean car.

Teacher: So the car was cleaned.

This is the way the teacher goes one by one to each pair of the pictures and helps students to be more familiar with the target structure. One important reason of doing pre-treatment part is helping all the students to be more familiar with the target structure. This will help them to learn and use it in real life and prepare them to the next step of this study. At the next step they will translate a Persian text into English. This text is a story which has the target structure so the students should translate it into English. This translated text will reveal a lot of keys to the teacher to fulfill the process of the correction for all the participants.

### **3.5.2. Treatment procedure**

In pre-treatment stage we intended to familiarize the students with the target structure. And it was done by some pictures. Each pair of the pictures was presenting a verb. The ultimate goal of this part was putting the target structure into classroom setting so that students can use it in real situation.

In the rest of the research we come to treatment part. First of all we should have three groups. So the 60 students were randomly divided into three groups. 20 of the students were put in recast group and 20 into prompt and the rest into control group (20). All the students had the same L1 background and had somehow the same English language proficiencies. They were at the same level in the English institute. All students in three groups were given the same Persian text. This text had fifteen past passive verbs in Farsi. The teacher asked students to translate them into English. The allotted time was one hour to any group. And students were asked to write their name on the translated paper.

#### **3.5.2.1. Teacher role in recast group**

The teacher analyzed the recast group papers and focused on the errors students had made on translating past passive tenses of English. According to the instruction given to the teacher invited the students one by one into the classroom to provide them with treatment. After the treatment they are not allowed to talk to each other about the class treatment process because privacy in treatment plays an important role and helps the instructor to work efficiently with every student.

Based on the definition of recast, the reformulation of all or a part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items are replaced by the corresponding target form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning not language as an object. The role of the teacher as an interlocutor who takes part in a dialogue will be as follows:

1. Reformulation of learner's ill-formed utterances
2. The focus is on grammatical item (past passive tense of English) not lexical or etc.

So recasts were operationalized as a teacher's reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance, without changing the meaning of the student's original utterance, in the context of a communicative activity (Sheen, 2007).

Example: Recasts - Full Recast

S: It washed.

**T: it was washed.**

Example: Recasts - Partial Recast

S: it was clean.

**T: it was cleaned.**

A teacher may come across a few ill-formed translations of the fifteen target structures used in the text. So it is the instructor's role to reformulate its right form and focuses on it.

### **3.5.2.2. Teacher role in prompt group**

The teacher analyzed the prompt group papers and again focused on the errors students had made when translating past passive tense of English. According to the given instruction to the teacher, students were invited into the classroom one by one to receive treatment. Meanwhile privacy in treatment again plays an important role and each student received the treatment privately in the classroom.

The definition of the prompt is as follows: Encouraging learners to self-repair through clarification requests, repetition of learner error, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation (Lyster, 2002, 2007; Yang & Lyster, 2010). So the role of the teacher as an interlocutor who takes part in a dialogue will be as follows:

1. Encouraging learners to self-repair by
  - 1.1. Clarifying and making more comprehensible item
  - 1.2. An instance of repeating by the teacher
  - 1.3. Evoking or drawing out a response by the teacher
2. The focus is again on grammatical item (past passive tense of English) not lexical or etc.

So prompts were operationalized as one of four feedback types following Lyster and Mori's (2006) classifications: (a) metalinguistic clues, in which the teacher provides comments or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance but does not provide the correct form of the target language (b) repetitions, in which the teacher repeats the students' ill-formed utterances, adjusting intonation to highlight the error; (c) clarification

requests, in which "an attempt was made to get learners to self-repair the erroneous utterance by asking for clarification" (Loewen & Nabei, 2007, p.367); (d) elicitation, in which the teacher directly elicits a reformulation from the students or pauses to allow the student to complete the teacher's utterance, or asks the student to reformulate his or her utterance (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Examples of the three types of prompts are as follows. All of these examples were taken from the data of the present study.

Example: Prompts — Metalinguistic Clue

S: I went to home and see it cleaned.

T: **Use past passive tense.**

S: I went to home and see it was cleaned.

Example: Prompts — Repetition

S: The window was break.

T: **The window was break?**

S: The window was broken.

Example: Prompts — Clarification request

S: Why the window broken?

T: **Pardon?**

S: Why was it broken?

Example: Prompt-Elicitation

S: the hotel door was lock.

T: **The hotel door was...**

S: was locked.

It may possible from the fifteen number of the target structure used in the text a teacher come across with a few number of ill-form translation of them. So it is the instructor role to do prompt and focuses on them.

### **3.5.2.3. Teacher`s role in control group**

The teacher analyzed the control group papers and again focused on the errors students had made when translating past passive tens of English. According to the instruction given to the teacher, students were invited into the classroom one by one and received treatment. Meanwhile again privacy in treatment plays an important role.

In control group the teacher just tries to correct the ill-formed items by *focusing on the content* rather than other ways of correcting.

### **3.6. Post-treatment procedure**

In pre-treatment part we taught the target structure by explicitly writing on the board and presenting a few number of the picture to the students. These pictures were accompanied verbs. This was done for homogenizing all participants. But in treatment section any group has a way of correcting the ill-formed utterances. In the two treatment sessions, participants performed some communicative activities with their teachers and received feedback according to designated conditions. In order to trace the participants' development in the use of the target structure, one testing measure including fifteen verbs with pictures were employed.

### **3.7. Sequences of the oral tests**

Oral tests were conducted one week after the treatment. All three tests took place in the listening class. For each testing session, each of the three classes participated in the tests consecutively based on their normal class schedule. The researcher administered the tests. The procedure of the testing session was as follows: the students were all seated out of the class, the researcher invited them one by one to the classroom.

By showing each pair of the pictures to the students with an intended verb student say the sentence about the picture and the teacher record it. It is done one by one between all the students.

### **3.7.1. The Scoring Procedure**

The present study focused on the grammatical accuracy as well as the correct use of the target form in proper context with respect to regular and irregular past passive tense forms. As a result, the learners' level of acquisition was measured in terms of how often these forms were supplied where they were required. Accuracy in the present study was operationalized as "the correct use of past passive tense forms in appropriate past passive tense context"<sup>1</sup>.

However, if the student failed to supply the correct form of the past passive tense or used other tenses (including other past-tense or present-tense forms), the scoring procedure would be as follows: a score of "0" would be marked next to the verb, if the student:

- a) used other past tenses (e.g. past continuous tense, or past perfect tense)
- b) completely missed the verb (according to the context, the student used other verbs to replace this particular verb). However, sometimes, the students would go back and narrate this sentence again later.

- c) used the infinitive form of the verb (e.g. "it was **to wash**" instead of "it was washed ") or the past participle .
- d) used the past tense of the verb in obligatory past passive tense context

To score the oral data, the rater listened to the students' performance and marked the accuracy of the past passive tense form next to the corresponding verbs on the sheet prepared as a coding sheet. If the rater was not sure of the marking, she would listen several times until she could make a clear decision. In the meantime, he marked the use of past passive tense forms on the sheet with all the target verbs listed. The total of correct items became the participant's final score. In order to conduct statistical analysis, the total score of each participant was transformed to a percentage score with the formula: percentage score = total correct/total target items.

### **3.8. Chapter Summary**

This chapter described the research methods employed in the present study. The study adopted a quasi-experimental design with three levels to investigate the effect of recasts and prompts in comparison with no feedback in the acquisition of irregular and regular past passive tense forms. In treatment sessions, participants performed translation of Persian to English activities with their teachers and received feedback or not according to designated conditions one by one. In order to trace the participants' development in the use of the target structure, a testing measures including an oral narrative and were employed.

The next chapter presents the analysis and results of the study with respect to classroom observations of feedback treatment, as well as ANOVA results based on the participants' test scores across different groups.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

# **DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **4.0. Introduction**

This chapter presents the analysis and results of the data collected at the last stage of the study. This section reports learners' performance assessed orally the past passive tense forms immediately after the treatment sessions. This section summarizes qualitative results from the questionnaires, and reporting learners' attitudes towards feedback. And also focuses on the analysis of variance of quantitative data on learners' use of past passive tense forms between groups across testing times.

#### **4.1. Data Set and Statistical Models**

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the three treatment groups in the present study were same in terms of group size. The prompt and the recast groups were relatively similar group in size, and the size of the control group was the same as two other classes that were taught at the same time by the same teacher at the time of the treatment. And this corresponds with one of the assumptions of ANOVA. As a result, based on their bio-information, the classes were included in the statistical analysis and, 60 participants in three intact classes were included in the statistical analysis.

In analyzing the results of the study, the statistical model was ANOVA. This model was employed to determine learners' performance on the use of past passive tense forms across testing times

#### **4.2. Results of the Oral Test**

This section presents results of the oral test by statistical means of ANOVA on the use of overall past passive tense across the three groups over time in the post treatment sessions.

### 4.3. Overall past passive tense forms.

In this part the descriptive statistics of the three groups' mean scores of the total past passive tense use as well as the standard deviations of tastings are clarified and these all are displayed in Table 4.1.

In addition, the three groups made significant gains in their mean scores ( $p < .05$ ). But in control group there was no significant increase in its mean scores ( $p > .05$ ). Data results by ANOVA revealed that there was significant differences between three groups  $F(2, 59) = 4.99, p = 0.01$ .

Table 4 .1. Descriptive statistic of three groups which delineates the mean and the standard deviation

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Recast	20	7.20	2.375	.531	6.09	8.31
Prompt	20	7.10	2.125	.475	6.11	8.09
Control	20	5.30	1.895	.424	4.41	6.19
Total	60	6.53	2.281	.294	5.94	7.12

Table 4.1 plots the means of the three groups in the oral test and shows that all the three groups have over all differences; in addition in order to find the differences between the groups there is need another mean of evaluation.

#### 4.4. Tukey and between group differences

Using the Tukey-Kramer adjustment for multiple comparisons revealed a significant difference between the recast, prompt and the control group ( $p < 0.05$ ). This result further confirmed that there are no significant differences between recast and prompt. It means that there was no significant improvement between recast and prompt. Figure 4.2 shows the pattern of the three groups' performance in the use of past passive tense forms. The graph shows that the recast and prompt group outperformed the control group at the time of the oral evaluation.

Table4.2. Multiple Comparisons scores by Tukey

(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
recast	prompt	.100	.677	.988	-1.53	1.73
	control	1.900*	.677	.018	.27	3.53
prompt	recast	-.100	.677	.988	-1.73	1.53
	control	1.800*	.677	.027	.17	3.43
control	recast	-1.900*	.677	.018	-3.53	-.27
	prompt	-1.800*	.677	.027	-3.43	-.17

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

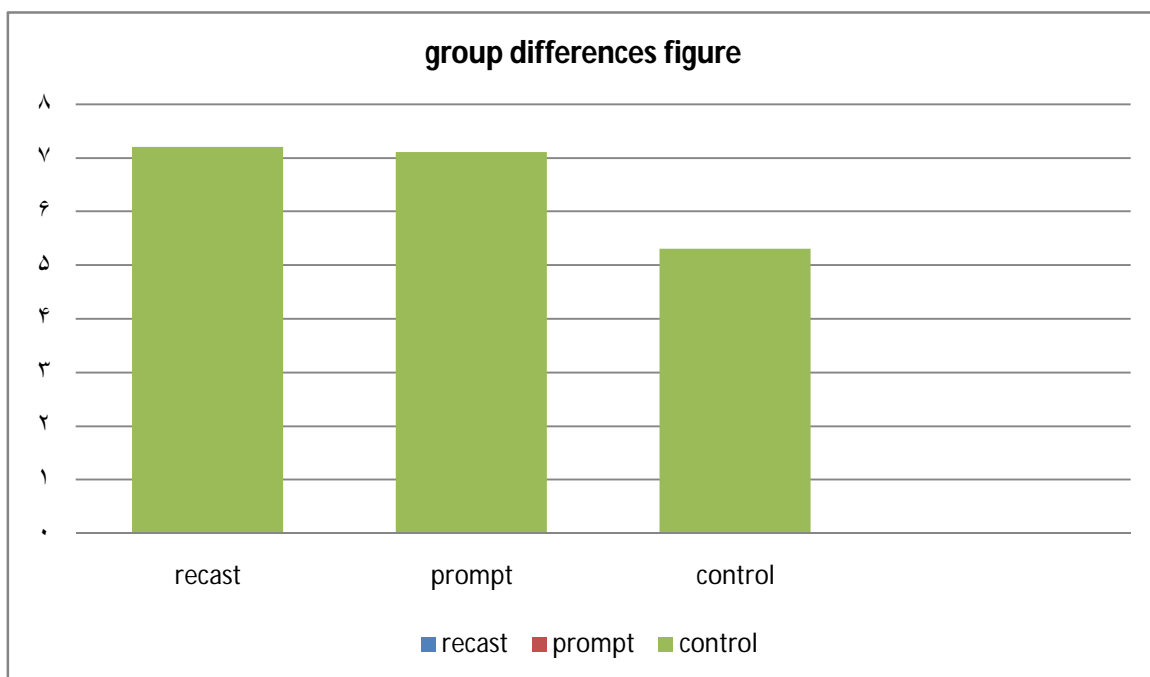


Figure4.1. group differences figure

#### 4.5. Summary of the Results from Quantitative Analysis

This section summarizes the results of the quantitative analysis with a view to answering the three research questions proposed at the end of Chapter 1. In order to answer these questions, it is necessary to revisit the research hypotheses.

With respect to the overall benefit of feedback in the acquisition of past passive tense forms, we can come to a firm conclusion that the two treatment groups outperformed the control group. This is due to the fact that the results from the above quantitative analysis show that the control group did not perform unequivocally better in terms of the acquisition of past passive tense forms. The recast group did not distinguish itself from the prompt group, as reflected by multiple comparisons point. However, in terms of the use of past passive tense in the oral test, revealed an advantage of feedback, so both the recast and the prompt group

significantly improved. Results of analysis of questionnaire data are all available at the appendix.

#### **4.6. Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented the results of the present study, including the analysis of feedback and repair in the oral test session, the quantitative analysis of learners' performance, as well as the results from the questionnaire data analyzed. The next chapter discusses the outcomes of the above analyses, interprets the research findings in light of previous empirical research, identifies the limitations and implications of the present study and, finally, outlines directions for future research.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

# **CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS**

## **5.0. Introduction**

Chapter five provides a summary of the chapters and discusses conclusions of the study. After that, the implications of the study for other areas of SLA are presented, and then some limitations of the study are acknowledged and some final conclusions are reached. Finally, it provides some suggestions for further research.

### **5.1. Summary of the Chapters**

Chapter one put a foundation for the following chapters of the study: it discussed the background of the study, the significance of the study, and the organization of the study.

In Chapter two, the rationale for CF and researches on CF and its different types and specifically recast and prompt was presented. Then, the influences of feedback on learning up were explained and the rationale for the present study along with research question and hypotheses were touched upon.

In chapter three, methodology, research question and research hypotheses and the variables of the study were clarified. After that, the key terms and constructs were explained in full details. Then, the participants of the study were touched upon. After that, the procedures were used for the purpose of data collection were discussed. Finally, the necessary formulae used for the purpose of the data analysis were presented.

In chapter four, *data analysis*, the necessary tables and figures were provided to present the results of the study and the tables were statistically interpreted to make the study understandable.

Chapter five aimed at bringing up the results of the data analyses and discusses them with respect to a number of the limitations and some pedagogical implications. Finally, it will make some suggestions for further research.



## 5.2. Discussions and Conclusions

The findings of this study are in line with the studies of some researchers (Chaudrom, 1988; Dekeyer, 1998, 2001; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Spada, 1997) who argued that corrective feedback facilitates second language acquisition by drawing learners attention to errors in their interlanguage and assisting in their second language development and it is generally conducted in 12 literature that feedback has a positive effect on second language acquisition although not all feedback types are equally effective (Amman & Spada, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2004b; Panova & Lyster, 2002).

The findings and results of this study are contrary to descriptive and immersion contexts (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) which show that prompts were more likely to elicit student responses than recast, and thus more conducive to noticing. Some observational research studies by the same researchers have shown that in communicative or immersion context, recasts and prompts may have differential effects on eliciting immediate uptake and repair, which arguably indicate that these two types of feedback may have distinct functions in second language learning.

The findings of this study are contrary to Ammar and Spada's (2006) quasi-experimental study that investigated the potential benefits of recasts and prompts on the acquisition of a different structure: possessive determiners for French speakers in ESL contexts. Results revealed that all three groups benefited from the treatment, but the feedback groups showed superior performance than the control group. Furthermore, while the group receiving prompts significantly outperformed the recast group. And in particular, the findings of this study also sit well with the claim of Ammar and Spada's quasi-experimental study which says high-proficiency learners benefited equally from both prompts and recasts, whereas low-proficiency learners benefited more from prompts than from recasts.

The findings of this study also are contrary to the claims of two recent classroom studies (Ellis, Loewen, & 2006; Sheen, 2007) compared recasts with prompt's metalinguistic feedback. Both studies showed that the prompt group outperformed the recast group on the acquisition of the target feature (two functions of English articles in Sheen. 2007); and English regular past tense in Ellis *et al.*, 2006).

The findings of this study also sit well with the claims of another finding from (e.g. Lyster, 2004b; Ellis et al., 2006) which says that no significant difference was found among the different feedback groups. Two possible explanations include the brevity of the treatment session (only 30 minutes) and differential amount of feedback provided among different groups (18 instances in the recast and elicitation groups, only 5 in the metalinguistic group) during the treatment session. Although the results should be interpreted with caution due to the small sample sizes in the treatment groups and lack of delayed post-test which may show effects of feedback more effectively (Ellis et al., 2006).

By these all studies context may influence the effect of feedback in both descriptive and experimental studies, it is only one of the many factors that make the issue of feedback so complex. Other factors include the use of different terminology and taxonomy of feedback (see a detailed discussion on this issue by Ellis and Sheen, 2006), amount of treatment, measure of development, (Ellis et al., 2006; Ellis, 2007), definition of acquisition (Han, 2002) and target structure (Ellis, 2007). For example, the amount of treatment can range from 30 minutes in Loewen and Nabei (2007) to 9 hours in Lyster (2004b) and 7-8 hours in Ammar and Spada (2006). Understandably, this wide range of treatment time can confound the results of these feedback studies. And this is only one example of the many different factors affecting the effect of feedback on second language learning. Accordingly this research cannot be seen

as an exception although there have been done less research about the effect of feedback on language acquisition in Iranian society.

This study has established that recast and prompt has an influential factor in acquisition of past passive tense of English. Firstly, concern was on recast facilitates acquisition of past passive tense then after prompt. The second and the third research questions addressed the relative efficacy of recasts and prompts in the acquisition of regular and irregular past passive tense forms. Taken together, findings of the present study reveal an overall beneficial effect of prompts and recasts in the acquisition of past passive tense forms. This result is in agreement with findings of a number of previous quasi-experimental studies in a variety of communicative contexts, such as French immersion in Canada (Lyster, 2004b), Canadian ESL (Ammar & Spada, 2006), and New Zealand ESL (Ellis et al., 2006). These studies were unanimous in their evidence of the overall beneficial effect of prompts and recasts in the acquisition of the target features.

The results also clearly showed that the recast and prompt group outperformed the control group at the time of post-testing. Although the recast group significantly improved over time, this improvement failed to show any superiority in comparison with the prompt group. In the oral test, although no significant differences were found among the two groups, group means revealed that the prompt group maintained the gain in scores as same as the recast. Contrary to the prediction that the recast group would outperform the control and prompt group, it was both the prompt group and recast group that distinguished itself from the control. The ANOVA results of the present study clearly illustrated that prompts and recasts were overall more effective language development.

### **5.3. Implications of the study**

The findings of the present study are consistent with the results of the previous studies carried out on the effects of recast and prompt on the acquisition of past passive tense of English. The findings indicate that recast and prompt as two means of correcting students' errors can improve students' acquisition of language learning. So it can shed light on language teaching and teachers can revise and re-evaluate their teaching methods. They should pay much attention to students' errors. The studies that have been carried out in this field show the importance of teacher awareness of corrective feedback and its influence on language learning and teaching. All the studies show that there is no doubt on the influence of correction on language learning and teaching. Thus teachers have to do more than just provide learners with linguistic knowledge. So New findings about different types of correction should be put into practice. Thus, teachers should provide different types of correction and give opportunity to language learners not only being aware of their problems but also for acquiring language in communicative way of teaching. In this way the learners will internalize the new input. So corrective feedback has an influential effect, and then it must be taken into account as an important criterion for evaluating an English language teacher who runs a classroom setting. A teacher may come across an error, but he or she may not know how to react. By considering the above implications, the researcher suggests the following points to be taken into account in English classrooms.

- teachers should be aware that error and correction are parts of any language teaching and learning.
- teachers should correct students' errors possibly in recast and prompt.

- material designers should design teacher handouts showing a logical way of behavior toward any error.

The researcher hopes that the findings of the present study would serve as a guide to teachers, curriculum planners as well as textbook writers to gear their materials and classroom activities towards a more effective approach to the teaching and learning.

#### **5.4. Limitations of the study**

The present study has certain limitations that need to be improved in future research. The first is one intact class within each group and the possible influence of the teacher. The present study had only one class in each group and one teacher for all treatment conditions. However, there were only four classes at the same level in the same institute in this study, which excluded this possibility. In future studies, if possible, increasing the number of classes with comparable participants and teachers would provide more reliable and robust findings.

The second limitation is the short duration of the treatment. The relative effect of prompts and recasts might have been demonstrated more clearly had the treatment sessions been longer. However, due to the limitation of the availability of the participants and the teacher, the treatment sessions could not last much longer. The researcher had discussions with the teacher and decided that the time of the treatment sessions should be in proportion with the curriculum with respect to the focus of the target features, so as to find a natural period for the inclusion of the communicative activities and feedback treatment. Future studies that compare the effect of prompts and recasts with longitudinal designs and with a wider range of grammatical structures may add current knowledge of the effect of feedback in relation to grammatical structures to a greater depth.

Another limitation of the study is that the tests employed to measure the learner's development of target forms were not counterbalanced in the present study. All participants in the three classes underwent the same sequence in the oral tests. Future studies may include counterbalanced tests with more than one test measure in each modality, each including a substantial amount of target structures in order to triangulate the results.

Recent research on the effect of recast and prompt and the variables involved suggests some other motivational and attitudinal factors are related to the effect of recast and prompt which were not taken into account in the present study. The participants were chosen from just one English institute and with a small sample of students. A larger sample would tolerate individual variations better in statistical analysis. A better-controlled measurement might shed further light on the phenomenon. And also the availability of just one gender (male) can also be considered as a limitation. Unavailability of the key articles, authoritative books, and conferences releases was one of the limitations of the present study.

As commonly acknowledged in all studies, due to the mentioned limitations of the present study, one needs to take great caution in generalizing the results of the present study to other settings, to participants of different characteristics, or to the acquisition of other grammatical features. In this regard, future research should address the issue of differential effects of recasts and prompts in the acquisition of a wide variety of language structures, with wider populations in different contexts. The present study assumes that participants were at the intermediate level, but did not further investigate the effect of feedback in relation to individual differences such as their proficiency level (Ammar & Spada, 2006), language analytic ability and aptitude (Sheen, 2007), level of motivation to learn English (Dornyei, 2001), or cognitive factors such as working memory (Trofimovich, Ammar, & Gatbonton, 2007). Nor were there any dealing with past data (Egi, 2007b; Mackey, 2006) that could

directly illustrate the relationship between learners' perception of different types of feedback and feedback efficacy in learning the target structure. These are all interesting areas for further investigation.

### **5.5. Suggestions for Further Research**

1. It is recommended that this study be replicated for female learners to see whether the same results will be obtained.
2. This study can be replicated across proficiency levels.
3. It is recommended that this study be done with different English language learners who have different L1.
4. Focusing on one type of prompt (for example: metalinguistic) and recast can be also considered caring out for another research.
5. The present study has used Persian translating way of treatment. There may be other means of treatment which is considerable.
6. The extent to which learners are able to benefit from feedback depends, in part, on the characteristics of the target structure (Egi, 2007b; Ellis, 2007) so past passive tense is linguistically and syntactically difficult target, so putting other target structures into research setting may have other results.

Teacher training centers need to increase would-be teachers' awareness about the role of various kinds of feedback and familiarize them with techniques of administering such feedbacks.

## References:

- Ammar, A. (2003). *Corrective feedback and L2 learning: Elicitation and recasts*.  
Unpublished doctoral dissertation, McGill University, Montreal.
- Ammar, A. & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts, and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 543-574.
- Andersen, R. & Shirai, Y. (1996). The primacy of aspect in first and second language acquisition: The Pidgin-Creole connection. In W. Ritchie, & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 527-570). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Anderson, J. (1980). *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. San Francisco: Freeman.
- Anderson, J. (1983). *The architecture of cognition*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Anderson, J. (1985). *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. (2nd ed.) New York: W. H. Freeman and Co.
- Anderson, J., Fincham, J. & Douglass, S. (1997). The role of examples and rules in the acquisition of a cognitive skill. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory and Cognition*, 23, 932-945.
- Bax, S. (2003). The end of CLT: a context approach to language teaching. *ELT Journal*, 57, 278-287.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1998). Narrative structure and lexical aspect: Conspiring factors in second language acquisition of tense-aspect morphology. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20, 471-508.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1999). From morpheme studies to temporal semantics: Tense-aspect research in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 341-382.



- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2000). *Tense and aspect in second language acquisition: Form, meaning, and use*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Bayley, R. (1991). *Variation theory and second language learning: Linguistic and social constraints on interlanguage tense marking*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Stanford University, Stanford, CA. 179
- Bayley, R. (1994). Interlanguage variation and the quantitative paradigm: Past tense marking in Chinese English. In S. Gass, E. Cohen & E. Tarone (Eds.), *Research Methodology in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 157-181). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bolinger, D. (1975). Meaning and memory. *Forum Linguisticum*, 1, 2-14.
- Brown, H. (2004). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Cai, J. (2007). *The effects of multiple linguistic factors on the simple past use in English interlanguage*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Carr, T. H., & Curran, T. (1994). Cognitive factors in learning about structured sequence: Applications to syntax. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16, 205-230.
- Carroll, S. (2001). *Input and evidence: The raw material of second language acquisition*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Carroll, S. & Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback: An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 357-386.
- Chaudron, C. (1977). A descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors. *Language Learning*, 27, 29-46.

- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- de Bot, K. (1996). The psycholinguistics of the output hypothesis. *Language Learning, 46*, 529-555.
- DeKeyser, R. (1993). The effect of error-correction on L2 grammar knowledge and oral proficiency. *Modern Language Journal, 77*, 501-514.
- DeKeyser, R. (1995). Learning second language grammar rules: An experiment with a miniature linguistic system. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 17*, 379-410.
- DeKeyser, R. (1998). Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *ocus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 42-63). New York: Cambridge University Press. 180
- DeKeyser, R. (2001). Automaticity and automatization. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 125-151). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Doughty, C., & Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 129-154). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Egi, T. (2007a). Interpreting recasts as linguistic evidence: The roles of linguistic target, length, and degree of change. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 29*, 511-537.
- Egi, T. (2007b). Recasts, learners' interpretations, and L2 development. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 249-267). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Ellis, R. (2001). Investigating form-focused instruction. *Language Learning*, 51 (Suppl.1), 1-46.
- Ellis, R. (2005). Measuring implicit and explicit knowledge of second language: a psychometric study. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27, 141-172.
- Ellis, R. (2006). Modelling learning difficulty and second language proficiency: The differential contribution of implicit and explicit knowledge. *Applied Linguistics*, 27, 431-463.
- Ellis, R. (2007). The differential effects of corrective feedback on two grammatical structures. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 339-360). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R., & He, X. (1999). The roles of modified input and output in the incidental acquisition of word meaning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 285-1.
- Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning*, 51, 281-318.181
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 339-368.
- Ellis, R. & Sheen, Y. (2006). Re-examining the role of recasts in L2 acquisition. *Studies in Second language Acquisition*, 28, 575-600.
- Erlam, R. (2006). Elicited imitation as a measure of L2 implicit knowledge: An empirical validation study. *Applied Linguistics*, 27, 464-491.
- Fazio, L., & Lyster, R. (1998). Immersion and submersion classrooms: A comparison of instructional practices in language arts. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 19, 303-317

- Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gass, S. M. (2003). Input and interaction. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 224-255). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Gass, S., Mackey, A., & Pica, T. (1998). The Role of Input and Interaction in Second Language Acquisition: Introduction to the Special Issue. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82, 299-305.
- Guthrie, E. (1984). Six cases in classroom communication: A study of teacher discourse in the foreign language classroom. In J. Lantolf & A. Labarca (Eds.), *Research in Second Language Learning: Focus on the Classroom* (pp. 173-194). Norwood: Ablex.
- Han, Z. (2002). A study of the impact of recasts on tense consistency in L2 output. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 542-572.
- Harley, B. (1998). The role of form-focused tasks in promoting child L2 acquisition. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 156-174). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Harley, B., & Swain, M. (1984). The interlanguage of immersion students and its implications for second language teaching. In A. Davies, C. Cripser, & A. Howatt (Eds.), *Interlanguage* (pp. 291-311). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press. 182
- Hatch, E. (1978). Discourse analysis and second language acquisition. In E. Hatch (Ed.), *Second language acquisition: A book of readings* (pp. 401-475). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Havranek, G. (2002). When is corrective feedback most likely to succeed? *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37, 255-270.

- Havranek, G., & Cesnik, H. (2001). Factors affecting the success of corrective feedback. *EUROSLA Yearbook, 1*, 99-122.
- Hu, G. (2003). English language teaching in China: Regional differences and contributing factors. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 24*, 290-318.
- Hu, G. (2005). 'CLT is best for China' — an untenable absolutist claim. *ELT Journal, 59*, 65-68.
- Hulstijn, J. (1990). A comparison between the information processing and analysis/control approaches to language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*, 30-45.
- Hulstijn, J. & De Graaff, R. (1994). Under what conditions does explicit knowledge of a second language facilitate the acquisition of implicit knowledge? A research proposal. *AILA Review, 11*, 97-112.
- Inagaki, S., & Long, M. (1999). Implicit negative feedback. In K. Kanno (Ed.), *The acquisition of Japanese as a second language* (pp. 9-30). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Ishida, M. (2004). Effects of recasts on the acquisition of the aspectual form *-te i-(ru)* by learners of Japanese as a Foreign Language. *Language Learning, 54*, 311-394.
- Izumi, S. & Bigelow, M. (2000). Does output promote noticing and second language acquisition? *TESOL Quarterly, 34*, 239-278.
- Izumi, S. & Bigelow, M. (2001). Methodological and theoretical issues in testing the effects of focus on form. *TESOL Quarterly, 35*, 181-189.
- Izumi, S. (2003). Comprehension and production processes in second language learning: in search of the psycholinguistic rationale of the output hypothesis. *Applied Linguistics, 24*, 168-196.
- Kim, J., & Han, Z. (2007). Recasts in communicative EFL classes: do teacher intent and learner interpretation overlap? In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in*

- second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 269-297). Oxford: Oxford University Press. 183
- Kowal, M. & Swain, M. (1994). Using collaborative language production tasks to promote students' language awareness. *Language Awareness, 3*, 73-93.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. New York: Longman.
- Krashen, S. (1994). The input hypothesis and its rivals. In N. Ellis (Ed.), *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 45-77). London: Academic Press.
- Levelt, W. (1989). *Speaking: From intention to articulation*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Liao, X. (2004). The need for Communicative Language Teaching in china. *ELT Journal, 58*, 270-273.
- Lightbown, P. (1998). The importance of timing in focus on form. In: C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 177-196). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1990). Focus-on-form and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching: Effects on second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12*, 429-448.
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1994). An innovative program for primary ESL in Quebec. *TESOL Quarterly, 28*, 563-573.
- Lochtman, K. (2002). Oral corrective feedback in the foreign language classroom: how it affects interaction in analytic foreign language teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research, 37*, 271-283.

- Loewen, S. (2002). The occurrence and effectiveness of incidental focus on form in meaning-focused ESL lessons. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. The University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand.
- Loewen, S. (2005). Incidental focus on form and second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27, 361-286.
- Loewen, S., & Nabei, T. (2007). Measuring the effects of oral corrective feedback on L2 knowledge. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 361-377). Oxford: Oxford University Press. 184
- Logan, G. (1988). Towards an instance theory of automatization. *Psychological Review*, 95, 492-527.
- Long, M. H. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input. *Applied Linguistics*, 4, 126-141.
- Long, M. H. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 377-393). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp.413-468), New York, CA: Academic Press.
- Long, M. (2007). *Problems in SLA*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Long, M. H., Inagaki, S., & Ortega, L. (1998). The role of implicit negative feedback in SLA: Models and recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82, 357-371.

- Long, M., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on Form: Theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 15-41). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Lyster, R. (1998a). Recasts, repetition, and ambiguity in L2 classroom discourse. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20, 51-81.
- Lyster, R. (1998b). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning*, 48, 183-218.
- Lyster, R. (2002). Negotiation in immersion teacher-student interaction. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37, 237-253.
- Lyster, R. (2004a). Research on form-focused instruction in immersion classrooms: implications for theory and practice. *French Language Studies*, 14, 321-341.
- Lyster, R. (2004b). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26, 399-432.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. 185.
- Lyster, R. & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 269-300.
- Lyster, R., & Izquierdo, J. (2010). Prompts versus recasts in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning*, 59, XXX-XXX.
- Mackey, A. (2006). Feedback, noticing, and second language development: an empirical study of L2 classroom interaction. *Applied Linguistics*, 27, 405-430.
- Mackey, A., & Philp, J. (1998). Conversational interaction and second language



- development: Recasts, responses, and red herrings? *Modern Language Journal*, 82, 338-356.
- Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 22, 471-497.
- Mackey, A., Philp, J., Egi, T., Fujii, A., & Tatsumi, T. (2002). Individual differences in working memory, noticing of interactional feedback and L2 development. In P. Robinson (Eds.), *Individual differences and instructed language learning* (pp. 181-209). Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Mackey, A. & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Mackey, A., & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction in SLA: a research synthesis and metaanalysis. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 407-452). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McDonough, K. (2005). Identifying the impact of negative feedback and learners' responses on ESL question development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27, 79-103.
- McDonough, K. (2007). Interactional feedback and the emergence of simple past activity verbs in L2 English. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 323-338). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mito, K. (1993). The effects of modeling and recasting on the acquisition of L2 grammar rules. Unpublished manuscript, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa. 186.

- Muranoi, H. (2000). Focus on form through interaction enhancement: Integrating formal instruction into a communicative task in EFL classrooms. *Language Learning*, 50, 617-673.
- Nelson, K. (1981). Toward a Rare Event Cognitive Comparison Theory of Syntax Acquisition. In P. Dale & D. Ingram (Eds.), *Child Language: An International Perspective* (pp. 375-402). Baltimore: University Park Press.
- Nelson, K. (1987). Some observations from the perspective of the rare event cognitive comparison theory of language acquisition. In K. Nelson & A. Kleeck (Eds.), *Children's language* (Vol. 6, pp. 289-331). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Nicholas, H., Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2001). Recasts as feedback to language learners. *Language Learning*, 51, 719-758.
- Ohta, A. (2000). Rethinking recasts: A learner-centered examination of corrective feedback in the Japanese classroom. In J.K. Hall & L. Verplaester (Eds.), *The construction of second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (pp. 47-71). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Palmeri, T. (1997). Exemplar similarity and the development of automaticity. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 23, 324-354.
- Panova, I., & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 573-595.
- Pawley, A. & Syder, F. (1983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Nativelike selection and nativelike fluency. In J.C. Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication*. (pp. 119-225), London: Longman.
- Pica, T., Young, R. and Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21, 737-758.

- Philp, J. (2003). Constraints on “noticing the gap”: Non-native speakers’ noticing of recasts in NS-NNS interaction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 25, 99-126.
- Pinker, S. (1999). *Words and Rules: The Ingredients of Language*. New York: Basic Books.
- Pinker, S. & Prince, A. (1994). Regular and irregular morphology and the psychological status of rules of grammar. In S. Lima, R. Corrigan, & G. Iverson (Eds.), *The reality of linguistic rules* (pp. 353-388). Amsterdam: Benjamins.187
- Pinker, S.& Ullman, M. (2002). The past and future of the past tense. *Trends in Cognitive Science*, 6, 456-463.
- Quirk, R. (1972). *A grammar of contemporary English*. London: Longman.
- Rao, Z. (2002). Chinese students’ perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in the EFL classroom. *System*, 30, 85-105.
- Ran, Z. (2007). *Individual differences and cultural factors in English learning strategies*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- Reber, A. (1989). Implicit learning and tacit knowledge. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 118, 219-235.
- Robinson, P. (1995). Review article: Attention, memory and the “noticing” hypothesis. *Language Learning*, 45, 283-331.
- Robinson, P. (2003). Attention and memory in SLA. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 631-678). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Robinson, P. & Ha, M. (1993). Instance theory and second language rule learning under explicit conditions. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13, 413-438.
- Russell, J., & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for second language acquisition: A meta-analysis of the research. In J. Norris & L. Ortega (Eds.),

- Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp. 133-163). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Salaberry, M. (2000). The acquisition of English past tense in an instructional setting. *System*, 28, 135-152.
- Segalowitz, N. (1997). Individual differences in second language acquisition. In A. de Groot & J. Kroll (Eds.), *Tutorials in bilingualism: psycholinguistic perspectives* (pp. 85-112). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Segalowitz, N. (2002). Automaticity and second languages. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 382-409). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Seliger, H. (1983). The language learner as linguist: Of metaphors and realities. *Applied Linguistics*, 4, 179-191.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 129-158. 188
- Schmidt, R. (1992). Psychological mechanisms underlying second language fluency. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 14, 357-385.
- Schmidt, R. (1995). *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.
- Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmidt, R., & Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 237-326). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

- Schwartz, B. (1993). On explicit and negative data effecting and affecting competence and linguistic behavior. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 147-163.
- Seedhouse, P. (1997). The case of the missing “no”: The relationship between pedagogy and interaction. *Language Learning*, 47, 547-583.
- Seedhouse, P. (2004). *The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Sharwood Smith, M. (1986). The competence/control model, cross-linguistic influence and the creation of new grammars. In E. Kellerman & M. Sharwood Smith (Eds.), *Crosslinguistic influence in second language acquisition* (pp. 10-20). Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research*, 8, 263-300.
- Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research*, 10, 361-392.
- Sheen, Y. (2007). The effects of corrective feedback, language aptitude and learner attitudes on the acquisition of English articles. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 301-322). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Shirai, Y. (1991). Primacy of aspect in language acquisition: Simplified input and prototype. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.
- 189
- Sinclair, J. (1991). *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implementation of task based instruction. *Applied Linguistics*, 17, 38-62.

- Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Spada, N. (1997). Form-focused instruction and second language acquisition: A review of classroom and laboratory research. *Language Teaching*, 29, 1-15.
- Spada, N. & Lightbown, P. (1993). Instruction and the development of questions in the L2 classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 205-221.
- Spada, N. & Fröhlich, M. (1995). *COLT. Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching observation scheme: Coding conventions and applications*. Sydney, Australia: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.
- Stern, H. (1990). Analysis and experience as variables in second language pedagogy. In B. Harley, P. Allen, J. Cummins, & M. Swain (Eds.), *The development of second language proficiency* (pp. 93-109). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Stern, H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Suzuki, M. (2004, March). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in adult ESL classrooms. *Working Papers in TESOL and Applied Linguistics*.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 50, 158-164.
- Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principles and practice in the study of language* (pp. 125-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Swain, M. (1998). Focus on form through conscious reflection. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 64-81). New York: Cambridge University Press. 190
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *Modern Language Journal*, 82, 320-37.
- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (2001). Focus on form through collaborative dialogue: exploring task effects. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Researching pedagogic tasks: second language learning, teaching, and testing* (pp. 99-118). New York: Longman.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*. 16(3), 371-391.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2002). Talking it through: two French immersion learners' response to reformulation. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37, 285-304.
- Tomasello, M., & Herron, C. (1988). Down the garden path: Inducing and correcting overgeneralization errors in the foreign language classroom. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 9, 237-246.
- Tomasello, M., & Herron, C. (1989). Feedback for language transfer errors. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11, 385-395.
- Tomlin, R., & Villa, V. (1994). Attention in cognitive science and second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16, 183-203.

- Trofimovich, P., Ammar, A., & Gatbonton, E. (2007). How effective are recasts? The role of attention, memory, and analytic ability. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies*. (pp. 171-195). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Truscott, J. (1999). What's wrong with oral grammar correction. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 55, 437-456.
- Tsang, W. (2004). Feedback and uptake in teacher-student interaction: An analysis of 18 English lessons in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Regional Language Centre Journal*, 35, 187-209.
- White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: The input hypothesis and the development of L2 competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 8, 95-110.
- William, J. (2001). The effectiveness of spontaneous attention to form. *System*, 29, 325-340.
- Wolfram, W. (1985). Variability in tense marking: a case for the obvious. *Language Learning*, 35, 229-253.
- Yang, Y. (2006). Interactional feedback and uptake in Chinese EFL classrooms. Paper presented at the joint conference of AAAL/CAAL, Montreal, June, 2006.
- Yu, L. (2001). Communicative language teaching in China: Progress and resistance. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35, 194-198.
- Yuan, F. & Ellis, R. (2003). The effects of pre-task planning and on-line planning on fluency, complexity and accuracy in L2 monological oral production. *Applied Linguistics*, 24, 1-27. 192



# Appendices

## Appendix A: Placement test

### English Placement Test

This placement test is designed to give students and teachers of English a quick way of assessing the approximate level of student`s knowledge of English grammar and usage. The test should take around 45 minutes to complete.

**1) Did you ..... anywhere interesting last weekend?**

- a) go                                      b) going                                      c) was                                      d) went

**2) I work as a teacher and my wife ....., too.**

- a) do                                      b) is                                      c) work                                      d) does

**3) I think ..... taxi driver**

- a) her job is                                      b) she's a                                      c) her job is an                                      d) she's

**4) What is your home town ..... ?**

- a) situated                                      b) age                                      c) like                                      d) located

**5) I'm afraid I ..... here for your birthday party.**

- a) have not to be                                      b) am not being                                      c) will be not                                      d) can't be

**6) How ..... are you?**

- a) high                                      b) wide                                      c) long                                      d) heavy

**7) How long ..... married?**

- a) have you been                                      b) are you                                      c) have you                                      d) been

**8) Would you like ..... help?**

- a) a                                      b) some                                      c) me                                      d) I

**9) They ..... go to the cinema**

- a) tomorrow                                      b) much                                      c) rare                                      d) seldom

**10) He hasn't played since he ..... the accident.**

- a) had                                      b) has had                                      c) has                                      d) had had

**11) This is the best tea I've ..... tasted.**

- a) never                                      b) ever                                      c) already                                      d) still

**12) I'm looking ..... the summer holidays.**

- a) before                                      b) forward                                      c) for                                      d) forward to

**13) My girlfriend ..... born on the 2nd of September 1974.**

- a) is                                      b) was                                      c) had                                      d) has been

- 14) This beer tastes .....**  
a) badly                      b) lovely                      c) well                      d) normally
- 15) In life ..... can make a mistake; we're all human.**  
a) anyone                      b) some people                      c) not anybody                      d) someone
- 16) She knows that she ..... to pay now.**  
a) had better                      b) needn't                      c) should                      d) ought
- 17) If he ..... about it, I'm sure he'd help.**  
a) had know                      b) knew                      c) has known                      d) knows
- 18) I'll return the newspaper when I ..... through it.**  
a) will have looked                      b) looked                      c) have looked                      d) look
- 19) They said they ..... come, but they didn't.**  
a) can                      b) will                      c) may                      d) might
- 20) They were ..... hard questions that I had no chance.**  
a) so                      b) some                      c) such                      d) quite
- 21) I don't have a cent to give you. I ..... bought a new computer.**  
a) just buy                      b) had just bought                      c) 've just                      d) soon will
- 22) Mum gave ..... her job when I was born.**  
a) in                      b) up                      c) off                      d) away
- 23) It's all right, we ..... hurry. We have plenty of time.**  
a) mustn't                      b) shouldn't                      c) can't                      d) needn't
- 24) You have a terrible fever! ..... call a doctor?**  
a) Shall I                      b) Do I                      c) Must I                      d) Will I
- 25) Joanna looks ..... in her new dress.**  
a) nice                      b) nicely                      c) like nice                      d) such nice
- 26) Mr Haines wants ..... to his office.**  
a) that you come                      b) you come to                      c) you come                      d) you to come
- 27) There are ..... around to start a cricket team**  
a) enough young boys                      b) boys enough young  
c) young boys enough                      d) enough youngest boys
- 28) These bottles ..... of plastic.**  
a) are making                      b) are make                      c) are made                      d) made are
- 29) Do you know where ..... ?**  
a) did I put the keys                      b) put I the keys  
c) I put the keys                      d) I the keys put
- 30) Magda knows a lot about badgers, but she ..... a live one.**

- a) doesn't ever see  
c) hasn't ever saw

- b) hasn't ever seen  
d) didn't ever see

**31) We wash the curtains ..... year.**

- a) three times a                      b) once                      c) three every                      d) every couple

**32) The loudspeakers won't work unless you ..... those cables.**

- a) connected                      b) connect                      c) don't connect                      d) can't connect

**33) You should give ..... .**

- a) to your mother this letter                      b) this letter your mother  
c) letter this to your mother                      d) this letter to your mother

**34) Marian has ..... old books.**

- a) very much                      b) a lot of                      c) lots                      d) a very lot

**35) Hania has got two children, ..... ?**

- a) hasn't she                      b) has she got                      c) has she                      d) haven't she

**36) Let's think ..... something nice.**

- a) after                      b) about                      c) for                      d) to

**37) A Jaguar is ..... than a Fiat.**

- a) more expensive                      b) expensive                      c) much expensive                      d) expensive

**38) The TV's too loud. Please, ..... .**

- a) it turn down                      b) turn it up                      c) turn it down                      d) turn down it

**39) It's a pity you ..... here last night.**

- a) weren't                      b) aren't                      c) 'll not be                      d) 'd not be

**40) What about ..... for a walk?**

- a) to go                      b) I going                      c) going                      d) go

**41) I made one or two mistakes, but ..... of my answers were correct.**

- a) much                      b) most                      c) more                      d) few

**42) You can't cross the road when the light ..... red.**

- a) 'll be                      b) was                      c) were                      d) is

**43) I have a problem. .... help me please?**

- a) Could you                      b) Should you  
c) Were you able to                      d) Will you able to

**44) Our neighbour is ..... to Ireland.**

- a) going travel                      b) going to travelling  
c) go                      d) going to travel

**45) Do penguins fly? No, they ..... .**

- a) aren't                      b) haven't                      c) don't                      d) won't

**46) ..... train are you taking, the express to Poznan or to Skwierzyna?**

a) Which                      b) How                      c) Whose                      d) Who

**47) This is ..... story.**

a) a very interesting                      b) very an interesting  
c) very interesting                      d) very interested

**48) Marta takes the dog for a walk ..... the evening.**

a) in                      b) at                      c) on                      d) to

**49) We haven't got ..... Polish friends.**

a) no                      b) any                      c) none                      d) some

**50) Simon can't ..... to you now. He's busy.**

a) talked                      b) to talk                      c) talking                      d) talk

**51) Have they finished working yet? I don't think .....**

a) it                      b) this                      c) so                      d) that

**52) Somebody stole his wallet so he ..... money from a friend.**

a) lent                      b) earned                      c) borrowed                      d) lended

**53) We must go now. Call the waitress and ask for the .....**

a) bill                      b) invoice                      c) price                      d) cost

**54) He's a friend of .....**

a) them                      b) theres                      c) theirs                      d) their

**55) Have you had ..... to eat?**

a) too many                      b) some more                      c) to many                      d) enough

**56) I ..... my boyfriend since Christmas.**

a) didn't see                      b) haven't seen                      c) don't see                      d) hasn't seen

**57) Who was the woman ..... ?**

a) spoke to you                      b) that you were speaking to  
c) that you spoke                      d) that you were speaked to

**58) Is ..... than his father?**

a) Matt taller                      b) taller Matt                      c) Matt more tall                      d) Matt as tall as

**59) She was 29 on her birthday, ..... she?**

a) didn't                      b) hadn't                      c) hasn't                      d) wasn't

**60) ..... is it from here to Berlin?**

a) How long way                      b) How long                      c) How far                      d) How many

**61) Good ..... ! I hope you get the job.**

a) chance                      b) fortune                      c) luck                      d) wish

**62) The doctor has told her that she must give ..... drinking.**

a) from                      b) to                      c) off                      d) up

**63) There was a lot of noise so I didn't understand what she was .....**

- a) saying                      b) telling                      c) speaking                      d) talking

**64) I ..... drink beer than wine.**

- a) would like more              b) prefer                      c) had better                      d) would rather

**65) I gave her ..... earrings for Christmas.**

- a) a pair of                      b) a set of                      c) two                      d) a

**66) Would you like some more tea? There's still ..... left.**

- a) few                      b) a few                      c) a little                      d) little

**67) She didn't want the job, .....**

- a) however well paid was it                      b) however well paid it was  
c) for how good pay might it be                      d) however good pay it was

**68) He has been ..... for armed robbery.**

- a) blamed                      b) accused                      c) charged                      d) arrested

**69) The financial director ..... for almost an hour.**

- a) kept us to wait                      b) kept us waiting  
c) made us to wait                      d) made us waiting

**70) I've often ..... at the Wiejce Palace Hotel.**

- a) stayed                      b) slept                      c) remained                      d) rested

**71) I didn't realize that the coffee shop was ..... the other side of the road.**

- a) by                      b) for                      c) on                      d) in

**72) We have ..... for a receptionist but haven't appointed anyone yet.**

- a) advertised                      b) announced                      c) advised                      d) noticed

**73) She's very beautiful but that kind of woman doesn't ..... to me.**

- a) fancy                      b) appeal                      c) attract                      d) turn on

**74) The language school that I attend is 20 kilometers .....**

- a) far                      b) away                      c) distance                      d) long

**75) "I'm going to the cinema on Saturday." "So ....."**

- a) I am                      b) do I                      c) I do                      d) am I

**76) They ..... him of scratching the car.**

- a) blamed                      b) accused                      c) punished                      d) arrested

**77) They had to leave the flat because they couldn't pay the .....**

- a) fare                      b) hire                      c) rent                      d) salary

**78) She ..... at me and then turned away.**

- a) viewed                      b) regarded                      c) responded                      d) glanced

**79) The book shop rang ..... that the dictionary you ordered has arrived.**

- a) to say                      b) to tell                      c) for saying                      d) for telling

**80) If he hadn't drunk so much, he ..... sick.**

- a) didn't feel                      b) wouldn't feel                      c) hadn't felt                      d) hasn't felt

**81) Maria has two sisters, but she doesn't speak to ..... of them.**

- a) both                      b) any                      c) either                      d) neither

**82) Hubert is an uncle of .....**

- a) Kim                      b) Kims                      c) Kim's                      d) Kims'

**83) We discussed the house plans ..... our way to the shops.**

- a) by                      b) on                      c) in                      d) to

**84) George goes to ..... by car.**

- a) a work                      b) the work                      c) an work                      d) work

**85) Have you found a job ..... ?**

- a) soon                      b) still                      c) longer                      d) yet

**86) My boots are dirty. I'd better take them ..... before I come in.**

- a) off                      b) away                      c) on                      d) up

**87) What did the man say ..... ?**

- a) at you                      b) to you                      c) for you                      d) you

**88) Do you think I should move to Ireland? You shouldn't do anything ..... you think it's the right thing to do.**

- a) when                      b) unless                      c) in case                      d) if

**89) We can finish the rest of the eggs for .....**

- a) a breakfast                      b) the breakfast  
c) breakfast                      d) a breakfasts

**90) If she doesn't ..... my sight at once, I'll scream!**

- a) go out from                      b) go off                      c) get away from                      d) get out of

## **Appendix B**

**Some sample photos used in pre-treatment and post-treatment stages**



**Fix**



**Wash**



**Sell**



**Break**



**Finish**



**Employ**





# Tie



# Cook



N.C. Person County

Dear brother, I just wanted to write you a few lines to let you know we're well as  
general living when these few lines come to hand they will find you and all well. We  
have a good crop of corn at this time. If we can have two or three more rains in time  
we will make plenty of corn. I have not heard from you since the war began. All my  
love was in it but William he was not old enough. John is, I hope that the first year  
of the war in the experience of it, of the late subject dying in fact. I am sorry. I  
went and brought him home and buried at home. George was with Gen. Lee when  
he was at Appomattox and came home with him. In a good many battles since our  
Mamma was at Raleigh and I believe guarding the railroad. He was one of the  
guards. He could not talk. There was no one for this war. It has ended as I had  
(...) regret I shall have to leave. I have worked hard in (work), I shall never try  
to make a thing more only something to eat. Thus, hard here. Money is no good.  
There is no other way to do anything. The paper currency is gone down. They  
kill us without anything. If they have taken off your money you had better come  
back and stay with us. I will write to you as get this letter and let me know how  
soon it is answered. I will come to a church containing your brother's death.

July 17, 1861.

Eliah Cooper, Va.

Andrew Cooper

How do all the children send love to you. Our youngest girl died. Last May was a  
year ago. Her name was Martha. We have but two of our children, John A. &  
Martha. We have never been yet. Come and live with us. Be sure to write.

# Type

## Appendix C: Consent form

### **Consent Form**

*I understand the purpose and procedures of the study. I hereby agree with the researcher's plan of the study and will give her the permission to do research. I also understand that it is totally voluntary for the students and teachers to participate in the study and they may choose not to participate in the study or withdraw from the study without any negative consequences.*

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

*I hereby agree with the researcher's plan of the study and will give her the permission to do audio-record the oral tests and treatment sessions. I also understand that the results of the study are kept completely confidential and accessible to the researcher only.*

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

### **Instructions for Teachers on Feedback Types**

#### **Recast Group:**

If the student makes an error on the use of past passive tense, you should provide them with the correct form in a natural way so that the form becomes part of a correct utterance.

For example:

Student: It was wash yesterday.

Teacher: A: Oh, it was washed. That's great.

The key idea is that you correct the error, and at the same time, maintain the natural flow of the conversation.

### **Prompt Group:**

If the student makes an error on the use of past tense, you should use the following techniques to elicit the correct forms from the students, allow them to say the correct forms themselves instead of giving them the correct forms.

For example:

Student: It was wash yesterday. Teacher

A: It was wash wash?

Or

B: Do we say "wash" for a past passive event?

C: Use past passive tense.

D: We don't say "make". What tense do we use for a past passive event?

The idea is that you withhold the correct form and use various cues to allow the students to correct their own errors.

### **Control Group**

When the student makes an error in the communicative activity, you can temporarily ignore the errors and continue with the activities. At the end of the activity, you provide the students with the list of regular and irregular past tense forms and ask the students to reflect on them.

**Verbs used in pre-treatment stage:**

Repair, fix, urine, collapse, type, break, hurt, wash, lock, sell, born, cook, study, rain, grow

**The Scoring Procedure**

Accuracy in the present study is operationalized as "the correct use of past passive tense forms in appropriate past tense context". The general criteria for coding and scoring the oral data are

a) the suppliance of the past passive tense forms in obligatory context

b) The accuracy of the past passive tense forms of these English verbs.

Specifically, the combination of a) and b) (i.e. the use of the correct form of the past passive tense of this particular verb in appropriate context) would grant the student "1" on the scoring chart next to the verb. For example, if the student says "it was cleaned ", then, next to the verb "fly" on the scoring sheet, you can put "1" because he/she uses the correct past passive tense form of the verb "clean" (i.e. was cleaned) in the appropriate past passive tense context. Similarly, as the student continues to narrate the story, the tense is already set in the past passive. Therefore, the student is supposed to use past passive tense consistently throughout the text.

However, if the student fails to supply the correct form of the past passive tense or use other tenses (including other past tense or present tense), the scoring procedure is as follows.

**You should score "0" next to the verb, if the student:**

- a) use other past tenses (e.g. past continuous tense, or past perfect tense, which then will not allow you to know whether he knows how to use past passive tense of this verb properly.)
- b) Completely miss the verb (according to the context, the student uses other verbs to replace this particular verb or simply ignore this part of the story and goes on with narrating the next sentence). However, sometimes, the students would go back and narrate this sentence again later. In this case, you will still score the verb according to these criteria.
- c) Use of infinitive form of the verb (e.g. "it was cleaned and to wash" instead of "it was cleaned and washed").
- d) Use bare form of the verb in past passive tense context (e.g. "it was clead").
- e) Use wrong/hybrid past passive tense form of this verb (e.g. it was seed at school ).
- f) Use of present tense in obligatory past tense context (e.g. It takes me 30 minutes to go back to Seoul the next morning.)

**Note:** In certain circumstances, the students would say a wrong form first and then self-correct. This is still considered correct if the second form used is correct. So a mark of "1" will be given to that verb.

**Scoring table of recast group**

fifteen random transitive verbs															Tota	
Student	pee k	penaliz e	knoc k	provid e	mov e	emplo y	remar k	ti e	finis h	stud y	nee d	flou t	searc h	se e		hea t

s No.																	1 scor e
1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	7	
2	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	8	
3	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	9	
4	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	5	
5	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	6	
6	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	5	
7	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	10	
8	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	
9	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	10	
10	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	7	
11	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	7	
12	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	3	
13	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	12	
14	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	5	
15	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	6	
16	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	10	
17	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	7	
18	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	8	
19	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	9	
20	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	7	

### Scoring table of prompt group

fifteen random transitive verbs																
Student No.	peek	penalize	knock	provide	move	employ	remark	tie	finish	study	need	flout	search	see	heat	Total score
1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	6
2	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	8
3	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	6
4	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	12
5	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	7
6	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	7
7	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	5
8	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	9
9	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	9
10	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	9
11	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4
12	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	4
13	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	5
14	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	9
15	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	8
16	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	10
17	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	6
18	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	7
19	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	6
20	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	5

### Scoring table of control group

Fifteen random transitive verbs																
Student No.	peek	penalize	knock	provide	move	employ	remark	tie	finish	study	need	float	search	see	heat	Total score
1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	6
2	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	6
3	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	4
4	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
5	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	6
6	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
7	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	6
8	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	7
9	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	9
10	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
11	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
12	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	8
13	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	6
14	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	6
15	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	6
16	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	5
17	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	5
18	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	6



19	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
20	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	6

#### **Appendix D: The Persian text used in treatment stage which was translated into English**

چند سال پیش برای مسافرت به سرعین رفتیم خیلی جاهاش عوض شده بود. چندین هتل بزرگ ساخته شده بود. مسافره‌های زیادی انجا بودند و ماشینهای زیادی در خیابان پارک شده بود. گشتیم تا جایی برای ماندن پیدا کنیم اما اکثر هتلها پر شده بود. سر اخر جایی را برا ماندن پیدا کردیم. اتاق گرم و راحتی بود. پنجره‌های بسته شده و اتاق کاملا تمیز شده بود. پنجره را باز کردم. یک یخچال در گوشه اتاق وجود داشت. داخل یخچال یک بطری بزرگ آب خنک گذاشته شده بود. بعد از گذاشتن وسایل برای شام بیرون رفتیم. باران باریده بود و هوا بادی بود. شام که خوردیم برگشتیم هتل شیشه پنجره شکسته شده بود و باد همه چیز را به هم زده بود. از مسئول هتل خواستیم تا اتاق تمیز شود و در آن مدت ما رفتیم به حیاط پشتی هتل انجا درختهای زیادی کاشته شده بود و استخر کوچکی که به رنگ ابی رنگ زده شده بود و پر از آب شده بود. در دیوارها عکسهایی از طبیعت زیبای آذربایجان کشیده شده بود. در بیرون هتل لامپهای زیبا و رنگی روشن شده بود. بعد برگشتیم به اتاق همه جا مرتب شده بود. دو روز بعد ما به خانه برگشتیم.

#### **Verbs used in post-treatment stage:**

peek, penalize, knock, provide, move, employ, remark, tie, finish, study, need, flout, search, see, heat

