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THE ROLE OF PROMPTS AS FOCUS ON FORM ON UPTAKE

A Dissertation Presented

By

Brian B. Boisvert

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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# THE ROLE OF PROMPTS AS FOCUS ON FORM ON UPTAKE

A Dissertation Presented

By

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## DEDICATION

I wholeheartedly dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Dr. Bill Boerner and our Rhea.

I remember the first day going up to UMass for orientation and you telling me that it would be fine and that I would make new friends. I remember you supporting my decisions to study abroad two more times and to go on numerous trips. I remember all of the support and help you provided me during the crestfallen times and the laughter and love you provided me during the good times. I am grateful to be a part of our family and look forward to the adventures that we will have together.

Now after all this time, the work is done, and is just beginning. Thank you.

123.

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## ABSTRACT

### THE ROLE OF PROMPTS AS FOCUS ON FORM ON UPTAKE

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Students are human beings; they, like all of us, make mistakes. In the language classroom, these mistakes may be written, spoken, and even thought. How, if, when, under what conditions and to what degree these errors are treated is of current concern in research regarding language acquisition. In their meta-analysis of interactional feedback, Mackey and Goo (2007) report that the utilization of feedback is beneficial and find evidence that feedback within the context of a focus on form environment is also facilitative of acquisition, echoing Norris and Ortega's (2000) positive findings regarding focus on form research. Thus, the role of feedback has found a somewhat limited, very informative and equally persuasive niche in current theory building and research.

There is lack of research specifically addressing the role and effects of forms of feedback, other than recasts, namely prompts, in the second language classroom where the focus is on language use as a means of communication rather than the objectification of it. This context employs focus on form, a brief pedagogical intervention that momentarily shifts the focus of the class from meaning to linguistic form (See Long, 1991). Because prompts withhold correct

forms (Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Saito, 2010), encourage students to simultaneously notice and self-correct (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), and push modified, student-generated output (de Bot, 1996; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 1995), they may be theoretically more appropriate for a focus on form context.

This study examines this role in its function and efficacy comparing an implicit prompt, the clarification request, with an explicit prompt, metalinguistic feedback on students' spoken errors in the use of a very complex target structure, the subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish. Efficacy of the feedback is measured through successful student uptake, that is, whether or not students are able to self-repair as a result of the intervention and then through development operationalized as mean gains in a pre-test/post-test design. Statistical significance is shown for uptake with metalinguistic feedback only, however no development is shown as a result of any feedback due to the target structure's acquisition complexity.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

“In so many learning situations, including task-based, content-based, bilingual, and immersion programs, it is this twin focus on language learning and learning through language that is sought by learners and society alike” (Long, 1996, p. 454).

#### 1.1 Context of the Problem

Students are human beings; they, like all of us, make mistakes. In the language classroom, these mistakes may be written, spoken, and even thought. How, if, when, under what conditions and to what degree these errors are treated is of current concern in research regarding language acquisition. In their meta-analysis of interactional feedback, Mackey and Goo (2007) report that the utilization of feedback is beneficial and find evidence that feedback within the context of a focus on form environment is also facilitative of acquisition, echoing Norris and Ortega's (2000) positive findings regarding focus on form research. Thus, the role of feedback has found a somewhat limited, very informative and equally persuasive niche in current theory building and research in the field of Second Language Acquisition. Due to the prevalence of research on recasts, there is lack of research specifically addressing the role and effects of other types of feedback, namely prompts, in the second language classroom where the

focus is on language use as a means of communication rather than the objectification of it. Because prompts withhold correct forms (Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Saito, 2010), encourage students to notice and self-correct in one move (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), and push modified, student-generated output (de Bot, 1996; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 1995), they may be theoretically more appropriate for a focus on form classroom setting in which there are momentary shifts from meaning to form. This dissertation examines this role in the function and efficacy of two types of feedback in a focus on form context.

## 1.2 Feedback

The role of feedback has been under scrutiny and has experienced changes reflecting the different theories and approaches within second language acquisition. In their meta-analysis of the effectiveness of corrective feedback, Russell and Spada (2006) find that corrective feedback does facilitate second language acquisition, but that more research is needed in order to describe how, when and in which ways. Swain (1998) finds that although immediate feedback may not be immediately effective, it does provide the learner with an opportunity to reflect on the error and reformulate the interlanguage by attempting to self-repair. There may be more value for students in hypothesizing and testing their own linguistic assumptions in order to come to their own conclusions. A possible benefit is that feedback may help the learner to self-regulate his/her own

language acquisition by simultaneously testing and evaluating personal hypotheses and strategies that may allow for more field-independent acquisition. This possible benefit is supported by Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985) which claims that, in order to facilitate and promote grammar acquisition, learners may participate in conversational exchanges that incorporate negotiation of meaning. These exchanges are thought to be "the source of acquisition derived from comprehensible output: output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the meaning desired" (p. 252). In being able to employ this language learning strategy, the student may also experience the benefit self-motivating activities and intrapersonal responsibility.

More recently, emergent research has focused on specific types of feedback and their effects. Lyster and Ranta (1997) were the first to identify and describe six different types of feedback: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition<sup>1</sup>. This research highlights the predominance of recasts and infrequency of metalinguistic feedback which display a non-linear relationship with respect to their effectiveness measured through uptake. Both classroom and laboratory research focusing on feedback has heavily explored recasts finding them to be more beneficial than other types of feedback or control groups in some studies, and less or equally beneficial to no feedback or other feedback types, such as

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<sup>1</sup> In their initial analysis for a conference paper presentation, Lyster and Ranta (1995) categorize translations as a separate feedback move. However, in their second analysis, they combine translations and recasts. Translations are operationalized as a type of recast because of their infrequency and they serve the same purpose as recasts (See Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47)

explicit correction, clarification requests, repetition, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback, in other studies. Doughty (2001) investigates recasts and finds that recasts are the most effective means of incorporating feedback into a focus on form setting because they allow for a direct contrast between forms: the original incorrect student utterance and the teacher-provided correct form. However, in direct opposition to Doughty's (2001) correlation between a focus on form setting and the effectiveness of recasts, Lyster and Mori (2006) find that, in accordance with their counterbalance hypothesis, recasts are more effective in contexts that allow for controlled production and emphasize accuracy and prompts are more effective in contexts that do not allow for controlled production and emphasize accuracy. Ellis and Sheen (2006) conclude that recasts may be beneficial if their corrective nature is in fact perceived and if they are intensively focused, assuming that the teacher is aware of the learners' levels of developmental readiness to acquire the new form. Leeman (2003) divides the components of recasts into negative evidence, enhanced salience, and repetition. She finds that recasts may be beneficial due to the enhanced salience of learner errors contained within them. Lyster and Saito (2010) find that feedback is facilitative of second language acquisition, that younger rather than older learners seem to be more receptive to feedback and that longer treatments have more durative effects. Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001) find that recasts work best when it is very clear to the learner that they are a reaction to the accuracy of the form of an original utterance. However, their research supporting the effectiveness of recasts also posits that they are most beneficial when addressing a production

error whose linguistic feature is already in the interlanguage but not yet reflective of the target language structure. Long and Robinson (1998) find that recasts are effective in providing learners with exemplars of the differences between their interlanguages and the target language. Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000) find, in relation to students' perceptions about the focus of the feedback provided, that students are less likely to perceive feedback when it is in the form of a recast and focuses on morphosyntax; however, learners are more likely to perceive the negative evidence in feedback provided in the form of negotiation when focusing on phonology and lexis.

Additional research has also examined and found inherent problems with recasts and have therefore explored other types of feedback. Lyster (2004) finds in favor of prompts, feedback moves that are devoid of correct forms but push learners to reformulate, over recasts and no feedback on a written test, but results are similar for prompts and recasts and no feedback for an oral test. Results also favor small group/class environments with multiple opportunities for intensive practice and interaction that focuses on a particular linguistic feature. Muranoi (2000) finds positive effects from metalinguistic feedback on the development of articles in a communicative environment with interaction enhancement. Carpenter et. al. (2006) find that access to the context of the original utterance is crucial in order for learners to recognize recasts as recasts and not repetitions, otherwise, they are too ambiguous (See chapter 2 for more on the ambiguity of recasts).

Very little published research to date has dealt specifically with clarification requests. Iwashita (2003) compares implicit negative feedback, operationalized as recasts and negotiation moves, with positive evidence, operationalized as feedback models that “follows a NNS’s targetlike or incomplete utterance and provides a target model of the grammatical structures under study” (Iwashita, 2003, p. 15). In this study, negotiation moves are categorized as repetitions, clarification requests and confirmation checks. Benefits for positive evidence are found with only those students who originally had scored high on the pre-test while implicit negative feedback is beneficial for all students, especially in regards to short-term grammatical development, and is not limited to learner aptitude. Taken separately, the feedback move that proves to be the most effective in this study is the recast. Loewen and Nabei (2007) find an overall benefit to the incorporation of feedback over no feedback, but little differences between recasts, metalinguistic clues and clarification requests. Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) investigate the differential effects of clarification requests and recasts in dyadic interaction and find that they are equally effective when intensive and always with the opportunity to repair after a clarification request only. Students are not able to self-repair or reformulate after a recast because the targetlike form will have already been provided for them in the recast itself, however, because prompts do not provide the target form, students do have the opportunity to reformulate or self-repair (Lyster and Izquierdo, 2009). On the other hand, some benefits have been associated with the use of recasts. If and when salient enough to be noticed by the learner, recasts may help bridge the

gap between the non-target student utterance and the correct form (Doughty, 2001; Leeman, 2003; Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998; Nichols, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001; Schmidt, 1993). Recasts may also be beneficial in the acquisition of new forms (Bradi, 2002; Ellis, 1997; Gass, 2003), however this perspective contrasts with Nichols, Lightbown, and Spada's (2001) assertion that recasts may be beneficial for learners who have already begun to use a new form, but have not yet fully acquired the correct form, that is to say, a preexisting linguistic form that exists in the interlanguage but is not yet reflective of the target language structure.

Research has also proposed theories against the provision of feedback altogether within the realm of second language acquisition. Truscott (1999) proposes an abandonment altogether of classroom feedback, however, he does recognize the possible value of untested combinations of environments and feedback types. He suggests that the use of feedback specifically regarding oral grammar correction is due to "the dead hand of Behaviourism" (p. 450). Because of the perceived connection between stimulus and response according to Behaviorism, any production that included an error was to be addressed immediately in an effort to break any bonds that might have lead to more incorrect utterances. This influence from Behaviorism lead to the noninterventionist approaches of Krashen and Terrell (See Krashen & Terrell, 1983, for a description of the Natural Approach). Krashen's Monitor Model takes into consideration the role of feedback, but only in the sense that it could be effective in monitored production, not spontaneous production and therefore,

should not be incorporated because input alone is hypothesized to be enough for language acquisition (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1984, 1992).

Lyster (2004) operationalizes prompts as feedback moves that differ from both recasts and explicit correction in that they “withhold correct forms (and other signs of approval) and instead offer learners an opportunity to self-repair by generating their own modified response” (p. 405). In a previous co-authored publication, Lyster and Ranta (1997) find recasts to be the predominant (55%) feedback form used in their body of data with a 31% rate of uptake, while metalinguistic feedback reflect the lowest frequency, 8%, with an uptake rate of 86%. Clarification requests reflect an 11% frequency rate with an uptake rate of 84%. Figure 1 below illustrates the comparison of the feedback form. Integration of these types of feedback and empirical analysis regarding their individual and compared effectiveness in a focus on form setting is thus far missing within the published literature of the field of second language acquisition.

	Frequency	Rate of uptake: Self-repair
Recasts	55%	31%
Metalinguistic Feedback	8%	86%
Clarification Request	11%	84%

Figure 1. Adapted from Lyster and Ranta (1997), p. 53-54.

### 1.3 Focus on Form

Focus on form, also known as FonF, is most commonly associated with Michael Long in 'Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology' (1991) in which he envisions focus on form as a way to relieve the tension "between the desirability of communicative use of the FL in the classroom, on the one hand, and the felt need for a linguistic focus in language learning, on the other" (p. 41). Long (1991) proposes the teaching in a way that momentarily shifts from a focus on meaning and language for communication as prescribed by Communicative Language Teaching (Richards & Rogers, 2001) to a focus on linguistic forms; in other words, grammar focused pedagogical intervention that meets the requirements of Communicative Language Teaching (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

Long proposes that focus on form be seen as a pedagogical intervention on behalf of the teacher in which errors that are "(1) systematic, (2) pervasive and (3) remediable" (p. 46), be brought to the attention of all students, both the student who made the error as well as classmates. This type of pedagogical intervention opposes Lee and VanPatten's (1995) assertion that learners are incapable of attending to meaning and form at the same time and therefore propose that processing instruction, a form of modified input, is a way in which learners may be focused on form without the need to take into consideration the learner's second language production.

Norris and Ortega (2000), in their meta-analysis of research, report confirmation for the positive effectiveness of focus on form instruction. There are benefits associated with the integration of a focus on form instruction in the language classroom. Research by Ellis, Loewen, and Basturkmen (2006) shows that there is a strong benefit when teaching in a way that reflects an extensive distribution, as well as a limited one. They claim that focus on form “would appear especially beneficial for structures that are difficult to acquire ‘naturally’...[while focus on form] serves as one way in which linguistic form can be addressed extensively (rather than intensively) and also helps learners develop confidence and fluency in communicating” (p. 137). DeKeyser (1998) describes the benefits in that they “test and refine declarative knowledge” which, according to his Interface Position, is capable of becoming procedural knowledge (p. 55). For a discussion on the conversion of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge, see Anderson (1982) and Bialystok (1981) for a discussion on implicit and explicit knowledge. In comparing focus on form with formal instruction, Long (1991) finds three distinct benefits: (1) while the sequences of language acquisition do not seem to be able to be rerouted, the speed at which a learner passes through them may be hastened; (2) the means by which focus on form is employed may be better at effecting the long term memory as opposed to just the short term memory (see also Doughty 2001); and (3) the ultimate level of achievement may also be raised. Doughty and Williams (1998) also echo the sentiment that focus on form promotes language acquisition, accuracy, and communicability better than not providing any

feedback to a naturalistic setting or classroom. Finally, Doughty (2001), in her assessment of cognitive correlates to focus on form, examines speech processing as well as linguistic encapsulation, both of which were thought to be fixed, and points out that they actually may be able to be adjusted, however, only when treated by appropriately timed interruptions and are easily understood by the student. In order to see the long term benefits of focus on form in language classes, more research will need to be undertaken.

Focus on form is important to this dissertation because it serves as a model for classroom language instruction as well as a theoretical framework within which and in regards to how errors are treated in oral language production. Classroom language instruction follows a focus on form model in that the focus is on multiple topic-specific conversations in the target language as a means of communication without any specific grammatical focus. That is, language is the mode and the means, but not the objectification of classroom study. Errors are treated when they are methodical, may cause confusion to other participants, and are able to be treated briefly within the context of the student's utterances without significantly interrupting the flow of communication.

#### 1.4 Statement of the Problem

There is a lack of research that examines and evaluates the kinds of prompts that are incorporated into the communicative classroom. This dissertation specifically expands upon that investigative body by taking into

consideration a focus on form context that emphasizes language use over language objectification while identifying and exemplifying how and to what extent feedback enhances classroom language learning.

Student-centered, communicative, individualized language teaching may be considered to be one of the most efficient ways of acquiring another language, however, in practical terms, it is not a likely possibility. Pedagogical practicality and theoretical possibility have found a link in focus on form in that, according to Long (2000) it is an appropriate means of grammar teaching due to its student-centered, individualized approach and because it is in tune to the student's current developmental levels and interlanguage imperfections.

It has been shown that feedback, also referred to as corrective feedback, negative input and negative evidence aid in language acquisition. Russell and Spada (2006), in their meta-analysis of corrective feedback on second language acquisition, examine 56 studies and find that corrective feedback does facilitate language acquisition, but note that there is still much work to be done regarding which combinations of settings and feedback types. Also, in their meta-analysis of interaction research on conversation, Mackey and Goo (2007) find that interaction assumes a strong facilitative role with respect to the acquisition of targeted lexical and grammatical items; however, they illuminate the need for greater theoretical specificity about the types of feedback and show that intensively structured feedback is likely to be more effective than extensively structured feedback. In another meta-analysis, Lyster and Saito (2010) analyze 15 classroom oral feedback studies and find that corrective feedback has



Recasts

Explicit correction

Figure 2. Feedback continuum of implicitness/explicitness as adapted from Lyster and Saito (2010).

### 1.5 Contextualization of this Research

This study compares an implicit prompt (clarification requests) with an explicit prompt (metalinguistic feedback.) Effectiveness is measured through the analysis of the feedback episodes using a Chi-Square Test and a pre-test/post-test design feature will examine the development that may occur as a result of the feedback treatments on one target structure. The results of this research may be applicable to educational contexts where the target language is both the subject of study as well as the means of communication. It also considers a focus-on-form context in which the focus of the educational context is on communication, in which correction is planned and reactive, and the teacher is pro-active in providing feedback (Long, 1991); however, this instructional setting utilizes one specific form of prompt per group of participants. In order to measure the acquisitional effects that the treatments have on students, one grammatical structure is selected that coincides with themes in the students' textbooks. This study focuses on the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses. While any error in oral student production may be treated throughout the course of the semester, only data collected regarding the subjunctive in nominal clauses is analyzed. Other errors are treated only using the prescribed feedback type.

This study is based on reactive, planned focus-on-form as defined by Ellis (2001). He conceptualizes reactive focus on form as “the negative feedback teachers provide in response to learners’ actual or perceived errors” (p. 23). In his detailed analysis and investigation of focus on form, Ellis differentiates between implicit and explicit negative feedback. According to this differentiation along with the continuum of explicitness and implicitness as offered in Figure 2, clarification requests is considered to be implicit negative feedback while metalinguistic feedback is considered to be explicit negative feedback.

#### 1.6 Purpose of Dissertation

The purpose of this study is to apply, analyze and understand the impact of two different types of prompts on adult learners of Spanish in an academic, communicative, second language setting. Meta-analyses have provided very useful findings regarding the efficacy of classroom feedback. Mackey and Goo (2007) compare 28 interactional studies and report that the provision of feedback has beneficial results and support the theory that feedback achieved through focus on form is also beneficial. Similarly, Russell and Spada (2006) compare 15 feedback studies and find that feedback advances L2 development. However, they caution researchers to examine and pinpoint which of the many variables are most advantageous.

The theoretically driven purpose of this dissertation is threefold. First, the experiment seeks to confirm data presented by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster (1998) regarding the effectiveness of prompts in the communicative second language learning context. Second, the experimental design compares two feedback moves that, 1) specifically elicit uptake and, 2) prompt students to self-repair (Lyster, 2004) and, 3) lie on opposite ends of the explicit-implicit continuum (see Lyster and Saito, 2010). Finally, this experiment examines claims made in meta-analyses regarding language acquisition as a result of feedback intervention as measured through development, that is, gains from pre-test to post-test scores.

The contributive purpose of this research, detailed in Chapter 5, informs the field of study, focusing specifically on classroom feedback and focus on form, within the context of second language acquisition theory. Pedagogical implications will consider the gap between emerging theory and classroom practicality and may be applicable to language teaching contexts in which the focus is on communication with brief, short interruptions to focus on language forms (See Long, 1991).

## 1.7 Research Questions

Six research questions guide the investigation of the effectiveness of clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback in a communicative context that allows free response and that does not emphasize grammatical accuracy,

but rather oral, communicative participation in the second language. This research also expands upon Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam's (2006) experimental study which reports that participants who received metalinguistic feedback were more effective in post-test scores over participants who received either no feedback or recasts.

The uptake of two types of prompts are compared in this study: metalinguistic clues and clarification requests. Lyster (2004) defines 'metalinguistic clues' as feedback that provides "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance" (p. 405). Lyster (2004) defines 'clarification requests' as "phrases such as "Pardon me" and "Don't understand" used to indicate that the student's message has either been misunderstood or ill formed" (p. 405). Prompts are differentiated from recasts and explicit correction in that they do not provide a correct form but rather permit authentic uptake, that is they provide the student with an opportunity to self-repair and reformulate the original utterance based on the contents of his or her own interlanguage(See Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Lyster & Saito, 2010). Research questions focus on the differences in and types of uptake between the two types of prompts, the effectiveness of explicit and implicit prompts, as well as students perceptions of the prompts.

In accordance with published literature on the effectiveness of prompts, this research specifically addresses the rates of uptake after a feedback intervention that is either composed of metalinguistic feedback or a clarification request.

Research question: What are the effects of feedback resulting from both clarification requests and metalinguistic teacher-initiated feedback as measured through uptake on student produced morphosyntactic errors?

To answer this question, the following five sub-questions break down the elements of the research question in order to more fully explore it:

1A. Does a clarification request (implicit corrective feedback) after an error during oral student production promote uptake? What kind of uptake? If uptake does not occur, what is the result?

1B. Does metalinguistic feedback (explicit corrective feedback) after an error during oral student production promote uptake? What kind of uptake? If uptake does not occur, what is the result?

1C. Does morphosyntactic error correction respond better to explicit or implicit corrective feedback concerning uptake?

1D. Does feedback either in the form of a clarification request or metalinguistic feedback lead to development of the target form in the interlanguage?

1E. What are the students' perceptions of the teacher's attempts at error correction treatments?

## 1.8 Thesis Outline

This research conforms to the following five chapter format after this introductory chapter. Chapter 2 describes the terminology used in the dissertation along with an in-depth review of published literature regarding

feedback and focus on form. Chapter 3 details the methodology of the experiment. Included here are an introduction, sampling method, procedures for dyadic interactions, the role of all participants, instrumentation, limitations, delimitations, and reliability. Chapter 4 presents an in-depth analysis of the collected data. Tables and charts related to the analysis are presented within this chapter. Initial conclusions are drawn based on information. Chapter 5 further investigates conclusions, contextualizes research findings within the field of language acquisition, feedback research, focus on form research and pedagogy. Research questions are explicitly answered based on experiment findings and recommendations for further research are explored. Finally, the appendices contain all referenced materials throughout the text.

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Introduction

This research compares two different feedback treatments within a specific classroom context. Within the theoretical framework of focus on form as a means of error treatment (see Long, 1991; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Doughty and Williams, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998; DeKeyser, 1998; Norris & Ortega, 2000. Doughty, 2001; Ellis, Loewen, and Basturkmen, 2006), two groups of students will receive two different types of prompts: metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests. Measurements will examine rates of uptake within student-generated repair that results from a shift in pedagogical focus from meaning and content based conversation to grammatical forms, here the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses.

This first part of this chapter will present clear definitions of the terminology used throughout the dissertation as they relate to the field and published research. The review of literature is organized according to categories of feedback and other research to support the theoretical background of this

study. Only published research from 1988-2010 is included. Similar to Lyster and Saito (2010), this study will not consider any fugitive data because of the similar intent to focus on the current state of the field of feedback studies based on published literature (p. 272). The sections of this chapter are arranged in the following order: Introduction, Terminology, Examples of feedback, Review of research on feedback, Focus on Form research, and Conclusion where some contributions of the current research are situated within the nexus of the aforementioned research and the contents of the next chapter are detailed.

## 2.2. Terminology

Recast: A 'recast' is a form of feedback that acts as a target-like reformulation of a language learner's non-target-like form (See Nassaji, 2009; Long, 1996; Long and Robinson, 1998; Gass, 2000; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; McDonough & Mackey, 2006). Ellis (2001) classifies the recast as implicit negative feedback.

Uptake: 'Uptake' is the student's response to a teacher's feedback intervention. Some research has expanded the term. For Lyster and Ranta (1997), uptake refers specifically a "student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance (this overall intention is clear to the student although the teacher's specific linguistic focus may not be)" (p. 49). Mackey, Gass and McDonough

(2000) operationalize uptake in their study to refer to “the learners’ modification of their original utterance following the NS’s [native speaker’s] provision of feedback through recasts or negotiation” (p. 492).

Clarification request: A ‘clarification request’ is a pedagogical move on the part of the teacher which, according to Lyster and Ranta (1997) serves to “indicate to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required” (p. 47). Ellis (2001) classifies the clarification request as implicit negative feedback and Lyster and Saito (2010) classify it as falling into the category of prompts, and within that classification, further categorize them as being on the implicit end of the implicit-explicit continuum. They are implicit because they may be mistaken by the learner as feedback on meaning or form and therefore are more ambiguous than metalinguistic cues (See Chaudron, 1977).

Metalinguistic feedback: ‘Metalinguistic feedback’ is a forms focused approach to providing negative feedback to the student. Lyster and Ranta (1997) define metalinguistic feedback as any feedback move that provides or “contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form” (p. 47). Ellis (2001) classifies metalinguistic feedback as explicit negative feedback. It may be seen as beneficial due to its ability to enhance salience, especially in communicative contexts where emphasis is on form and meaning, not forms. Long (1991) proposes focus on form in which the teaching of a linguistic feature

may be done in a way that momentarily shifts from a focus on meaning and language for communication as prescribed by Communicative Language Teaching (Richards & Rogers, 2001) to a focus on linguistic forms; in other words, grammar focused pedagogical intervention that meets the requirements of Communicative Language Teaching (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Similar in name and on the other end of the theoretical spectrum is focus on forms. Ellis (2001) defines focus on forms as an approach whose “underlying assumption is that language learning is a process of accumulating distinct entities. In such an approach, learners are required to treat language primarily as an “object” to be studied and practiced bit by bit and to function as students rather than as users of that language” (p. 14). Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) see very positive effects for momentary shifts of focus from form to forms and brief feedback episodes focusing on metalinguistic feedback on ungrammatical past tense constructions; they operationalize metalinguistic feedback as “explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic information” (p. 353). For the purposes of this study, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic clues, and metalinguistic cues will be understood to be interchangeable terms as they are in published literature on feedback. Metalinguistic feedback is operationalized on the far explicit end of prompts (See Lyster & Saito, 2010, p. 278).

Three different types of modes of feedback may be provided through the implementation of metalinguistic feedback: comments, information and questions. Lyster and Ranta (1997) describe the comments as error markers (e.g., “Así no se dice en español,” “There is an error,” or “No”). Comments may

be seen as the most implicit in that they provide the least amount of information and specificity of the three metalinguistic feedback moves because they only refer to the existence of an error. Metalinguistic information integrates metalanguage into the feedback turn and is the most explicit in nature because it directly refers to the existence of an error, the location, and provides the information needed to repair the error (e.g., “Use past tense, not imperfect,” “Es masculino,” or “*Querer* is an irregular verb.”). Metalinguistic questions directly signal the existence and location of the problem in the previous student utterance and the nature of the error, however, different from metalinguistic information, a metalinguistic question seeks to elicit the information from the student as well as the correct form (e.g., “Did you only go once when you were a child?”, “Is *agua* masculine or feminine?”, or “¿Es el verbo en la cláusula independiente un verbo de volición?”). This study employs metalinguistic information as the specific type of feedback when in reference to error treatment in the methodology.

Focus on Form: Conceptualized as a “design feature in language teaching methodology”, ‘focus on form’ was originally proposed by Long (1991). Long(1991) calls for three specific elements: (1) a communicatively focused context, in other words, not one in which language is objectified but rather contextualized; (2) the focus on form must occur incidentally as opposed to in a planned manner; and (3) the teacher must be pro-active in addressing student error productions as opposed to assuming that the student who made the error or other students will notice and address the problem. The context for this experiment meets the these qualifications of Long’s definition. The activities from

which data is collected are focused activities, meaning that students will be asked questions that should prompt them to use a specific form that will be treated in a specific, reactive manner if and when they occur, however, because of the communicative nature of the context, this pre-planned type of feedback is not as deliberate as in studies such as Tomasello and Herron (1988) in which students were forced into making transfer errors and any prompting questions used to elicit data reflect a natural conversational style. Focus on form may be seen as beneficial due its perceived ability to hasten rates of acquisition, because it may work with processes linked to long-term memory and because it may also raise the ultimate level of achievement (Long, 1991, p. 45).

Repair: A 'repair' is a student-generated reformulation generally located in his or her own uptake. Carpenter et al. (2006) operationalized repair as "uptake that leads to a correction of the error treated by the teacher" (p. 214). Unlike the classification of repair, needs-repair is a student-generated, ungrammatical reformulation located in his or her own uptake.

Prompt: A 'prompt' is the type of implicit or explicit feedback that Lyster (2004) defines as being clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitation or repetitions. Prompts may be seen as appropriate to the focus on form context because, as in cases within immersion contexts, because reformulations which provide for the "continued recasting of what students already know [which] may prove to be less effective for promoting the restructuring of interlanguage representations and the proceduralization of competing target-like representations" (p. 406, Lyster, 2004). It is this aforementioned promotion of

restructured interlanguage and proceduralization of competing target-like representations that prompts may be able to address more directly and actively. All forms of feedback except recasts, translations, and explicit correction are seen as prompts.

Interlanguage: Interlanguage is a term coined by Selinker (1972) to refer to a developing system activated by second language learners when they attempt to learn a second language. It is operationalized as a “set of utterances for most learners of a second language [that] is not identical to the hypothesized corresponding set of utterances which would have been produced by a native speaker of the TL [target language] had he attempted to express the same meaning as the learner” (p. 214). It is this produced language, observable through the second language learner’s attempted output of a target language norm, that is the basis for the measurement of development in this study (Selinker, 1972, p. 214). Here, development is measured through a pre-test/post-test design that establishes a baseline of the participants’ linguistic abilities regarding the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish.

### 2.3 Examples of Feedback

The following section provides examples of contextualized feedback moves from published literature on feedback. Included here are comparisons between the varying degrees of metalinguistic explicitness within examples. See Figure 2, page 14 above for a description of the explicit-implicit continuum of

metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests. A gloss and translation for all examples not in English can be found in Appendix G.

### 2.3.1 Metalinguistic Feedback

Learner:	He kiss her
Researcher:	Kiss--you need past tense.
Learner:	He kissed

Figure 3. Example of Metalinguistic Feedback (See Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006)

Figure 3 refers to an interaction between a researcher and a participant in Ellis et. al. (2006). In this example, the learner makes a morphosyntactic mistake by neglecting to add the past-tense English suffix *-ed* to the utterance. The feedback move, in this case in the form of metalinguistic information, initiated by the researcher, responds to this error by first repeating the incorrect element, and then using metalanguage in order to prompt the learner to self-correct. This intervention allows for a brief shift in order to focus on the form that allows the student to note the difference between the correct L2 form and his own interlanguage. The learner then reformulates his utterance, however, he does not complete his sentence. This provision of metalinguistic information allows the learner to self-correct as a result of a brief interruption by the researcher in a way that is non-intrusive, and allows for accurate L2 usage.

L:	yesterday Joe and Bill ah went to ah Bill's grandmother and visit their grandmother =
T:	= and visit > you need past tense
L:	Visited, yes

Figure 4. Example of Metalinguistic Feedback (See Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006, p. 363.)

In Figure 4, the interaction in Ellis et. al. (2006) between teacher (T) and learner (L) is briefly interrupted in order to focus on the grammatical form by means of metalinguistic feedback in the form of information. Initially, the learner makes an error on the verb *visit* by neglecting to include the suffix *-ed* when the past tense is needed. The teacher quickly intervenes, repeats the incorrect element, the verb, and provides a metalanguage to describe the error. The learner then immediately reformulates his utterance and affirms that he has understood. Example 2 provides an example of metalinguistic feedback that contains also a repetition, another kind of prompt. Repetition may be included in both metalinguistic feedback as well as clarification requests. The purpose of this inclusion is provide more localized and less vague feedback (See Lyster, 1998a, p. 68).

Student:	*Parce qu'elle cherche, euh, son, son carte.
Teacher:	Pas son carte.
Student:	Euh, sa carte?

Figure 5. Example of Metalinguistic Feedback (See Lyster, 2004)

In Figure 5, taken from an interaction in the French immersion setting that provided the basis of analysis for Lyster's (2004) study comparing the effects of recasts and prompts on grammatical gender, the student commits a gender error by marking the feminine noun *carte* with a masculine article. In response to this error, the teacher then repeats the error referring to the fact that the student's utterance is incorrect. Under the auspices of metalinguistic feedback, this example reflects a metalinguistic comment. Finally, the student reformulates his original utterance reflecting accurate L2 usage, however it can be assumed that he does so interrogatively as a means of looking for affirmation that his newly reformulated utterance is correct. Due to the nature of intertextual examples, some assumptions have to be made about the intentions of the participants.

St:	Euhm, le, le éléphant. Le éléphant gronde. [Error-multiple]
T5:	Est-ce qu'on dit le éléphant? [FB-metalinguistic]

Figure 6. Example of Metalinguistic Feedback (See Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Also taken from another French immersion setting, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) observational study on the frequency of feedback type and uptake provides an example containing a the treatment of a grammatical error can be

seen in Figure 6. First, the student commits an error of conjunction between the article *le* and the noun *éléphant*, which, upon being uttered together, become *l'éléphant*. The teacher in this instance provides feedback in the form of a metalinguistic question in regards to whether or not saying *le éléphant* is permissible. This form of feedback points directly to the error and, like all other forms of metalinguistic feedback, prompts the learner to reformulate. However, a metalinguistic question challenges the student's interlanguage manifestation in a way that seeks both affirmation as well as reformulation. What cannot be deduced from this example is whether or not any intonation was placed on the incorrect utterance during the teacher turn. Additional emphasis would constitute more explicitness.

### 2.3.2 Clarification Request

S1:	I'm look for a room, or
S2:	I will take you
T:	What?
S2:	I'll take you

Figure 7. Example of Clarification Request (See Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002)

The clarification request in Figure 7 from Ellis et. al.'s (2002) article on focus on form and its manifestations, takes place in the third turn in the episode

when the teacher (T) says, “What?” in reaction to a perceived error by student #2 (S2). This feedback maneuver is a vague clarification request in that it does not reference either the kind or location of the error. Additionally, the ambiguous nature of this episode is exacerbated in that there is no breakdown in meaning, but rather form alone. Student #2 then reformulates his original utterance assuming that the error was on the lack of cliticization of the subject *I* and the helping verb *will*. This clarification may have been in response to a lack of accuracy, in other words, a breakdown in form as opposed to meaning since the interlocutor should have understood the original utterance.

L1:	What do you spend with your wife?
T:	What? (clarification request)
L1:	What do you spend your extra time with your wife?
T:	Ah, how do you spend? (reduced recast)
L2:	How do you spend.

Figure 8. Example of Clarification Request (See Ellis & Sheen, 2006, p. 581.)

In Figure 8, another interaction with two students and one teacher from Ellis and Sheen’s (2006) article chronicling empirical studies that compare prompts with recasts, student #1 asks the teacher a personal question in which he confuses the interrogatives *What* and *How* as well as commits a mistake regarding the omission of the word *time*. The teacher then responds with a vague clarification request. The request is vague because it does not refer to

any specific error and in this case, may reflect a lack of accuracy and comprehension.

Student:	Et le coccinelle..."And the (M) ladybug."
Teacher:	Pardon? "Sorry?"
Student:	La coccinelle..."The (F) ladybug." (p. 405).

Figure 9. Example of Clarification Request (See Lyster, 2004)

In Figure 9, taken from a French immersion program study whose data was originally analyzed in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, Lyster reexamines the categories of feedback moves. In exemplifying the clarification request, he offers this example. In this three move episode, the student first commits an error in regards to the gender of the noun *coccinelle*. The student marks the noun with the masculine definite article *le*. The teacher then provides feedback in the form of a clarification request. This may also be considered an example of a vague clarification request because in responding with *Pardon?*, the teacher neither refers to a specific type or location of any error.

St:	Est-ce que, est-ce qu je peux fait une carte sur le...por mon petit frère sur le computer? [Error-multiple]
T6:	Pardon? [FB-clarification]

Figure 10. Example of Clarification Request (See Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

In Figure 10 from Lyster and Ranta (1997), the student first asks if he can write out a letter to his brother on the computer. This question contains a variety of errors. In response to this query, the teacher provides a vague clarification request by saying *Perdon?*. Example 9 is a good representation of why a vague clarification request may be classified as such because it has a variety of errors, ranging from grammatical to possibly lexical depending on the dialect as well as phonological or even auditory. There is no reference to any specific error, nor is there to any type of error, in other words, the clarification request may be in response to a breakdown in meaning, form or simply the teacher's inability to hear.

## 2.4 Review of Research on Feedback

In this review of research on feedback, the following order will be maintained with the goal of presenting a description of the field in terms of published research alone. First, in section 2.4.1., meta-analyses from the field will situate some major findings from studies pertaining to research on feedback. Section 2.4.2., which chronicles research on feedback from 1988 to 1997, begins with the first major publication on feedback and the treatment of errors by Tomasello and Herron (1989). Section 2.4.3. begins with Lyster and Ranta's

(1997) major observational study pertaining to the frequency and effectiveness of classroom feedback. This article serves as a chronological cut off point because it is in the publication of this article that the terminology of feedback in the field of classroom second language acquisition is established. Here, the published works of Roy Lyster and his contemporaries are detailed in chronological order. Section 2.4.4. presents other related research published concurrently during the 90s and into the 2000s. Within section 2.4.4., three strains of research are established to detail research on feedback. The first, section 2.4.4.1., Prompts and Prompts, details research that compares two or more different kinds of prompts. Then, section 2.4.4.2., Prompts and Recasts, details research that compares prompts (both specific types and a variety) with recasts. Finally, the section 2.4.4.3. highlights six different studies that may be considered to be important to the discussion of feedback but do not specifically fit into any pre-assigned feedback categories. Lastly, section 2.5. presents some research in the field of focus on form with the purpose of establishing and situating this dissertation within this communicative classroom context.

In order to establish a justification for the study of feedback before the description of the state of the field, below is a brief summary of some of the findings from three different meta-analysis studies that specifically address feedback. Further justification for this study will be incorporated into the findings.

#### 2.4.1 Meta-analysis Research

In their meta-analysis of research pertaining to the effectiveness of feedback, Russell and Spada (2006) report that corrective feedback does facilitate second language acquisition, but that more research is needed in order to describe how, when and in which ways. This dissertation takes from Russell and Spada's (2006) findings that feedback does in fact facilitate language acquisition and adds to their findings by comparing two different kinds of feedback that prompt learners to reformulate their incorrect utterances.

In Mackey and Goo's (2007) meta-analysis of interaction research finds that, along with other benefits, focus on form through corrective feedback is effective, and corrective feedback is more effective in delayed post-tests rather than immediate post-tests and when it is focused on a specific linguistic feature (p. 425). They report that corrective feedback seems to be more effective when it is intensive rather than extensive, that is, when there is a specific linguistic focus instead of arbitrarily addressing errors or treating every error. However, their findings do suggest that corrective feedback in laboratory studies has a greater effect. One reason for the effectiveness of corrective feedback in laboratories over classrooms may be explained in part by Swain's (1998) position regarding class sizes: "Teachers' availability during collaborative activities and their attention to the accuracy of the 'final' product subsequent to the completion of collaborative activities are potentially critical aspects of student learning" (p. 80). A correlation between class sizes and corrective feedback has not yet been established or studied.

Lyster and Saito (2010) report numerous findings, including that feedback is facilitative of second language acquisition, that younger rather than older learners seem to be more receptive to feedback and that longer treatments have more durative effects.

#### 2.4.2 Early Feedback Research

Herron and Tomasello (1988) in a first attempt to examine transfer errors in French, specifically negation and direct object pronoun placement, examine the effects of explicit correction on  $N=32$  adult, introductory French learners using the direct method. While this study does take place in a classroom, the researchers admit it is more of a laboratory study and results should be taken as such. Participants engage in constructed response activities, teacher-student oral interviews consisting of 10 specific questions for each target structure immediately after a grammatical training session on each structure. After the oral test, participants engage in a written test covering the same material but with different questions. This study compares the roles of modeling, extensive input with little to no opportunity for output, with feedback responses to student's incorrect output. Modeling here is conceptualized as a passive activity while feedback is envisioned as an active activity that does allow for participation. Findings suggest that feedback may be better than modeling in the treatment of transfer errors in French. Affectively, feedback may have allowed participants to feel safe. Regarding data collection, a major problem that the researchers face

here is a design flaw in the methodology, operationalization of terminology, and realization of the measurement activity. Participants were aware at the time of data collection that the test did not count. This misalignment with the context of other activities of the course may have permitted for a different data set. The authors do not clarify which types of feedback are used, nor do they provide examples of the treatment. Further research comparing any means of feedback should take into consideration the context in which data is collected and the means by which it is collected. The mismatch of data collection activities in the contexts in which they take place may provide for data that is not generalizable. Also noted here is the discord between data collected in a laboratory setting and its generalizability to classroom practices, which the authors note.

In their second and pioneering work on feedback, Tomasello and Herron (1989) discuss the Garden Path approach to error correction in which students are elicited into making a mistake that is then immediately corrected using explicit error correction. As a target structure for correction, Tomasello and Herron have chosen problems resulting in transfer from English to French. In this study, students are set up to make the mistake that the researchers were hoping for, and upon doing so, receive a feedback that did not allow them to correct themselves. With a participant group of  $N=32$ , two participant groups receive different treatments, the Garden Path and a control group who received no feedback or production opportunity. Results suggest that when given the opportunity to produce output, even at the level of a translation, may have a

much stronger effect on language acquisition than the control group which received no feedback and did not have the opportunity to engage in said output.

Due to the nature of this study and the target structure, the incorporation of translation as a means of corrective feedback is also featured. At the time, in the late 1980s, during the onset of feedback as a field of research, this was seen as a revolutionary move in that students were prompted to make mistakes and a translation was considered to be a developmental feedback move. This prompting to commit an error and immediately treat it may also have roots in a more behaviorist understanding of language learning. Now, after more than 20 years, the field of study that accounts for error correction in the second language (corrective feedback, negative/positive evidence, prompts, reformulations, focus on form, etc.) has taken a different direction in that errors are not elicited or pre-emptive, but rather reactive, and treated when and if they arise under circumstances that may or may not cause the use of the target structure in the student language production (See Long, 1991, for an introduction to Focus on Form as a design feature in communicative language teaching). Upon committing any type of error, the new recommendations, stemming theory being built from empirical research, would have students be prompted to make efforts at changing their utterance using their interlanguage, or in the case of a 0-interlanguage linguistic target, a recast or other form of teacher-initiated reformulation may be recommended.

In a follow up article on the efficacy of the Garden Path correction strategy, Herron (1991) examines the explicit correction of over-generalization

errors in learners of French. Here, Herron advocates for the incorporation of feedback into the classroom. This recommendation may have been somewhat revolutionary, depending on the language learning context and the dueling methodological practices. During this time, the era of the Natural Approach and modeling was at an end and the field saw the onset of more communicative, output-based approaches<sup>2</sup>.

Also during the early 1990s, the concept of focus on form was born out of Long's (1991) pivotal article. Herron (1991) does not align with what Long (1991) operationalizes as a pedagogical intervention. The means of correction in Tomasello and Herron (1989) and Herron (1991) reflect an interruption. It is both teacher-centered and supposedly non-threatening in that no one student is singled out, and the student response is choral. While this approach to feedback and common errors may be prescribed to other languages and contexts (Herron, 1991, page 976), it may be best for just generalization and not necessarily all oral errors; also, it is prescribed to be best within a context that favors cognitive comparison which are the reported optimal conditions (See Tomasello & Herron, 1989, page 393-394). These optimal conditions may be difficult to replicate, and now, twenty years later, the face of foreign language instruction has changed so drastically that this type of teaching may no longer be considered communicative, or relevant.

Ellis, Rosszell and Takashima's (1994) replication study centers on Tomasello and Herron's (1989) work on the Garden Path hypothesis for error correction. The more recent study compares the Garden Path means of error

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<sup>2</sup> For a review of methodologies, see Richards and Rogers, 2001.

correction with error avoidance. A total of  $N=61$  in two groups from Japanese L1, English L2 classrooms participate in jigsaw sentences and metalinguistic judgment tasks focusing on subject/verb inversion with adverb/dative alteration in English. In general, results from analyzed data do not show any differences between the Garden Path and error avoidance, in other words, eliciting students to make mistakes and then explicitly correcting students is not statistically different from avoiding errors when measured by ability to produce correct forms. While the results may be interesting, there is at least one notable difference in the participants used for data collection in the two studies. While Tomasello and Herron's (1988, 1989) studies used a participant pool of true language beginners, meaning that all of the beginning level students who participated in the study had not learned any of the L2 previously, the study by Ellis et. al., on the other hand, contained some false starters, meaning that, although they may be enrolled in a beginning level course, they have had previous equivalent coursework experiences.

In a very early study that compares direct metalinguistic feedback, rejection, recasts, type of clarification request with a control, Carrol and Swain (1993) examine the roles of explicit and implicit negative feedback and its relationship to the learning of linguistic generalizations. With a participant group of  $N=100$  adult Spanish speaking learners of English, two feedback sessions with recall are used to elicit data on dative verbs in an English as a Second Language setting. All treatments outperformed the control in terms of eliciting correct answers and out of the four different feedback types compared, metalinguistic

feedback did outperform all others. While this study does support claims that explicit forms of feedback are effective, specifically, metalinguistic feedback and the type of clarification request used, it does not account for self-correction, any type of interlanguage reformulation, or any prompts. The time between the initial and final testing is a relatively short period of time, only one week, which researchers report as possibly having a problematic effect on the data set (p. 372). They report that the reason for the inability is due to a lack of access to student participants after the time frame of the experiment, a common hurdle that researchers working with students as participants. Another interesting feature is that this study is conducted in a self-reported laboratory setting, here during individual meetings between the researchers and participants, whose results cannot be applied directly to classrooms as it would compromise the ecological validity of any claims made. On a final note, a very important claim is made in this study regarding the behavior of any feedback. Carroll and Swain note that, in regards to the perceived interrupting nature of feedback, “we may presume that such interruptions will always be salient” (p. 366). In part, by comparing metalinguistic feedback with a clarification request, it is this perceived saliency that this current dissertation will examine, specifically by perception of efficacy and the ability to prompt learners to reformulate. Data in Chapter 3 will take into consideration the ability to be perceived as corrective the two types of feedback for this study.

Carroll’s (2001) text, using the same corpus of collected raw data from Carroll and Swain (1993), compares the same types of feedback and examines

them in relation to nouns from verbs in elicited verb-noun conversions in a sentence format. Results suggest that all feedback helped and that indirect prompts may help learners to generalize. Recasts did not promote any language acquisition or ability to generalize. In this work, Carroll posits the Autonomous Induction Theory that states that feedback can only work for acquisition if the corrective intentions are recognized by the learner, in other words, feedback is only effective when it is realized as corrective tool and perceived as such.

Nagata (1993) details the incorporation of metalinguistic feedback into a computer-assisted language learning system for Japanese. With a linguistic target structure of the passive mood, verb predicates and participles, Nagata compares two groups of feedback types. The first feedback type simply indicates to participants that some aspect of the communication is missing and the other type of feedback indicates the same information along with a metalinguistic explanation. Testing comprises the use of a written test using the same format as the treatment task. Data indicates that the group with feedback regarding the existence of an error accompanied by metalinguistic feedback outperformed the group without any type of metalinguistic feedback and that, according to the qualitative data, the learners preferred the inclusion of the metalinguistic explanation. This study supports the inclusion of metalinguistic elements in the computer-assisted language learning setting.

In another, but later publication, Nagata (1997) again compares feedback forms using another computer assisted language learning program for Japanese called BANZAI. In a comparison of deductive feedback, here operationalized as

metalinguistic feedback, with inductive feedback, operationalized as example-based feedback, Nagata provides feedback to  $N=30$  university English-speaking learners of Japanese specifically focusing on Japanese particles. In a classroom setting with a technological aspect to a course, participants engage in computer sessions with activities that provide feedback. Data suggests that deductive, rule-given feedback is more effective for learning complex structures than the inductive, exemplar-based feedback. Interestingly, in this study, Nagata categorizes metalinguistic feedback as deductive feedback due to the provision of rule-based grammar.

In a very small scale study comparing clarification requests with a control group receiving no feedback, Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) examine the effects of clarification requests on  $N = 6$  adult learners of English in a Japanese language school. A communicative jigsaw puzzle task was employed to elicit errors that could be treated using clarification requests. Findings suggest that clarification requests prove more effective over no feedback and do actually facilitate some sustained ability through focused communication tasks. This study, while very small-scale, does show positive effects for the use of clarification requests over no feedback at all.

### 2.4.3 The Lyster Studies

This section chronicles the contribution of Roy Lyster and the colleagues with whom he has worked since his first co-authored, published study with Leila

Ranta (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The breadth of his work has encompassed the field of feedback in language learning contexts such as immersion contexts, foreign language classes, English as a Second Language classes and some laboratory studies. The focus of his work has taken an observational approach to the ways in which feedback has been used, which types of feedback have been used and with what frequency as well as the resulting interactions between teachers, researchers, and students. Many studies measure successful feedback by the existence of student uptake, and within the uptake, whether or not there has been a target-like repair, another error, the same error, or simply no uptake indicating that the student has even registered feedback as corrective. The majority of work coming out of the Lyster camp of research has been prompts, and anti-reformulations (recasts, explicit correction and translations).

A description of his research follows and is presented in chronological order according to show the development and the changes that have manifested, specifically regarding terminology, as a result of his ongoing scholarship. Some criticism will follow the presentation that highlights what is missing from research and how this dissertation fills in the gaps that are thus far missing in the corpus of research on the use of prompts as focus on form feedback in the language classroom.

In their seminal observational study, Lyster and Ranta (1997) combine data of 4 teachers in a French immersion context whose purpose is to describe the multiple types of corrective feedback provided to students. Of the  $N = 100$  hours of audio recordings and  $N = 3268$  student turns, it is shown that recasts

are the overwhelmingly predominant type of feedback maneuver used by the teachers in their observation comprising 55% of all feedback. Research on this prevalence points to the ease with which they may be incorporated into the classroom dialogue, however, Lyster and Ranta note that, although they are significantly more abundant than the other types of feedback possibilities (explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, repetition, elicitation and clarification requests), in regards to uptake, recasts are not a successful type of feedback. This study does not take any specific linguistic target structure as a focus, but rather any and all errors treated by the teachers. Overall, the over-utilization of recasts and the under-utilization of negotiation of form inducing methods have lead Lyster and Ranta to suggest that if the goal is student reformulation of incorrect forms, that the use of said under-utilized types may be more effective and that the oftentimes unclear function (approval, praise, repetitive, or corrective) of the recast may lead to such ambiguity that learners may not even recognize their corrective function. They also suggest that the utilization of negotiations inducing methods will not stop the flow of either the lesson or the communicative flow of the class. In fact, they suggest that unlike explicit correction and recasts, negotiation of form actually maintains a student-centered classroom in that the feedback move immediately gives the student the floor as opposed to the other forms that redirect the classroom to a more teacher-focused environment. In the context of this study, prompts are referred to as negotiations.

Lyster (1998b), drawing upon the corpus of data used in Lyster and Ranta (1997), re-examines the same data in terms of the types of errors that are addressed in the study operationalized as lexical, phonological, grammatical and unsolicited English (L1). Findings suggest that grammatical and phonological errors tended to invite recasts while lexical errors tended to invite a type of negotiation of form. Phonological errors were best treated by recasts and grammatical and lexical errors were most successfully treated through negotiation of form. This may be due to the immediate availability in classroom discourse for the potential of a recast serving as a model for correct pronunciation when and if that precise pronunciation is missing from the learner's interlanguage. Missing from this analysis is an exact delineation between the four types of negotiation of form in this study, operationalized as metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests.

Lyster (1998a), utilizing the same database of observed feedback on elementary 4th and 5th graders in a French immersion program in Canada with  $N=928$  error treatment sequences investigates the role that ambiguity plays in the use and failure of recasts to produce uptake. Results from this analysis point to the similar discourse functions of both recasts and non-corrective repetitions, a type of negotiation of form that he later goes on to re-name a prompt. The recasts, because they are so often used by teachers as a sign of approval with correct utterances (either focusing on meaning or form), are not salient enough to learners in a meaning-oriented classroom. Lyster does suggest that recasts may have a useful function in combination with other forms of feedback (See Doughty

& Varela, 1998). Also pointed out in this analysis is the idea of teacher-centeredness. Lyster suggests that because 1) recasts allow the teacher to take control of the communicative flow and keep it and 2) the abundance of topic continuations, that the recast is not a student-centered means of providing feedback but rather a teacher-centered means of providing feedback (p. 74). If a communicative classroom is envisioned as a context within which a second language learner is to communicate using the L2, the incorporation and/or preference for a recast is both counter productive and goes against the essence of communicativity.

Panova and Lyster (2002), using a database of  $N=1716$  student turns and  $N=1641$  teacher turns, detail the different types of feedback used in an adult English as a Second Language class whose participants first languages are reported to be Haitian creole, French, Portuguese and Spanish. Twenty-five adults between the ages of 17-55 participated in this observational study. No specific target structure is identified as this observational study focuses on feedback in general and not the grammatical structures involved; feedback addresses errors in phonological, grammatical and lexical oral errors only. This study specifically categorizes feedback types into seven categories: recasts, translations, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction and repetition (p. 587).

In this study, the use of Translation as a feedback form is included due to the prominence of it as a classroom tool. Lyster and Panova (2002) report that, due to the possible lower proficiency level of the learners, there is a strong

predominance of recasts (55%) and translation (22%) as corrective moves on behalf of the observed teachers. The remaining types of feedback comprise the remaining 22% of all feedback: clarification request (11%), metalinguistic feedback (5%), elicitation (4%), explicit correction (2%), and repetition (1%). Based on this information alone, it can be said that there is a predominance in the observed setting for reformulation techniques, or those that provide the target structure for the student in an explicit manner that does not prompt the learner to reformulate his/her incorrect utterance and focus the interaction on the teacher and the error. Regarding the efficacy of feedback moves on uptake and repair within the uptake, prompts account for the greatest amount of uptake, clarification requests (100%), elicitation (100%), repetition(100%), metalinguistic feedback (71%), recasts (40%), explicit correction (33%), and translation (21%). Researchers describe a possible explanation for the very low frequency of uptake following translation in that it may in part be due to the use of translations in this context as a means of providing learners with additional input and not as solely negative evidence; also, they do not prompt the learner to reformulate.

Repair in uptake is measured in frequency. Corrected utterances resulting from prompts contain the highest frequency of corrections: repetition (83%), elicitation (73%), metalinguistic feedback (29%), clarification requests (23%), recasts (13%), translation (4%) and explicit correction (0%). Again, feedback moves that prompt the language learner to reformulate his/her incorrect utterance result in the most effective means of treating oral errors. However, it must be said that in this study, the number associated with the frequency of the

prompts is rather low due to the predominant use of reformulative feedback types (recasts, translation, and explicit correction). For example, while repetition does result in 100% uptake, of which 83% contained a correct student response, there are only a total of  $N=6$  instances of Repetition. Total uptake success is indicative, but when there are only six instances, the validity is called into question and the results may not be as generalizable.

In accordance with Ellis (1997), Recasts are seen as beneficial for the internalization of new forms (See Bradi, 2002; Ellis, 1997; Gass, 2003) and prompts for the increased control over already internalized but not yet perfected forms. Results from this study support the inclusion of prompts as a means of facilitating language acquisition and creating form-meaning relationships in the language learner's interlanguage. However, more studies are needed that have a higher frequency of individual types of prompts. The predominance of recasts and translation as a means of error correction cloud the picture of all the possible outcomes regarding prompts. Also a factor in this study is the generation effect. Participants remember items that have generated in response to cues better than they remember items merely provided to them (p. 592). More studies that compare and analyze 'generation effect' in response to specific types of feedback are also needed.

In his 2002 article on negotiation and teacher-student interactions, Lyster differentiates between negotiation of form and negotiation of meaning, which he argues must account for "a broader view of negotiation that accounts for corrective feedback and distinguishes between form-focused negotiation and

meaning-focused negotiation in student-teacher interaction” (p. 238). Lyster highlights de Bot’s (1996) affirmation regarding the key to interlanguage reformulation through negotiation of form in that the cognitive processes involved in retrieval and reanalysis may hold the key to the reformulation of the interlanguage; this may promote connections between short-term memory and long-term memory (p. 249). While Lyster (2002) does advocate here for negotiation of form, he does not prescribe it as a replacement for negotiation of meaning but rather prescribes working with both along with students’ language ability and content knowledge in order to meet the exact needs of the students and their interlanguage (p. 251). The difficulty in this statement is knowing exactly the interlanguage of each student, which would implicitly entail knowing ones’ students to a degree that would allow a researcher or teacher to know where each student was in the development of their interlanguage system. Also implied in this statement is the ability to individually address each student and meet his particular needs. This pipe dream of an instructional setting may not be the reality for many language teachers, but certainly does promote a language learning context that may value smaller classes and more teacher-student relationships. Similar to interpretations of feedback through Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory, which implies working within each student’s Zone of Proximal Development and utilizing an appropriate type of feedback reactively and favoring implicitness (See Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994, for a review of the utilization of Vygotskian sociocultural theory of the mind in a study on oral feedback of written errors), Lyster seems to imply that interpersonal relationships

between teacher and student that take into consideration and/or require that the teacher knows his/her student is necessary for an appropriate usage of either negotiation of meaning or negotiation of form.

Lyster (2002) also suggests a point in the classroom discourse that is most appropriate for the teacher to provide feedback. As in other studies that have focused on an immediate intervention, Lyster advocates here for a reactive approach to error treatment. In both a theoretical and practical way, feedback provided reactively (immediately after and as a result of an incorrect student utterance) may be of greatest impact due to its salience and connected nature to what has just been uttered, in other words, exactly when there is something to say that focus on form can be most effectively delivered. Lyster specifically speaks about the nature of this reactive feedback and differentiates it from focus on meaning. Before his 2002 publication, they were considered to have been equally represented in reactive focus on form. However, Lyster does change the terminology in that he does not consider negotiation of meaning to be a means of the reactive approach to focus on form.

Lyster (2002) details the benefits associated with the use of focus on form in that it provides an opportunity for learners to 'notice the gap' (Schmidt & Frota, 1986), thereby comparing both ill-formed utterances as well as target self-produced structures in the moment of production (p. 246). Again, the need to provide corrective feedback reactively and within the immediate context of communication is emphasized. Focus on form also does not break the communicative flow, rejects non-target forms, provides less ambiguous negative

evidence and prompts for self-repair (p. 247). The greatest benefit may be considered to be the possibly increased control over already acquired target forms by the prompting of a reformulation.

Finally, Lyster distinguishes between form-focused negotiation and meaning-focused negotiation according to how the student is prompted to reformulate. He posits that, “what distinguishes form-focused and meaning-focused negotiation most essentially is the way in which form-focused negotiation provides prompts for learners to self-repair, thereby engaging them in retrieval processes...that differ from those activated by meaning-focused negotiation” (p. 247). Also, similar to his definition of prompts, form-focused negotiation “withholds correct forms and instead prompts students to retrieve correct forms from what they already know” (p. 247).

Lyster (2004) compares recasts in form focused instruction with prompts in form focused instruction within the database of  $N=179$  10-11 year old English speaking students in a French immersion setting. This quasi-experimental classroom study operationalizes form focused instruction according to Ellis' (2001) definition that it is “any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form” (Ellis, 2001, p. 1-2). Grammatical gender is evaluated through two written (binary choice and a text completion activity) and two oral activities (object identification and picture description). The treatment of prompts within form focused instruction outperforms both the control group in all measures, especially on the written tests. However, few differences were found between the two treatments.

Effectiveness is measured as the ability to acquire rule-based representations of grammatical gender and the proceduralization of knowledge. These results do not support earlier claims made by Lyster and colleagues regarding the efficacy of prompts in form-focused instruction. Also, results do not favor oral correction, or at least only minimally, however do seem to raise students' metalinguistic awareness as well as their ability to retrieve necessary information to make adjustments online (p. 425). Lyster also reports that another possible benefit is the one-on-one time that participants had with the teachers for data collection. This individualized context may have also had a direct connection to the outcomes (p. 427). More time may allow for greater monitoring of production. These findings support small class sizes needed for greater individual opportunities for uptake as well as even one-on-one interactions for even greater benefits resulting from feedback.

This study is of particular importance to the dissertation because it establishes a basis for comparing two types of prompts without the inclusion of a control group. Also important is the setting of Lyster's (2004) study. A form-focused instructional setting is the model for the dissertation in that participants are in a language class in which the focus is on communication and the function of communication in the second language through the integration of activities that may focus on a specific aspect of language, not the objectification of it. Feedback is used in the same manner in this dissertation. Activities in the context of the course are designed to provide students with the opportunity to speak on a broad range of topics related to the main ideas of the text, but are not

forced into using the target structure. These activities, along with a discourse function purpose (for example, narrating a story) also have specific grammatical and lexical foci.

Lyster and Mori (2006) find that, in accordance with their counterbalance hypothesis, recasts are more effective in contexts that allow for controlled production and emphasize accuracy and that prompts are more effective in contexts that do not stress controlled production or emphasize accuracy. In this collaborative work on feedback and instructional setting, Lyster and Mori (2006) examine both recasts and prompts in two different settings, with two different languages, and multiple target structures. In a French immersion and a Japanese immersion classroom, feedback is provided to oral errors at the grammatical, lexical and phonological level to elementary students. As in Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Panova and Lyster (2002), the frequency with which recasts are employed is very high. Results show that the recasts used in the French immersion setting are fairly unsuccessful at eliciting uptake and the prompts are equally unsuccessful at eliciting uptake in the Japanese immersion context. Lyster and Mori explain this perceived paradox through the introduction of the Counterbalance Hypothesis which posits that, “the effort extended to shift attentional focus from form to meaning in a form-oriented context and from meaning to form in a meaning-oriented context is predicted to strengthen connections between changes in long-term memory and actual language use” (p. 294). Therefore, a setting similar to that of the French immersion may more successfully employ the use of prompts as they may be more salient to learners

and require more attentional shift; similarly a setting similar to that of the Japanese immersion may more successfully employ the use of recasts as they may be more salient to learners and require more attentional shift. The corrective nature of the recast may be seen as salient enough in a form-oriented context to not be mistaken for a simple perceived repetition. Similarly, the form-focused prompt may be more salient in a meaning-focused context and therefore more likely to be interpreted as a corrective maneuver. While this study is important in its contribution and theory building, again, lacking in this research is a description of the specific types of prompts that are used as corrective feedback, negotiation of form.

In the combined work on dyadic interaction of Lyster and Izquierdo (2009), prompts and recasts are compared on a group of  $N = 25$  mostly L1 English, L2 French university students in both classroom and laboratory setting. The target structure for this study is again the grammatical gender of French. In class, the students participate in an enhanced input identification exercise and an object identification and picture description activity in a laboratory setting. There is also a component of gender identification in a computer program. Findings suggest that both groups benefit from the feedback treatments. Recasts are found to be beneficial for providing positive evidence and repetition and prompts bear a significant beneficial weight due to the opportunities to produce modified output. The researchers suggest that form focused instruction may lend itself to the improvement between the 2 treatment groups, not just the treatment itself. In contrast to previous theory posited, in being a form focused environment, the

recast group should have outperformed the prompt group, in accordance with the counterbalance hypothesis (See Lyster & Mori, 2006). Finally, upon participating in an exit interview, it is revealed that students had been aware of what was going on during the experiment. This awareness on behalf of the students may have contributed to the empirical data.

Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) also make a bold statement regarding the generalizability of empirical data and research findings from laboratory settings. They state that laboratory studies are not necessarily able to address pedagogically driven questions about the effectiveness of feedback provided in classrooms. This obvious revelation may discount some previous findings about the efficacy of feedback as it is to be interpreted for usefulness in classroom settings. However, it does not imply a lack of generalizability of data obtained from immersion, foreign language, second language and ESL contexts, all of which are research settings upon which current research on feedback currently relies.

In a very recent publication, Yang and Lyster (2010) compare recasts, prompts and a control group with  $N = 72$  adult Chinese-speaking learners of English in a classroom setting. Participants are engaged in a constructed response activity, a dictogloss activity, a question and answer activity and a picture cued narrative activity aimed at eliciting the use of regular and irregular past tense in English. Findings from the pre-tests and post-tests suggest that prompts may be more effective than recasts for regular past tense, but may be equally as effective as recasts for the irregular past. In comparison with the

control group, prompts significantly outperform and may do so well because of their nature in that they elicit self-repair and their greater saliency during oral production activities.

One piece of this study does stand out in that the data collection was performed by three different teachers, none of whom were the researchers. There may be a possible teacher effect due to the means in which each teacher delivered the three different treatments (recasts, prompts, control group with no feedback). Further research in this vein of feedback should reflect the means by which data is collected in classroom studies. If researchers are not able to collect data, it may be beneficial to work with teachers who have multiple sections of the same course to control for any possible teacher effect. However, this also depends on access to a teacher who teaches multiple sections and has enough students who can serve as a quantifiable group of participants from whom generalizable data may be collected.

In their recent publication, Lyster and Saito (2010) gather data for a much needed meta-analysis on oral classroom feedback. A total of  $N = 15$  studies are included in the meta-analysis with a combined total of  $N = 827$  participants. Only classroom studies are included, while all target structures and feedback types (recasts, explicit correction and prompts) are included. A variety of language (both L1 and L2) is represented in the meta-analysis. Findings suggest that laboratory results cannot easily be applied to classrooms, that corrective feedback is effective, and that pedagogically oriented corrective feedback may be better than conversationally oriented feedback. Different from the meta-

analysis performed by Mackey and Goo (2007), Lyster and Saito (2010) found more positive results for recasts. Corrective feedback is also seen as durable and does have immediate benefits. Additional factors such as short-term and long-term treatments and age are also analyzed. Findings suggest that younger learners over older learners may benefit more from corrective feedback while long-term treatments may be more effective than short-term or simply brief treatments.

In their final recommendations, Lyster and Saito (2010) reference the pedagogical implications related to corrective feedback. They find that it is beneficial to use feedback to treat students' oral errors in the classroom and that corrective feedback is an effective form-focused instructional technique for strengthening form-meaning connections in the interlanguage of the language learner. They suggest a combination of means of providing feedback, however have a noticeable preference for prompts over recasts, explicit correction, or no feedback at all.

#### 2.4.4 Additional Research on Feedback

The following section divides published research on feedback from 1997-2010 according to the types of feedback that are tested. The first section deals with research that compares prompts with prompts. The second section examines published research that compares prompts and recasts. The third

section examines research that adds to the theoretical framework surrounding the field of feedback research.

#### 2.4.4.1 Prompts and Prompts

Takashima and Ellis (1999) specifically compare prompts in a classroom of Japanese learners of English. A total of  $N = 61$  adults participate in free response activities whose linguistic target is the English past tense, in both regular and irregular forms. Here, the specific focus is the effects of 'focused feedback' which they operationalize as "requests for clarification that pushed learners to reformulate their output in the context of a message-focused task" (p. 186). Takashima and Ellis report a 29% success rate in eliciting self-correction for past tense forms and that the treatment did not have lasting effects in subsequent activities. They also report that participants who witnessed other-generated modified input also improve in their accuracy and that participants who receive focused feedback perform better than those who receive unfocussed feedback.

#### 2.4.4.2 Prompts and Recasts

In their collaborative study on student perceptions of interactional feedback, Mackey, Gass and MacDonough (2000) compare prompts and recasts across two settings. In an Italian as a Foreign Language setting with  $N = 7$  adult

participants and an English as a Second Language setting with  $N = 10$  participants, the students' interpretations of the feedback received in dyadic interaction is examined. All participants are enrolled at a university in the United States. No target structure is identified, but rather the study focuses on lexical, phonological and morphosyntactic errors. Data collection is done through dyadic interaction using different pictures to elicit responses that are treated with feedback, either in the form of recasts, negotiation, or negotiation and recast. After students participate in the dyadic interaction featuring feedback, they immediately participate in a stimulated recall session with the teacher. Results show that for this study, recasts on morphosyntactic errors are not successful, however, prompts as a means of feedback are successful in treating phonological and lexical errors. Recasts prove to be particularly evasive in terms of participants' recognition of them as corrective when they contain morphosyntactic reformulations. The researchers suggest that the reason that recasts are less successful at eliciting a correction or any uptake at all is due to the lack of "participatory demands on the learner" (p. 491). Prompts, on the other hand, in the essence of their nature, do require, or at the very least, elicit a change in focus and a possible reformulation depending on the explicitness of the prompt itself.

Further research on the subject of participant perceptions of feedback need to focus on optimal conditions for the feedback itself, especially in the quantity, quality, timing and the nature of the feedback itself, along with the possible connection between L2 development and feedback. Here there is a lack

of a detailed description of the kinds of negotiations are used for data collection. While negotiations and prompts do perform the same function, the degree of implicitness and their focus differentiate them to a degree that warrants a more individualized breakdown.

Kim and Mathes (2001), in a replication study of Carroll and Swain (1993), examine the effects of implicit and explicit feedback, more specifically, metalinguistic feedback and recasts, on the dative verb alteration of  $N = 20$  Korean learners of English using a controlled production activity. No significant differences are found between the results of metalinguistic feedback and recasts on the post-test. However, learners express a preference for the explicit feedback over the implicit feedback. Interestingly, this is the only study chronicled in this dissertation that begins with a null hypothesis. Lastly, the context of this study needs to be examined in the interpretation of the results. The communicative focus and context of the university class from which data is collected is not detailed. It is therefore difficult to make any inferences or criticism about the study due to the lack of this important variable.

Havranek and Cesnik (2001) and Havranek (2002) both draw on the same data collected through observation in the earlier study. In their (2001) study, Havranek and Cesnik analyze some factors perceived to affect the success of corrective feedback. Data collected from  $N = 207$  participants ranging from children through university students focusing on spoken errors in English by speakers of German is analyzed from a variety of activities including translations, corrections, reading aloud activities, spoken and written completion tasks. In this

study, they propose that elicited self-correction is the best form of corrective feedback. Elicited self-correction is any means of feedback provided that would prompt learners to fix their own mistakes, in other words, a prompt. After prompts, the second most effective type of corrective feedback is seen as explicit rejection accompanied by a recast. The least beneficial form of corrective feedback of the three is seen as the recast. Also found in this data is empirical evidence of the ability to treat grammatical mistakes through feedback, but not phonetic mistakes.

In this study, Havranek and Cesnik (2001) also comment on the social nature of corrective feedback when provided in a group setting. Peers may benefit from feedback as well, but less and success seems to depend on variables such as the type of feedback, the types of errors, and learners' personal characteristics. Those most likely to benefit are the students who are embarrassed by errors and correction, but have a relatively good second language competence and verbal intelligence.

In her follow up article, Havranek (2002) continues the dialogue from her earlier study with Cesnik. Here, she takes on the topic of the learner's interlanguage. She comments that the learner's interlanguage must be at a point of developmental readiness for feedback to have any type of positive effect. There is also mention here of the conditions under which the high achieving students have performed, that is, in form-focused, not content focused feedback contexts. In other words, explicit feedback seems to perform better in contexts that are similar in nature to the feedback itself, forms focused. This connection

between forms-focused instruction and as an instructional setting and an explicit type of feedback do not seem to be supported by Lyster and Mori's (2006) Counterbalance Hypothesis.

In a comparison study of prompts and recasts with a control group who received no feedback, Iwashita (2003) examines the differential effects of evidence in task-based interactions on second language development. With verb morphology and syntax as the linguistic structures under observation,  $N = 55$  university students with multiple first languages participate in activities in Japanese classes. Oral task-based dyadic interactions are used to collect empirical data which shows a preference for recasts for the treatment of grammar, and has a greater impact than other feedback moves in short-term grammatical development. Positive evidence is more frequent (recasts) and very few prompts are used. The second language interlocutors here are native speakers of Japanese and the setting may be of particular interest in explaining some of the results in this study. If the study takes place in Japan, where language learning may offer less opportunities for freely constructed speech and focus on a more target-like language production, then according to the Counterbalance Hypothesis, results should yield a greater effect size for recasts. More research on prompts and recasts, according to Iwashita, need to consider the individual learner differences, along with longer time frames within which to collect data; there must also be different forms of feedback examined.

Rosa and Leow (2004) compare 5 treatments ranging in explicitness in their study on awareness, context and language development that focuses on

contrary to the fact conditional sentences in the past in the language acquisition of  $N = 100$  university students. The experiment takes place within an advanced Spanish course and all participants have only had a maximum of 2 years exposure to Romance languages, which was not accounted for in terms of type, location or context. Participants are placed into groups according to explicit feedback, implicit feedback and a control group. Three multiple choice recognition tests as well as two written controlled production tests are used here to show that, regarding the first activity, differences between explicit feedback and implicit feedback are found for new information, however no differences are found between the three groups when in regards to old information. However, differences are reported from data in the two written controlled production tests, that is, differences are found between both new and old information for both groups (explicit feedback and implicit feedback). Also, both treatment groups outperform the control group.

Noteworthy findings indicate that positive relationships between explicitness of learning condition and levels of awareness are reported by learners. The feedback that is used prompts learners to analyze the L2 input in an effort to extract generalizations that may be used in other contexts (transference of knowledge). This study provides empirical evidence that cognitive processes are possibly made active through feedback during online input processing activities, therefore bolstering the idea that online feedback is beneficial for language acquisition.

While this study does support the theoretical framework in favor of online feedback, the testing procedures used in it are a limitation. Participants are asked to do a multiple choice and a fill in the blank activity with a conjugated verb. Also, there is a very short time between the immediate and the delayed posttest. In other words, language was in no way contextualized and results, while supportive and encouraging, show that students may be able to show higher levels of awareness and therefore perform better in a non-communicative situation or in a laboratory setting.

In a comparison study using three groups, Radwan (2005) examines the effectiveness of explicit attention to form in language learning, here on English dative alternation, by comparing results of a story presented three ways, one with textual enhancement in the form of bold face for salience, a rule-oriented version with a grammatical explanation and a content-oriented version containing nothing more than the story itself. Radwan compares data from 4 classes of university students at two separate institutions in ( $N = 42$ ) in English as a Second Language classes. Participants who receive instruction containing explicit attention to form as a rule-oriented version with grammatical instruction make significant gains between tests, and participants who receive the textual enhancement version of the story make no gains whatsoever. Significant in this study are the findings regarding the benefits of textual enhancements, specifically those of the rule-oriented nature in comparison with the textual enhancement. Those students who receive the more explicit instruction outperform those students who receive the implicit instruction. While this study

does not detail feedback of any type, the type of instruction here is important because the instruction, in combination with the measurement tools, shows a greater effect for an explicit treatment. This study further supports the use of explicit techniques in a communicative language setting.

In an English as a Second Language classroom setting, Mackey (2006) compares recasts and prompts, operationalized as negotiations but without a specific explanation of the types. The target structures used for data analysis are question forms, plurals and the past tense. Two intact adult classes of a total of  $N = 28$  students participate in free response activities. Findings suggest that there may be an association between noticing and learning and that learning and development may be connected in terms of question forms. Also found is that feedback may prompt learning and noticing, however, due to the set up of the experiment, no data is provided or analyzed that would highlight any types of feedback in particular. This study has a limitation of sample size, however, these small adult classes may be representative of the nature of adult language learning. More research with more participants may be required in order to look at bigger samples and different aspects of memory, motivation, and grammatical sensitivity to the treatment.

Ammar and Spada (2006) compare prompts, operationalized in this study as elicitation, repetition and metalinguistic feedback, with recasts and a control group who receives no feedback within a context of form focused instruction. The  $N = 64$  participants each receive one of the three treatments in an intensive English as a Second Language class that specifically address the use of the third

person singular possessives 'his/her'. Participants are identified as first language French learners of English. A picture description task with the researcher and a passage correction task are conducted in an interview format from which data shows that all three treatment groups benefit from the form focused instruction, and that both feedback groups, prompts and recasts, benefit from the treatment in comparison to the control group. Within the two feedback treatment groups, those participants who receive prompts benefit more than students who receive recasts. This study also makes a correlation between proficiency level and the facilitative nature of the feedback. High proficiency learners seem to equally benefit from both recasts and prompts.

Using data from previous research (See Ammar and Spada, 2006), Ammar (2008) compares prompts, metalinguistic feedback, repetition and elicitations, with recasts and a control group that receives no feedback. The target structure for this study is the 3rd person possessive form in English of 'his/her' and is chosen due to its difficulty in perception and acquisition by native speakers of French who are learning English. The  $N = 64$  participants in this study are grade 6 children who are enrolled in an intensive English as a Second Language class. A picture description task and a passage correction with the researcher are used to test the three different types of feedback in an interview format. Findings suggest that prompts are more effective than recasts and the control group who received no feedback. Also, there may exist a strong correlation between prompts and low-proficiency learners, however no such correlation is found with any other treatment. Earlier research from Ammar and

Spada (2006) found a correlation between high proficiency learners and both recasts and prompts. Results from the computerized task also indicate that prompts provide for faster retrieval of possessive determiner knowledge.

Ellis, Leowen, and Erlam (2006) also compare prompts, operationalized as metalinguistic feedback, with recasts and a control group who receives no feedback. Their study targets the regular past tense in an English as a Second Language class of  $N = 35$  adult students whose first languages are various from East Asia. Students are provided feedback and are tested using oral imitation tasks, a grammatical judgment task as well as a metalinguistic knowledge test. Overall, the data shows that metalinguistic feedback outperforms recasts, and that there is a greater correlation between metalinguistic feedback and implicit and explicit knowledge than between recasts and implicit and explicit knowledge.

In their summary article elaborating on the history of recasts, Ellis and Sheen (2006) posit that recasts cannot be called the best type of feedback and have many varied outcomes and definitions. They also point to the disjuncture between classroom studies and laboratory studies in that conclusions from analyzed data cannot be transferred from one context to another and that one is not generalizable to the other.

Ellis (2007) compares prompts, here as metalinguistic feedback, with recasts and a control group, which receives no feedback. The  $N = 32$  participants enrolled in an English as a Second Language course at a private school are native speakers of East Asian languages. This study compares the effects of feedback on regular past tense and the comparative suffix, '-er'.

Findings suggest that prompts are more effective than recasts but even more so for comparative structures than for the past tense.

Leowen and Nabei (2007) measure the effects of oral corrective feedback in L2 knowledge comparing results between recasts, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests, as well as a control group. Their  $N = 66$  Japanese university level learners of English receive feedback regarding question formation. Data collection uses timed grammaticality judgment tests, un-timed grammaticality judgment tests and an oral production task. Findings suggest that feedback has significant effects on L2 knowledge regarding question formation, however little differences are found between the treatments. Therefore, no suggestions are made regarding the efficacy of one type of feedback (recasts, metalinguistic feedback or clarification requests) over any other. This study is of particular interest in that it also compares the same feedback types as does this dissertation. However, the manifestation of the metalinguistic feedback is severely different. Leowen and Nabei operationalize metalinguistic feedback as feedback that does “not provide specific information about the correct formation of questions; instead, the feedback merely indicated that the error was related to question formation” (p. 373). Also, they provide a strong case for the benefits of recasts in that they do not interrupt the flow of communication and they are contingent on student errors allowing for a comparison of the target structure and the error/manifestation of the current state of the interlanguage (p. 362). However, while there may be truth to this position, the fact remains that recasts have the potential to be ambiguous and misinterpreted as merely a simple

repetition, nor do they allow for student reformulation, such as presented by Lyster (1998b), Lyster and Mori (2006), Lyster (2004), Carpenter et. al. (2006), Mackey, Gass and McDonough (2000), and Ellis and Sheen (2006).

In a comparison study of the effects of recasts and elicitations in a laboratory setting, Nassaji (2009), finds in favor of explicit feedback over implicit feedback. In a Canadian ESL setting, with the use of task-based dyadic interaction, Nassaji compares data from  $N = 42$  adult learners in a study that does not have any specific target structure. This lack of target structure is due to the experimental design that specifically examines the effects of incidental, unplanned feedback, over planned feedback. Here incidental feedback is operationalized as feedback that is not target-structure-specific, but rather specific in its manifestation of feedback type. Using a picture sequencing activity with a description, Nassaji concludes that explicit recasts and explicit elicitations were more effective than implicit versions, and that explicit recasts were most effective. Learning is operationalized as the participant's accuracy in recognizing and self-correcting after feedback. Based on the outcome of the findings, Nassaji does note that different structures may respond differently to different types of feedback. Specifically, elicitations may be more effective in treating errors associated with already known items, that is, language items that are already a part of the language learner's interlanguage. Also, recasts may be more effective in treating errors associated with language items that are not yet known. These individual different benefits are also associated with introducing new forms into the interlanguage (by use of a recast) and the strengthening of

form-meaning relationships already begun in the interlanguage (by the use of prompts, of which group elicitation is a member).

#### 2.4.4.3 Extraneous Studies

DeKeyser's (1993) well known study on the effects of error correction on grammar knowledge and proficiency compares explicit correction with limited corrective feedback in 10 classroom periods of French language classes in a Dutch high school setting during an entire school year. A total of  $N = 25$  participants with an average age of 17 years old, are provided feedback on morphosyntactic errors during free response operationalized as oral interviews, picture descriptions and storytelling, as well as constructed response activities operationalized as fill in the blank tests. Data analysis shows that there is no statistical difference between the provision of explicit correction and limited explicit corrective feedback, nor does the study clearly operationalize either type of correction. However, data analysis of demographic information indicates that those who benefited most from feedback in general are those participants with high previous achievement, high language aptitude and extrinsic motivation coupled with low anxiety. This study shows that there is a need to contextualize results from data analysis and that, when little data seems available from statistical analysis, that more information may be gleaned from the inclusion of demographic participant information.

In an article on the Output Hypothesis from a psychological perspective, de Bot (1996) finds that learners who are prompted to retrieve more target-like forms are more likely to retrieve these forms during subsequent processing than learners merely hearing recasts of these forms. Therefore, any type of feedback that would prompt a language learner to reformulate an utterance will do so in a way that recasts do not allow because output generates input which at the same time provides an opportunity to turn declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge, that is, taking what is already known and in existence in the interlanguage, but not necessarily available for spontaneous production. There is a mixture of theories in this theory building article that de Bot takes into consideration: Swain's Output Hypothesis (See Swain, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1995), Levelt's model of language production based on lexical processing (See Levelt, 1989) and Anderson's learning theory (See Anderson (1982)). This research is important to this dissertation because it establishes a connection with learning and connects output and opportunities to reformulate one's own utterance in a meaningful way that may help strengthen form-meaning connections and make still forming knowledge in the interlanguage more accessible and automatic.

In a study on indefinite articles, Muranoi's (2000) part classroom, part quasi-experimental research compares two forms of interaction enhancement, one with formal debriefing, and the other with meaning-focused debriefing. Interaction enhancement is operationalized as the integration of corrective feedback into communicative activities, a fairly common approach to language

teaching pedagogy. However, this type of interaction specifically calls for the integration of feedback during online communicative activities. Formal debriefing provides explicit, metalinguistic feedback as a result of an error. Meaning-focused debriefing provides feedback as a result of an error pertaining to the context of what is said, in other words, the utterance may be grammatically correct, but based on the context, is wrong. Data collected from a participant pool of  $N = 91$  adult students focuses on indefinite articles. Through the use of oral story description, oral picture description, written picture description and grammatical judgment, Muranoi finds that interaction enhancement is effective in general over a control group. However, it is reported that interaction enhancement with formal debriefing is more effective compared to the interaction enhancement containing meaning-focused debriefing, and both outperform the control group. Lastly, Muranoi notes that while the provision of negative feedback during instruction seems to have a positive effect on L2 learning, it is the inclusion of a particular linguistic focus that may lead to an even greater effect. Further research on interaction enhancement needs to focus specifically on different linguistic target structures as well as compare settings and types of meaning-focused debriefings with formal debriefing.

While the overwhelming majority of publications and research find the benefits of error correction, irrespective of the type, one article from the *Canadian Modern Language Review* has been the target of much theoretical gunfire during the last decade. Truscott's (1999) article on the possible abandonment of corrective oral grammar feedback proposes the revolutionary hypothesis that

maybe feedback is not beneficial and may not lead to any kind of language acquisition or restructuring of an interlanguage. This article, with no empirical data to back up any of its claims, posits that oral language correction is so problematic that it might be better off not used at all, unless the purpose is to negotiate for meaning and that oral corrective feedback that only focuses on grammatical utterances is useless. While his claims may be seen as inflammatory and counter productive, there also may be a thread of truth because of the numerous variables (types of data collection, feedback types, data analysis methods, target structures, settings, and pedagogical/methodological contexts) which do elicit different data, albeit usually in unanimous support of feedback.

## 2.5 Focus on Form Research

Doughty and Varela (1998) define Focus on Form as a means of addressing student error by the implementation of their “corrective recast” which must meet three specific requirements based on Long (1991). These include, (1), the shift must occur incidentally, that is, neither explicitly nor in a planned manner, (2) within the confines of a communicative event in which language is the means of communication rather than the focus, and (3) under the guidance of a teacher who engages the students in the shift as opposed to hoping that students will notice the error. While Doughty and Varela’s (1998) interpretation does not veer far from Long’s (1991) original theoretical framework, it is in their

prescription for a “corrective recast” that they elaborate and exemplify how to focus on form. Doughty and Williams (1998) define focus on form as a pedagogical intervention in which “the learner’s attention is drawn precisely to a linguistic feature as required by a communicative demand” (p. 3). For them, it “*entails* a focus on formal elements of language” (p. 4). This specific attention to forms reflects the continuum between focus on form and focus on forms within which communicative language teaching lies, as well as the occasional shifts of focus that may occur during any type of communicative classroom. Focus on forms reflects teaching that does not require a communicative or meaning-focused context within which to treat grammar. Finally, Long and Robinson (1998) define focus on form as a pedagogical intervention that is distinct from both focus on forms and focus on meaning, which lacks any attention to linguistic forms, and involves “an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features - by the teacher and/or one or more students - triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production” (p. 23). It is this definition that Doughty (2001) refers to as the “operational definition” of focus on form (p. 210). Focus on form relies upon and works to “exploit opportunities that arise naturally from the interaction of learners and tasks” (Long & Robinson, 1998, p. 23). This interpretation assumes an incidental approach.

There are benefits as well as disadvantages associated with the use of focus on form. The research by Ellis, Loewen, and Basturkmen (2006) shows that there is a strong benefit in regards to teaching in a way that reflects an extensive possible distribution, as well as a limited one. They claim that focus on

forms “would appear especially beneficial for structures that are difficult to acquire ‘naturally’...[while focus on form] serves as one way in which linguistic form can be addressed extensively (rather than intensively) and also helps learners develop confidence and fluency in communicating” (p. 137). This, of course, opens a Pandora’s box in terms of the operationalization of the terms *confidence* and *fluency*. However, Ellis (2001) pointed out that this may not necessarily be the case, but rather is optimal for language learning.

DeKeyser (1998) points out the benefits of this design feature in that they “test and refine declarative knowledge” which, according to his Interface Position, is capable of becoming procedural knowledge (p. 55). (For a discussion on the conversion of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge, see Anderson, (1982), and Bialystok, (1981), for a discussion on implicit and explicit knowledge.)

In comparing focus on form with formal instruction lacking a focus on form, Long (1991) offers three distinct benefits: (1) while the sequences of language acquisition do not seem to be able to be rerouted, the speed at which a learner passes through them may be hastened; (2) the means by which focus on form is employed may be better at effecting the long term memory as opposed to just the short term memory (see also Doughty 2001); and (3) the ultimate level of achievement may also be raised.

Doughty and Williams (1998) also echo the sentiment that it promotes language acquisition, accuracy, and communicability better than not providing any feedback to a naturalistic setting or classroom. Norris and Ortega (2000), in

their meta-analysis of research, find confirmation for the positive effectiveness of focus on form instruction. Finally, Doughty (2001), in her assessment of cognitive correlates, points out that speech processing as well as linguistic encapsulation, both of which were thought to be fixed, may actually be adjusted, however, only when treated by appropriately timed interruptions and are easily understood by the student. In order to see the long term benefits in language classes, more research needs to be undertaken.

## 2.6 Conclusion

This chapter presents a range of research and terminology necessary for the study of feedback, and more specifically, feedback that prompts learners to reformulate. Because of the heavy hand of recasts in the field of feedback research, a brief overview of some of the more important studies are included. The next chapter, Chapter 3 - Methodology, provides a detailed description of the participants, the treatments, the experimental measures used, and the means through which they are analyzed in this dissertation.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology for this study and is divided into 12 sections. Section 3.1., provides a brief description of the purpose of the study. Then section 3.2., details the logistics and activities involved in the experiment from which data is collected. The following section, 3.4., describes the activity in greater detail. Next, section 3.5., explains the qualifications and rationale behind the selection process for study participants. Section 3.6., The Setting, describes the pedagogical context within which this study takes place and from which this dissertation exacts empirical data. Section 3.7., goes on to describes the variables tested in this study. Section 3.8., describes the two different treatments compared in this study. Then, section 3.9. provides rationale and a description of the pre-test and post-test measures taken in this study. Section 3.10. describes the two coding schemes used to collect data on the classroom dynamic regarding the level of communicatively and the individual feedback episodes. Section 3.11. briefly highlights the model for data analysis used in this experiment. Finally, Section 3.12. concludes this chapter and provides an introduction of Chapter 4 Data Analysis.

#### 3.1 Introduction

This study compares two different types of feedback known as prompts,

which is feedback that elicits a student-generated reformulation of the incorrect utterance as opposed to feedback that provides the student with the target form. The first type of feedback, referred to as metalinguistic feedback, provides students with a clue regarding an incorrect grammatical, lexical or phonological utterance. It is considered to be an explicit form of a prompt (See Ellis, 2001; Lyster and Saito, 2010). The second type of feedback provided during this study is the clarification request, which indicates implicitly to the student that there is a need for a reformulation. Clarification requests are considered to be implicit because they may refer to either form or meaning. In order to focus more specifically on an exact form, both metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests may include a repetition as a means of clarification and signal of where the error lies (See Lyster, 1998a, p. 68).

The targeted grammatical structure for this study is the use of the subjunctive in a communicative classroom context in which language is used as a means of personal expression and for the sharing of ideas. More concretely for measurement purposes, the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses is used in this dissertation for comparison of the two treatments. Grammar is never addressed specifically in this classroom setting except in the case of incorrect grammatical forms produced in in-class conversations and written, submitted written work and only when in response to an ill-formed statement that lacks subjunctive in the nominal clause or when a student initiates a dialogue having to do with grammar. This study compares two groups of students enrolled in a Spanish conversation course who are only exposed to one of two possible types

of feedback. The study additionally examines how students react to the error treatment in terms of a variety of reactions, but mainly focuses on uptake in a correct form and whether or not there is any interlanguage development after a series of activities designed to reflect normal conversation and the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses. Successful feedback is operationalized as resulting in student uptake that contains a correct reformulation and development is operationalized as gains made between pre-test and post-test evaluations. When uptake contains an incorrect response, the teacher will either try again or, if the student chooses a topic continuation, refrain from providing feedback as it may interfere with the communicative flow.

Activities used to measure these forms of feedback include focused tasks (See Ellis, 2002) and dyadic interactions between students and instructor. While only some activities are used with the sole purpose of data collection for this comparative experiment, the activities are either very similar or exactly the same as other activities used throughout the course of the semester in these classes. That is, the activities used in the framework of this dissertation are within the normal daily activities for this course. No new procedures have been introduced for the sake of this research. All activities used to measure the treatment require the use of the subjunctive, however, as data analysis will show, both incorrect reformulation, avoidance and other options are very common results.

### 3.2 Description of the Experiment

This experiment examines the effects on participant uptake following a pedagogical intervention in the form of feedback. The goal of the feedback provision is to elicit student-generated repair of a uttered incorrect grammatical form in order to 1) raise participants' levels of awareness regarding their own production errors that may reflect the current state of their interlanguages 2) to measure and compare the effectiveness of two types of feedback that are on opposite ends of the explicit-implicit continuum in their realization of correct uptake and 3) to make final recommendations regarding the utility of feedback types and their possible ability to elicit interlanguage reformulations.

Two separate sections of the same course, a third year Spanish Conversation, serve as the setting for data collection for this experiment. Participants enrolled in these sections are expected to participate in regular classroom activities which all focus on discussions regarding specific topics from the text as well as their reactions to and understanding of said texts. Two kinds of activities are used to collect data. The first type of activity is a focused task activity, defined by Ellis et. al. (2002) as "communicative tasks that have been designed to elicit the use of a specific linguistic form in the context of meaning-centred [sic] language use" (p. 420). While there is the potential for artificiality when in employing focused tasks due to their planned nature, all attempts at natural conversation have been made in the implementation and execution of these activities. To do so, participants are asked probing questions and are not directly or explicitly encouraged to use complete sentences when they share their opinions. Nor are they prompted to use the subjunctive form in the initial

questions. In conjunction with a text with which they have already had exposure, students are asked either one or two questions which are written on the chalkboard for their reference. Participants are then asked to work in groups of two or three to answer the questions and share their opinions. These questions are meant to either connect their opinions and understand the plot of the text and the theme of the chapter or as a response activity to a conversation centered on a focal chapter theme. These questions implicitly require the use of the subjunctive in their responses, however, said use was neither alluded to or imposed. The second type of activity is a dyadic interaction with the teacher during which time the teacher asks the student questions relating to the same specific topics that are addressed in the classroom activity; some of the questions are aimed at eliciting forms of the subjunctive.

### 3.3 Target Structure

The target structure that is being evaluated in this study is the subjunctive. In this case, it is the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses. Rojas and Curry (1995) define the subjunctive as “a verb form used when the action is presented as hypothetical or doubtful, or as colored by the speaker’s subjectivity” (p. 344). The use of the subjunctive may be required in the nominal dependent clause because it is a subordinate clause, meaning that it depends on the independent clause in order to be complete, and it requires the use of the subjunctive because

the verb in the independent clause meets specific criterion in order to be qualified and conjugated in the subjunctive mood. Verbs of volition and those expressing emotion, doubt, or an attempt to influence behavior in an independent clause generally elicit the use of the subjunctive in the dependent clause, in this case, a noun clause. See Figure 11 below.

<p>1. Diego quiere que Pablo participe en el duelo.          Diego wants that Pablo participates (present subjunctive) in the duel.  <i>"Diego wants Pablo to participate in the duel."</i></p>
<p>2. *Le sugiero al presidente que crea más rutas de las guaguas.          *To him I suggest to the president that he creates (present indicative) more routes of the buses.  <i>"I suggest that the president creates more bus routes."</i></p>
<p>3. Le recomiendo a un estudiante nuevo que vaya al centro para café.          To him I recommend to a student new that he goes (present subjunctive) to the downtown for coffee.  <i>"I recommend to a new student that he goes downtown for coffee."</i></p>
<p>4. *No creemos que la venganza es la mejor opción.          *No we believe that the revenge is (present indicative) the best option.  <i>"We do not believe that revenge is the best option."</i></p>
<p>5. Nos dijeron que viniéramos inmediatamente.          To us they told that we came (imperfect subjunctive) immediately.  <i>"They told us to come immediately."</i></p>
<p>6. Es importante que los estudiantes estudien.          It is important that the students study (present subjunctive).  <i>"It is important that students study."</i></p> <p>Es importante estudiar.          It is important to study (infinitive).  <i>"It is important to study."</i></p>

<p>7. ¿Creen que sus estudiantes hayan estudiado?          Do you believe that your students have (present perfect subjunctive) studied?  <i>“Do you believe that your students have studied?”</i></p>
--

Figure 11. Correct and \*incorrect examples of the subjunctive.

Figure 11 shows six examples of the use of the subjunctive; all require the use of the subjunctive in the nominal clause, distinguished here by the word ‘que’ and the proceeding words, due to both the verb itself and its function in the independent clause. The first sentence contains the verb ‘querer’, *to want*, in the independent clause which requires that the verb in the dependent clause, here ‘participar’, *to participate*, be conjugated in the subjunctive form. The same rationale explains the use of the subjunctive in sentences 2-4, however, the examples provided in the second and fourth sentences are ungrammatical. The verbs in the dependent clauses are not conjugated in the subjunctive tense, but rather the indicative. The fifth sentence reflects a different situation with the verb ‘decir’, *to tell*, which is a verb that requires the subjunctive only when the function of telling reflects a command rather than description. Finally, the sixth sentence is an impersonal statement. While some impersonal statements do not require the use of the subjunctive, for example those that express clarity or certainty, all others do require the subjunctive.

In most cases, and through a narrow and simplified view, the subjunctive may be seen as a binary system consisting of the use of the indicative or the use of the subjunctive. There exists a clear delineation in Spanish between instances that require the subjunctive and those that require the indicative. However, there are also simplified statements that require no conjugation at all; they require the

use of the infinitive form of the verb. The sixth example contains a revision that, upon omitting 'que', *that*, the subordinating conjunction, eliminates the need for a conjugation of any sort. Therefore, while the instances of the use of the infinitive form of the verb are not as frequent, i.e. to reflect speaker subjectivity as in sentence 7, they do exist and disqualify the subjunctive as being understood as a binary choice.

### 3.4 Data Collection Activities

Activity 1 - focused task activity

Activity 2 - focused task activity

Activity 3 – dyadic interview

Activity 4 - dyadic interview

Activity 5 – dyadic interview

#### 3.4.1 Dissertation Activities

In activity 1, students are provided the question found in Figure 12 which takes place during class time. All students are expected to first work in small groups; each groups is randomly assigned a topic (education, health care, security, economics, international relations, work study, transportation and social services). After students randomly self-select their groups of two and are provided a topic, they are given 5 minutes to discuss what changes they would want to see and how they are going to suggest these recommendations to the

university president. During these 5 minutes, the researcher circulates around the room to meet individually with each group in order to provide feedback on a small group level. Once participants are prepared, they are asked to share their recommendations with their peers. When and if any errors are committed regarding the use of the subjunctive in the nominal clause, they will be provided either with metalinguistic feedback or a clarification request. Data from both small group and researcher and whole class will be analyzed. This activity can be found in Appendix A.

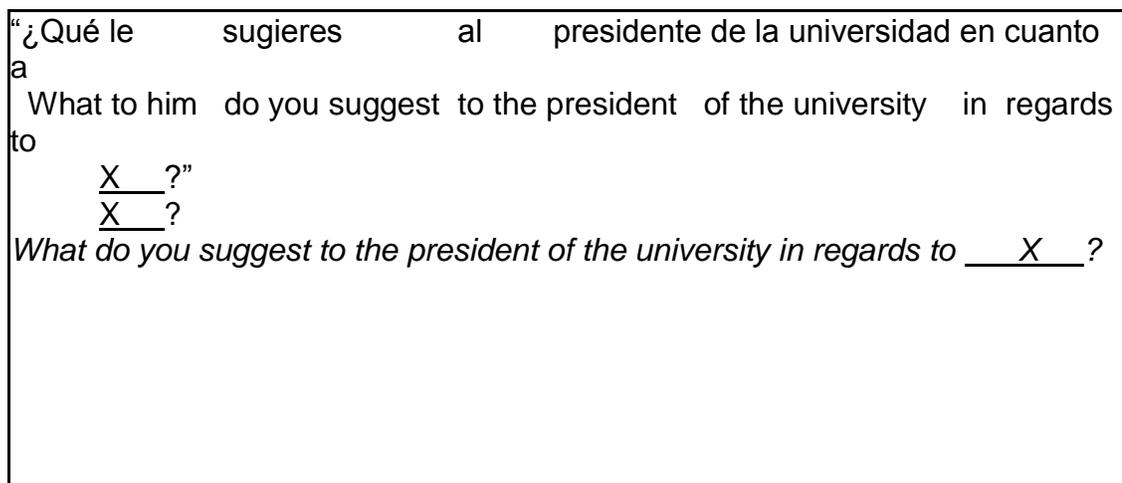


Figure 12. Activity 1, in class, small group focused task activity.

The second exercise, Activity 2, used for data collection for analysis to be included in the data set for this dissertation is an activity that comes directly from the text for the class, *Revista, 3rd edition*, Blanco (2010). See below in Figure 13 for an example of this activity. This activity asks students to provide suggestions for survival to three different entities, a tourist in your city, a cat in a

neighborhood of dogs, and a new student at the university. Students will work in groups of three and each student will be responsible for all three items. While students are formulating and discussing their recommendations, again, as in Activity 5, the researcher will circulate around the class and individually participate in small group presentations. When and if any errors regarding the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses arise, the researcher will provide feedback in the form of either metalinguistic feedback or a clarification request depending on the treatment group. Once prepared to share their recommendations, students will either volunteer or be randomly called up on to participate and tell the rest of the class what they suggest. Data collected from both individual group-researcher and full group interaction will be analyzed. A copy of this activity can be found in Appendix A.

<p>“Para sobrevivir, ¿qué le sugieres a <u>X</u>?” In order to survive, what to him/her do you suggest to <u>X</u>? <i>In order to survive, what do you suggest to <u>X</u></i></p>
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Figure 13. Activity 2, in class, small group focused task activity.

Activity 3 is a dyadic interaction between participants and the researcher. During this dyadic interaction which comprises one of the course components, participants will engage in an interview with the researcher regarding the topic as seen in Figure 12. Note that the topic is the same as Activity 1. Similar topics are used in order to first examine whether or not the effects of feedback in the

form of metalinguistic feedback or clarification request are effective. To ensure that there is less of a possible carry over effect after having already participated in Activity 3, each participant is pre-assigned topics that specifically do not coincide with the topic that the participant speaks about in Activity 1. Instructions for this dyadic interaction can be found in Appendix A.

Activity 4 is a whole class activity in which participants work in groups of 2 and are each given a card with three different questions per card, with either one or two questions that are designed to elicit the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses. Questions refer to a series of photographs that pertain to a short film that is featured in *Revista*, 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition (Blanco, 2010). Students will work in small groups and discuss their opinions with the whole class. Whenever there is an error, the treatment method will be used depending on the group. Instructions and a description of the activity can be found in Appendix A.

Activity 5 is a dyadic interaction between participants and the researcher. During this dyadic interaction which comprises one of the course components, participants will engage in an interview with the researcher regarding the topic as seen in Figure 14. Two different possible sets of guiding comprehension questions will be available to participants and will be randomly selected for each participant in the moment of the interview. Instructions for this dyadic interaction can be found in Appendix A.

El taxista pide que Nina...
The taxi driver asks for that Nina...
<i>The taxi driver asks that Nina...</i>

Figure 14. Example of prompting question for dyadic interview in Activity 5.

### 3.5 Participants

This section of the study describes the 32 possible participants in accordance with the Participant Questionnaire. See Appendix D for a copy of the Participant Questionnaire. Two sections of a Spanish Conversation course were invited to participate in this study. Of those two sections that originally comprised of 16 students each, students are evaluated for eligibility for participation based on a series of qualifications that are detailed in section 3.5.1. In order to be considered participants in the study, students were required to read and sign an Internal Review Board Consent Form, which is detailed in section 3.5.2. See Appendix E for a copy. Once participants provide informed consent, they are asked to fill out a participant questionnaire that was produced through a form generator on the Internet. In the following section, a description of the Participant Questionnaire details some of the information about the questionnaire itself as well as demographic information about participants and is followed by a description of the Internal Review Board process that this study followed in order to gain permission to use university students as human subjects.

All participants are university students who randomly selected the two sections of Spanish Conversation. The majority of participants are identified as sophomores, juniors, and seniors with no freshman, see Figure 15. Class standing is based on the amount of credits earned before the onset of the

course. To the knowledge of the investigator, no single participant changed class standing during the semester.

Class Standing Demographic				
Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Total
<i>N</i> = 0 (0%)	<i>N</i> = 15 (43.75%)	<i>N</i> = 11 (34.37%)	<i>N</i> = 7 (21.87%)	<i>N</i> = 32 (100%)

Figure 15. Class standing demographic.

While only 3 participants identify themselves as having Spanish as a major, 22 indicate that they are pursuing a minor in Spanish. See Figure 16. This data does not conflict with any previously reported information participants' chosen fields of study.

Major/Minor Requirement			
Major	Minor	Other	Total
<i>N</i> = 3 (9%)	<i>N</i> = 22 (69%)	<i>N</i> = 7 (22%)	<i>N</i> = 32 (100%)

Figure 16. Major/Minor degree demographic.

Eight participants also identify that they have traveled to Spanish speaking countries during abroad programs. Of these eight participants, five have spent a

one month period abroad (four in Salamanca, Spain, and one in Lima, Peru). Two participants report a semester abroad experience in Costa Rica. One student reports a year abroad experience. Further detail shows that this study abroad was a combination of 3 study consecutive programs in Central America. See Figure 17.

Participant Hispanophone Study Abroad Demographic				
None	1 Month	1 Semester	2 Semesters	Total
<i>N</i> = 24 (75%)	<i>N</i> = 5 (15.6%)	<i>N</i> = 2 (6.3%)	<i>N</i> = 1 (3.1%)	<i>N</i> = 32 (100%)

Figure 17. Participant study abroad demographic.

Students are also asked to report on other languages that they have spoken. Eight participants report that they do speak a language other than English in their households or the household in which they lived as a child. Of these 8 participants, 5 report that Spanish was spoken in the household, and the other three report that Greek, Cantonese, and Russian are spoken in the home. The remaining 24 participants did not report any other languages being spoken. See Figure 18 below.

Other languages spoken in the home			
None	Spanish	Other languages	Total

<i>N</i> = 24 (75%)	<i>N</i> = 5 (16%)	<i>N</i> = 3 (9%)	<i>N</i> = 32 (100%)
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Figure 18. Other languages spoken in the home.

Lastly, no participant is concurrently enrolled in the advanced grammar course which may have lead to very lower instances of incorrect use and very high instances of avoidance.

### 3.5.1 Participant Questionnaire

Students who have agreed to participate in this study and have signed a Human Consent Form (See Appendix E) are asked to fill out a three-part Participant Questionnaire (See Appendix D). The Participant Questionnaire has a twofold purpose. First, it collects demographic information on the participants. Second, it serves as a qualitative data collection means regarding previous language learning experiences and interpretations and perceptions of the receiving of feedback during the duration of the data collection period.

The Participant Questionnaire is divided into three sections. As previously mentioned, the first section collects both qualitative and quantitative demographic information from participants. The second section collects both qualitative and quantitative information from participants regarding their previous and current coursework in Spanish. Some information from the first and second part of the questionnaire is presented in this chapter as part of the demographic information

regarding the participants. The third section collects both quantitative and qualitative data regarding participants' reactions to and interpretations of feedback. Information from this section is presented in Chapter 4 - Data Analysis.

Qualification for participation depends on 2 specific factors: previous language experience in at least a fourth year or semester Spanish course and official matriculation in the sections of the course in which data was collected. Participants must have completed at least up to a fourth year of secondary or a fourth semester of academic language education in order to 1, be able to matriculate in the course, and 2, be able to participate in the context of these sections in which language was the means of discussing the topics of the course. Only students who are fully matriculated in the sections may participate due to the nature of auditing students at the institution<sup>3</sup>. Auditors are considered to be exempt due to the infrequency of class attendance and the lack of any formal testing in which they participate. The metalinguistic feedback treatment group has one student who is an auditor; all data from this student is removed.

### 3.5.2 Internal Review Board Procedures

This study follows university sanctioned guidelines required of all human subjects investigations. For this purposes of this dissertation, all students enrolled have agreed to participate in this study according to their own free will.

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<sup>3</sup> Due to varying requirements set by the instructor of any given university course, auditing students are not considered for participation. See <http://www.umass.edu/registrar/media/academicregs.pdf>.

After having signed the Consent Form, all participants are provided a photocopy of the original signed form. The university Internal Review Board has approved this study. A copy of the consent form may be found within the contents of Appendix E.

### 3.6 Setting

This study takes place in two sections of a 300-level Spanish Conversation course offered at a major university in the northeastern section of the United States. The university is a Research 1 institution with several branch campuses. The course is offered every semester as a real time class and is open to all those who have earned a C or higher in the previous prerequisite course which is the traditional equivalent of a fourth semester university course or a fourth year secondary course. Additionally, those students who wish to enroll and have studied at least four years of Spanish in high school are qualified to matriculate in the course. Because the university system allows any student to matriculate for the course, students who have not taken formal language courses may also be enrolled. This irregularity reflects the native and heritage speakers' ability to matriculate without having already met the credit prerequisite for the course.

The course meets three days a week, Monday, Wednesday, and Friday for 50 minutes throughout the 13 weeks of the semester. A total of four sections are offered at varying times each semester. The text used in this course is

*Revista, 3rd Edition*, Blanco, (2010), and the accompanying support website. No additional texts are used other than real world examples and short films that accompany the text and coincide with the topics discussed in the two sections, both of which share the same lesson plans, teaching materials, and syllabus. This experiment was not conducted in the other two sections offered of this course. Activities from which data is collected are common types of activities used throughout the semester in these courses, that is, they are normal classroom activities for this course.

The communicative context of the sections in the study is very specific to the instructor. The focus of the course, and each lesson, is always the contextualized use of language as well as vocabulary and concepts that are associated with the overarching themes of the chapters. It is a communicative classroom community that may more reflect the nature of an immersion or L2 context because of the focus on communication and the lack of pressure for linguistic accuracy. In order to establish this through official means, sample classes are coded using the COLT A form (Spada & Frölich, 1995). This coding is used in other studies to establish communicativity in the classroom (See Lyster & Mori, 2006). The COLT A form is an observational tool used to help code the communicativity of language teaching and learning contexts, specifically classroom oriented environments.

### 3.7 Variables

Three main variables are reflected in this study: the treatment (independent) and the uptake and development (dependent).

As previously outlined in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2, both more explicit metalinguistic feedback and more implicit clarification requests are compared in this study. These variables have been carefully controlled throughout the semester during which data has been collected. In order to eliminate any other additional influences, only the prescribed feedback treatment is used with each participant feedback treatment group. In other words, participants have only been exposed to the type of feedback to which they have been previously arbitrarily assigned. Data collected for this dissertation is collected from a setting in which only either metalinguistic feedback or clarification requests have been utilized for any type of error correction.

In the design phase of this experiment, it was planned that the activities used for data collection of the experiment would not stray from the communicative context of the course nor from the style of lessons and activities. It was decided that any activities that were outside of the norm for this specific course could potentially have an effect on the data set. Therefore, all activities chosen for this experiment are communicative in nature, require student participation in large and small group settings, and are directly based on both the current topics of class, the underlying grammatical focus of the chapters during which data is collected and the common structures of lesson plans. In order to collect data on a phenomenon that is naturally occurring in any given language classroom, that is, oral error production, and in conjunction with the outlined

description of the activities in the Human Consent Form, all activities from which data is collected for this dissertation are activities that are used frequently and do not stand out in any way from the normal scope, sequence and activity type of this course throughout the semester.

### 3.8 Treatment

The treatment is provided in the same manner to participants in both classroom and dyadic settings. There is no differentiation in either the style or the tone used for feedback. Immediately upon uttering an error containing a morphosyntactic mistake in either the form or the function of the subjunctive, participants are immediately provided with a form of feedback whose goal is to prompt reformulation in the subsequent student uptake.

During data collection, every student mistake is treated. If a feedback move does not lead to uptake, the researcher may attempt again using the same method. Due to the nature of the clarification request in that it may be interpreted as either an attempt to focus on form or meaning, in the event of the failure of a participant to provide uptake, a second attempt may include a repetition of either the initial utterance without any emphasis, intonation, or clue as to the nature of the error. After a second attempt to prompt a reformulation, a topic continuation will be requested by the instructor in order to not interfere with the communicative flow and focus of the topic at hand.

### 3.9 Pre-test/Post-test

This study employs a pre-test/post-test design. Due to the observational nature of this study and the reliance upon online student uptake, a pre-test and post-test are administered to measure any gains made due to the provision of the feedback treatments. Uptake is compared in two separate ways. The design of the experiment permits that uptake from a classroom activity be compared to uptake from dyadic interaction because the same or a very similar types of activities, in both form and focus, are used to elicit responses that may contain the target structure.

Two types of tests are used in order to qualitatively measure development. The pre-test and the post-test each consist of five parallel activities, for example, Activity 1 in the pre-test is a multiple choice activity, as is Activity 1 in the post-test. Distractors are included so as to diminish some of the salience of the target structure. See the Figure 19 below for a description of the activities used. Also, see Appendix B for the pre-test and Appendix C for all of activities of the post-test.

Activities	Pre-Test/Post-Test
Activity 1	Multiple choice
Activity 2	Fill in the blank
Activity 3	Fill in the blank

Activity 4	Re-write the sentence in the negative form
Activity 5	Use the pieces in order to create a full sentence

Figure 19. Pre-test and post-test activity type.

### 3.10 Coding Scheme

Once collected, data is coded using a modified version of the Communicative Observational of Language Teaching observational schemes (Spada & Frölich, 1995), otherwise known as COLT schemes. Two different schemes are offered, COLT A and COLT B, both of which will be adapted to quantify and analyze data. COLT A is used to code the context of the classroom within which data is collected to establish the communicative nature of the specific setting of this dissertation treatment. A heavily modified COLT B is used to code small activities and will be specifically modified in order to collect and code data in accordance with Spada and Frölich's (1995) purposes but also reflects Lyster and Ranta's (1997, page 44) Error Treatment Sequence.

Modifications made to COLT A are made to accommodate the specific context of the experiment. All extraneous pieces not pertinent to this study are removed.

Modifications made to COLT B are made to accommodate the specific context of the experiment. The original COLT B scheme was intended to be a generic tool for observation, however, for the purposes of this study, specific modifications are incorporated that reflect the nature of error treatment. Lyster and Ranta (1997) develop a general schemata for error treatment and the

possible engendered results due to any type of teacher intervention. This error treatment sequence chronicles the possible manifestations of results in any error treatment or feedback sequence and serves as the basis for all modifications.

### 3.10.1 Description of Data Coding Scheme

The Data Collection Coding Scheme, see Appendix F, is the tool used to collect data during focused activities and during dyadic activities. Because the study does not look at individual students but rather at the contents of uptake that arise as a result of teacher initiated feedback, all data is coded according to the opportunity for the production of the target structure, the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses.

The coding scheme consists of 18 horizontal rows that are used to code the contents of each opportunity that the students have to produce the target structure. Row #1 counts the number of correct uses of the target structure before any feedback is provided. Row #2 counts the number of instances in which the student avoids the target structure. Rows #3 and #4 reflect the type of feedback provided when a student commits an error in the production of the target structure. Rows #5 - # 10 provide a range of manifestations of student uptake that still needs repair. Rows #11 - #14 provide a range of manifestations of student uptake that are grammatically correct. These rows that detail the possibilities of student uptake are reflected in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) Error Treatment Sequence (See Figure 19). If the student has produced uptake that

contains repair, then the sequence ends. The only other possibility for coding after a corrected error is to quantify the number of correct uses of the target structure after feedback (Row # 20). If the student does not self-correct and does not continue with the topic, then the teacher responds again with a repetition of the initial feedback type. Rows # 16 - #18 reflect the possibilities of student uptake after a second feedback attempt. Again, any additional correct uses after feedback are counted in Row # 20. See Figure 20 below.

				Episode #	Episode #	Episode #
# of correct uses before FB			1			
# of avoidance of target structure			2			
Teacher Feedback type	MLFB		3			
	CLR		4			
Student Uptake	Needs Repair	Acknowledge	5			
		Different Error	6			
		Same Error	7			
		Hesitation	8			
		Off Target	9			
		Partial Repair	10			
	Repair	Repetition	11			
		Incorporation	12			
		Self-Repair	13			
		Peer-Repair	14			
Teacher response to no uptake	No Uptake	Repeat initial FB type	15			

		Topic Continuation	16			
Student Uptake		Self-Repair	17			
		Topic Continuation	18			
		Focus on Forms	19			
# of correct uses after FB			20			

Figure 20. Coding scheme for feedback episodes.

### 3.10.2 Two Examples of Data Coding Scheme

<p>S: “Nosotros queremos que construye*”  T: “Ah, subjuntivo.”  S: “construya, um, um, edificios más largas, ah, más grandes.”</p>
--

Figure 21 Sample episode in Activity 5 with metalinguistic feedback.

Figure 21 above provides an example of one of the pieces of data collected from Activity 1 with the metalinguistic feedback treatment group. Upon being asked what suggestion the group would provide to the president of the university regarding health care, this participant answers and commits an error in the target structure. The error here is an error of the use of the indicative present verb form, *construye*, where the subjunctive should be used, *construya*, because the conjugated verb of influence in the independent clause, ‘*queremos*’, is a verb that triggers the use of the subjunctive in the dependent clause. Upon receiving

instant metalinguistic feedback, the student reformulates his initial utterance and continues with the topic. Because there is no further error and the student is able to self-regulate, there is no need for further teacher-initiated intervention. This episode is coded with the episode number referring to the order in which it occurs, Episode #5. Next, it is coded in Row #3 because the opportunity contains an incorrect use of the target structure and receives metalinguistic feedback. Then, because the student is able to self-repair, the episode is also coded in Row #13. After the student is provided metalinguistic feedback, he is able to self-repair and continues with the topic. In this specific student turn, there is no other opportunity for target structure production.

T:	“Y, y, ¿tienes alguna sugerencia que tu vives en el pueblo, tienes alguna sugerencia para el presidente en cuanto a cambios o maneras de integrar a la gente que no vive en campus?”
S:	“Um, sugiero que, um, el presidente puede, um...”
T:	“¿Cómo” ¿Puede?”
S:	“¿Puede? [brief pause] ¿Can?”
T:	“¿Pueda qué?”
S:	“Oh, porque es un subjuntivo. Que el presidente pueda hacer un sitio web...”

Figure 22. Sample partial episode in Activity 5 with clarification request.

Figure 22 provides an example of a partial feedback episode in Activity 3 that contains a clarification request. This example shows a clarification request that does not result in a self-repair, but rather a topic continuation and reformulation on behalf of the teacher in order to push the communicative flow.

In Activity 3, each episode reflects the individual student since there are no other participants as there are in Activity 1, Activity 2, and Activity 4 in which episodes are operationalized as opportunities. In this example of a clarification request, the whole episode contains two opportunities for the use of the target structure. The student avoids the first opportunity and uses a different verbal construction to describe her suggestion. Upon being asked about a specific suggestion using the verb that would require the use of the subjunctive, the student does in fact make a mistake by using the indicative form of the verb 'poder', 'puede' instead of the subjunctive form, 'pueda'. The teacher is not able to elicit a self-repair from the student and therefore moves the conversation along. Here, Figure 12 could be coded as first Row #4, because a clarification request is provided upon oral error production. Then the partial episode is coded with Row #7 and Row #8 due to the hesitation and the student initiated repetition of the same error. Last, the teacher provides a topic continuation, Row #16, in order to keep the conversation going and not lose the meaning focused context.

### 3.11 Conclusion

This chapter describes the procedures used in the treatment that is measured for this dissertation. The next chapter, Chapter 4 Data Analysis, presents the empirical data from the study described in Chapter 3 Methodology. The chapter first presents data from each research question and then follows it with a discussion of the results. After all data is presented and results discussed,

some general conclusions will be made. A short section at the end of the chapter describes some of the limitations presented by this research.

## CHAPTER 4

### DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter describes the analysis of data collected for this study. Quantitative measurement measures included are 2 Paired Sample T Test for pre-test/post-test analysis of development and Chi-Square Test as well as frequency measures for measurements of uptake. Qualitative data is analyzed using the long table method and a categorization coding scheme. Some frequencies are reported but only for purposes of detailing the instances of outcomes from the experiment.

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into five sections. After this introductory section, The second section, 4.2., presents data in table format with some explanation. Section 4.3. interprets the data based on graphics from the preceding presentation. The fourth section, 4.4. answers the research questions. Lastly, section 4.5. concludes the chapter and introduces themes from Chapter 5.

In this chapter, the guiding framework for presentation is the means by which the research questions are answered. See Figure 23 below for the main

research question and the five questions that will be used to provide empirical support for the answer and the tests used.

	<b>Question</b>	<b>Treatment</b>	<b>Empirical Test</b>
Main Research Question	What are the effects of feedback resulting from both clarification requests and metalinguistic teacher-initiated feedback as measured through uptake on student produced morphosyntactic errors?	5 Feedback Treatment Activities, 5 Pre-test/Post-test Activities	Chi-Square Test, 2 Paired Sample T-Test
Question 1A:	Does a clarification request (implicit corrective feedback) after an error during oral student production promote uptake? What kind of uptake? If uptake does not occur, what is the result?	5 Feedback Treatment Activities	Chi-Square Test
Question 1B:	Does metalinguistic feedback (explicit corrective feedback) after an error during oral student production promote uptake? What kind of uptake? If uptake does not occur, what is the result?	5 Feedback Treatment Activities	Chi-Square Test

	<b>Question</b>	<b>Treatment</b>	<b>Empirical Test</b>
Question 1C:	Does morphosyntactic error correction respond better to explicit or implicit corrective feedback concerning uptake?	5 Feedback Treatment Activities	Chi-Square Test
Question 1D:	Does feedback either in the form of a clarification request or metalinguistic feedback lead to development of the target form in the interlanguage?	5 Pre-test/Post-test Activities	2 Paired Sample T-Test
Question 1E:	What are the students' perceptions of the teacher's attempts at error correction treatments?	Participant Questionnaire	Long Table Method

Figure 23. Research questions and tests.

As previously noted, the research question is the following: What are the effects of feedback resulting from both clarification requests and metalinguistic teacher-initiated feedback as measured through uptake on student produced morphosyntactic errors?

To answer this question, the following four questions break down the elements of the research question to more fully explore it. Each question is

accompanied by an explanation as to how exactly the data is analyzed and presented in the following chapter.

The first question, 1A, asks the following: Does a clarification request (implicit corrective feedback) after an error during oral student production promote uptake? What kind of uptake? If uptake does not occur, what is the result? This question contains three individual questions whose intention is to break down elements of a feedback episode according to the possible outcomes. Data is first coded into the COLT B modified form in order to accurately quantify the feedback episodes. Once a general frequency is established regarding the percentage of correct uptake after feedback, avoidance after feedback and topic continuation after feedback, a T-Test is used to compare the results from opportunities to produce the target form with the feedback treatments in order to measure development.

The second question, 1B, asks the following: Does metalinguistic feedback (explicit corrective feedback) after an error during oral student production promote uptake? What kind of uptake? If uptake does not occur, what is the result? This question contains three individual questions whose intention is to break down elements of a feedback episode according to the possible outcomes. Data is first coded into the COLT B modified form in order to accurately quantify the feedback episodes. Once a general frequency is established regarding the percentage of correct uptake after feedback, avoidance after feedback and topic continuation after feedback, a T-Test is used to compare

the results from opportunities to produce the target form with the feedback treatments.

The third question, 1C, asks the following: Does morphosyntactic error correction respond better to explicit or implicit corrective feedback concerning uptake? First, data is coded on the COLT B modified form. Next, data corresponding to the kind of uptake after either metalinguistic feedback or a clarification request is compared by the presentation of frequency data and 2 Paired Sample T-Test is used to compare the differences between the two treatment groups regarding the uptake as a result of the treatment.

The fourth question, 1D, asks: Does feedback either in the form of a clarification request or metalinguistic feedback lead to development of the target form in the interlanguage? In order to answer this question, mean scores are taken from each treatment group's pre-test/post-test scores on an activity by activity basis. Then, using a 2 Paired Sample T-Test, each t-score is compared. For example, the score from the metalinguistic feedback treatment group for Activity 4 is compared to that of the clarification request treatment group. Any gains are then reported. Additionally, a post hoc analysis of individual students is performed in order to identify if there is development on an individual basis.

Finally, the fifth and only qualitative question, 1E, asks the following: What are the students' perceptions of the teacher's attempts at error correction treatments? Information elicited from the Participant Questionnaire is presented here in a graphic format. Some trends are highlighted, also included here are discrepancies between the two groups specifically regarding student

interpretations regarding feedback between groups. The long table method is used to pull out common threads of reactions.

## 4.2 Presentation of Data

Data is presented here in five subsections. The first section presents data from the pre-test and that post-test. The second section presents data on development. Next, the third section addresses the treatment activities and is followed by the fourth section that describes the uptake data. Finally, the fifth section describes the Participant Questionnaire Data.

### 4.2.1 Pre-Test/Post-Test

Data collected from this experiment is presented here in three different formats in order to answer the research questions. First, pre-test/post-test data is presented in its analyzed form according to a 2 Paired Sample T-Test. Second, data on uptake is presented using both a Chi-Square Test and frequency data. Third, qualitative data from the participant questionnaire is presented using graphs to interpret Lichert scales and the long table method is used to highlight some of the major emergent themes in order to answer the qualitative portion of the research questions.

Two sets of tests are used to measure possible development of the target structure, the subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish. Both the pre-test and

the post-test consists of five different activities whose goal is to elicit the subjunctive in nominal clauses. Not all examples within the activities call for the subjunctive, some nominal clauses contain the indicative and some sentences do not have nominal clauses. The inclusion of distractors is intended to not heighten the salience of the subjunctive. The order of the activities in the pre-test and the post-test is sequential. See Appendix B for the pre-test and Appendix C for all of activities of the post-test.

All activities are presented to participants in either paper format or online for their convenience. No additional instructions are provided other than those included at the beginning of each activity. To ensure comparability, all participants are provided a brief window of two class days before and after the five treatment activities to do the pre-test and the post-test. All participants completed the pre-test and the post-test.

#### 4.2.2 Measurements of Development

Due to the pre-test/post-test nature of this study, a 2 Paired Sample T-Test is used to examine differences between the two treatment groups. The test compares raw mean scores from the pre-test with those of the post-test for all activities together and then for each activity separately. Figure 24 and Figure 25 below illustrates the combined scores for all Activities of the pre-test and post-test. Clarification requests show a t-score of  $t = .504$  and a p-value of  $p = .311$  while the metalinguistic feedback do only fractionally better at  $t = 0.593$  and  $p =$

.281. The average pre-test score for the metalinguistic feedback treatment group is 61.9% while the post-test average mean is 64.7%. No statistical significance can be shown when the activities are summarized. Statistical significance for the t-score is  $t > 2.0 / t < -2.0$  and  $p < 0.05$  for the p-value.

Clarification Request Pre-test/Post-test Frequencies			
Activity	Pre-test %	Post-test %	Statistical Significance
All	69.60%	72%	No p-value = .311 / t = 0.504
1	88.10%	73.70%	Yes p-value = .013 / t = -2.513
2	55.90%	63.10%	No p-value = .213 / t = 0.823
3	68.90%	81%	No p-value = .051 / t = 1.762
4	64.30%	75%	No p-value = .076 / t = 1.521
5	70.70%	67.20%	No p-value = .371 / t = -0.336

Figure 24. Clarification request pre-test/post-test data.

Metalinguistic Feedback Pre-test/Post-test Frequencies			
Activity	Pre-test %	Post-test %	Statistical Significance
All	61.90%	64.70%	No p-value = .281 / t = 0.593

Metalinguistic Feedback Pre-test/Post-test Frequencies			
1	74.50%	73.30%	No p-value = .425 / $t = -0.193$
2	44.30%	61.10%	No p-value = .044 / $t = 1.607$
3	59.90%	70.10%	No p-value = .169 / $t = 0.990$
4	61.10%	63.30%	No p-value = .385 / $t = 0.297$
5	70.30%	56.90%	No p-value = .064 / $t = -1.618$

Figure 25. Metalinguistic feedback pre-test/post-test data.

Activity 1, a multiple choice activity consisting of five sentences, each offering the participant a choice of two different verb forms, shows statistical significance only for the clarification request treatment group. The mean pre-test score for the clarification request treatment group is 88.1% while the post-test is lower at 73.7%. The clarification request data shows  $t = -2.513$  and p-value = 0.013; the metalinguistic feedback data shows  $t = -0.193$  and p-value = .425. Therefore, some development may have happened in the clarification request treatment group as a result of feedback, but only with some students. Further analysis will consider the statistical significance in order to examine the decline in the mean from the pre-test to the post-test.

Activity 2, a fill in the blank activity, provides participants with a full sentence that contains an infinitive form verb in parenthesis that requires conjugation. The conjugated form may either be subjunctive or indicative

depending on the contents of the independent clause. No significant gains are made for either the metalinguistic feedback treatment group ( $t = 1.607$ ), however the p-value shows statistical significance at  $p = .044$ . This is due to the 16.8% increase from the pre-test (44.3%) to the post-test (61.1%) and a t-score of  $t = 0.823$  and a p-value of  $p = .213$  on this fill in the blank activity.

Activity 3, another fill in the blank activity very similar to Activity 2, shows some conflicting data. Both treatment groups do make some gains between the pre-test and the post-test. The clarification request treatment group scores a 68.9% in the pre-test and 81% in the post-test while the metalinguistic treatment group's pre-test score rose from 59.9% to a post-test score of 70.1%. The t-score for the clarification request treatment group is  $t = 1.762$  and the p-value is  $p = .051$ , very close to the threshold of .05 for statistical significance. The metalinguistic feedback treatment group scored lower,  $t = 0.990$  and  $p = .169$ . No statistical significance gains are made by either treatment groups.

Activity 4 requires that participants rewrite a sentence by either affirming or negating the independent clause, therefore changing the qualifications for either subjunctive or indicative in the dependent clause. The clarification request treatment group sees a gain from the pre-test to the post-test, 64.3% to 75%, however the gain for the metalinguistic feedback group is not as high, 61.1% to 63.3%. The clarification request treatment group does not show any significance with a t-score of  $t = 1.521$  and a p-value of  $p = .076$ , and the metalinguistic feedback treatment group scores  $t = 0.297$  and  $p = .385$ .

Lastly, Activity 5 requires participants to take ordered pieces of a sentence and create a larger, subordinated full sentence. Depending on the contents of the independent clause, they may be required to use the subjunctive or the indicative in the dependent clause. No significant gains are shown for either treatment group on this activity and both treatment groups show a decrease between the pre-test and the post-test. The clarification request treatment group scores a pre-test score of 70.7% and a post-test score of 67.2% while the metalinguistic feedback treatment group shows a pre-test score of 70.3% and a post-test score of 56.9%. The clarification request treatment group scores a  $t = -0.336$  and  $p = .371$  while the metalinguistic feedback treatment groups scores a  $t = -1.618$  and  $p = .064$ .

#### 4.2.3 Treatment Activities

Data collected from a series of five classroom activities is detailed below. Of the total five activities, three code data from in class, full-treatment group activities while the other two activities code data from one-on-one, dyadic interviews between the researcher and each participant. See Appendix A for the activities.

Uptake is coded using a modified version Lyster and Ranta's (1997) Error Treatment Sequence (p. 44) and the Colt B scheme (Spada & Frölich, 1995). See Appendix F for the coding scheme. Individual episodes are coded according first to the type of error produced and then the feedback treatment employed.

Once the type of feedback is marked, the uptake, that is the student reaction to the feedback, is checked. There are two different types of possible reactions, uptake containing repair, and uptake that contains needs-repair. Data collected from all five activities is pooled and analyzed according to the total number of each type of feedback and within that number, the total number of self-repair and no-repair make up the full frequency total of each type of feedback. See Figure 26 below for a frequency distribution of the feedback episodes and the resulting uptake.

Feedback type	Uptake: self-repair	Uptake: needs-repair	Total feedback
Clarification Request	29.50%	70.50%	100%
Metalinguistic Feedback	76.20%	23.80%	100%

Figure 26. Frequency of feedback episodes and distribution.

As noted above in Figure 27, the clarification request results in less frequent self-repair than the metalinguistic feedback. The rate of success of the metalinguistic feedback is explained later in the interpretation of data.

#### 4.2.4 Measurements of Uptake

Data on uptake is analyzed using a Chi-Square test with 1 degree of freedom. Statistical significance is measured as being a P-Value > 0.1. Analysis

shows that  $p = 0.00000162$ , therefore the findings for metalinguistic feedback over clarification requests are statistically significant. A comparative analysis is presented in the proceeding section. As a means of showing the data using percentages, the distribution data is presented below in Figure 27 as raw numbers.

Feedback type	Uptake: self-repair	Uptake: needs-repair	Total feedback
Clarification Request	13	31	44
Metalinguistic Feedback	48	15	63
Total Feedback	61	46	107

Figure 27. Feedback episodes and distribution.

The total for feedback episodes is  $N = 107$ . Of the total 107 episodes, clarification requests comprise  $N = 44$  and metalinguistic feedback comprises  $N = 63$ . The results of intervention for the two treatment groups is divided into two separate categories, uptake with self-repair and uptake with needs-repair.

Operationalized as a student reaction to teacher feedback that contains a target form utterance of the linguistic structure error addressed by the teacher, uptake with self-repair is the intention of the feedback and reflects the desired outcome of the teacher. Operationalized as a student reaction to teacher feedback that does not contain a target form utterance of the linguistic structure error addressed by the teacher, uptake with needs-repair does not reflect the desired

outcome of the teacher. An example of needs-repair may contain a different error, the same error, or simply topic continuation.

Within the clarification request treatment group, the  $N = 44$  is composed of an uptake with self-repair of  $N = 13$  and uptake with needs-repair of  $N = 31$ . Clarification requests are successful as prompts 29.5% of the time. However, 70.5% of the time clarification requests are not recognized as corrective in nature in these 5 activities, and therefore, there is no reformulation. Within the metalinguistic feedback treatment group, the  $N = 63$  is composed of an uptake with self-repair of  $N = 48$  and uptake with needs-repair of  $N = 15$ . Metalinguistic feedback is successful as a prompt to elicit uptake with self-repair 76.2% of the time. The failure rate of metalinguistic feedback to elicit uptake with self-repair is 23.8%.

#### 4.2.5 Participant Questionnaire Data

The Participant Questionnaire is designed to elicit information regarding the perceptions and opinions of participants in this study and is divided into three sections. Here, data from the section pertaining to feedback is examined. General yes/no questions are posed and participants are provided with an opportunity to reflect and share opinions. Then a series of six statements are posited to the participants in the form of a Likert scale in which they are asked to rate their agreement with the statements based on a 1-6, agree/disagree, basis. Data is presented below using pie graphs for the yes/no questions per treatment group, followed by an analysis of the student reflections. Then, data from the

Likert scales is presented using bar graphs. All data is then interpreted in the following section, 4.3.

The first question addresses the participants' opinions about the importance of error correction by the teacher in the setting from which data is collected. Results indicate that yes, participants do feel that it is important that a language teacher corrects spoken grammatical errors in a conversation course. Due to the unanimous findings regarding this first question, the treatment groups have been combined for this question. See Figure 28 below.

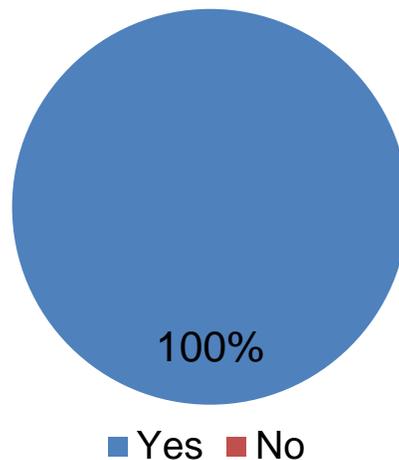


Figure 28. Combined treatment groups. Question 1.

The second question asks participants whether or not they recall being corrected by the teacher after making a spoken grammatical error. The majority of participants from the clarification request treatment group report, 87%, answer

that yes, they do recall being, while 13% report that they do not recall being corrected. This finding is not congruent with findings regarding uptake.

Participants in the clarification request treatment group only self-repair 29.50% of the time, yet they report that they recall being corrected. Similarly, while 100% of participants in the metalinguistic feedback treatment group report that they recall being corrected by the teacher, only 76.20% were able to self-repair. This incongruence in data may reflect the treatment of other errors during the course that were not used in data analysis (i.e. feedback provided for errors of preterite or copulative verbs). See Figures 29 and 30 below. All participants, 100%, from the metalinguistic feedback treatment group report recalling being corrected.

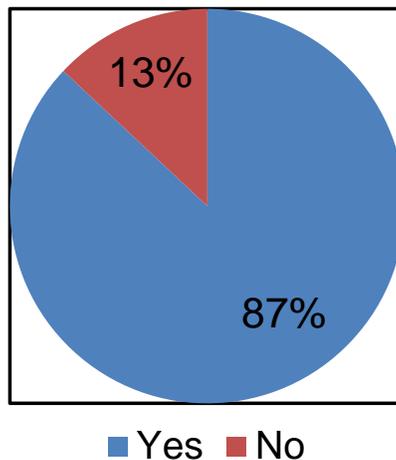


Figure 29. Clarification request feedback treatment group. Question 2.

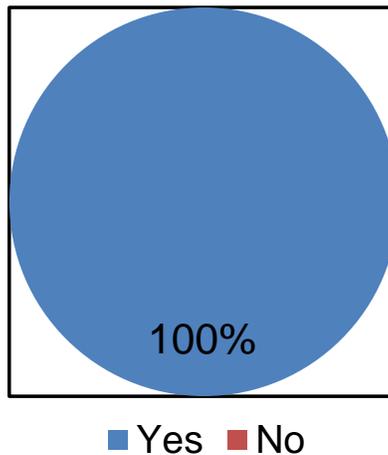


Figure 30. Metalinguistic feedback treatment group. Question 2.

The third question asks participants to comment on whether or not they recall witnessing a classmate being corrected by the teacher after a spoken grammatical error. Within the clarification request treatment group, 93% of participants report that they do recall witnessing a classmate being corrected by the teacher and 7% report that they do not recall witnessing any classmate being corrected. See Figure 31 below. In the metalinguistic feedback treatment group, all participants, 100%, recall witnessing their classmates being corrected by the teacher after a spoken grammatical error. See Figure 32 below.

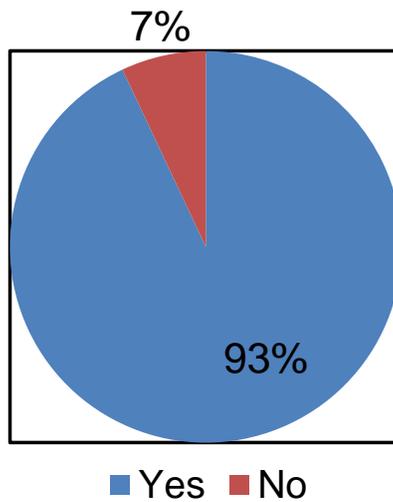


Figure 31. Clarification request treatment group. Question 3.

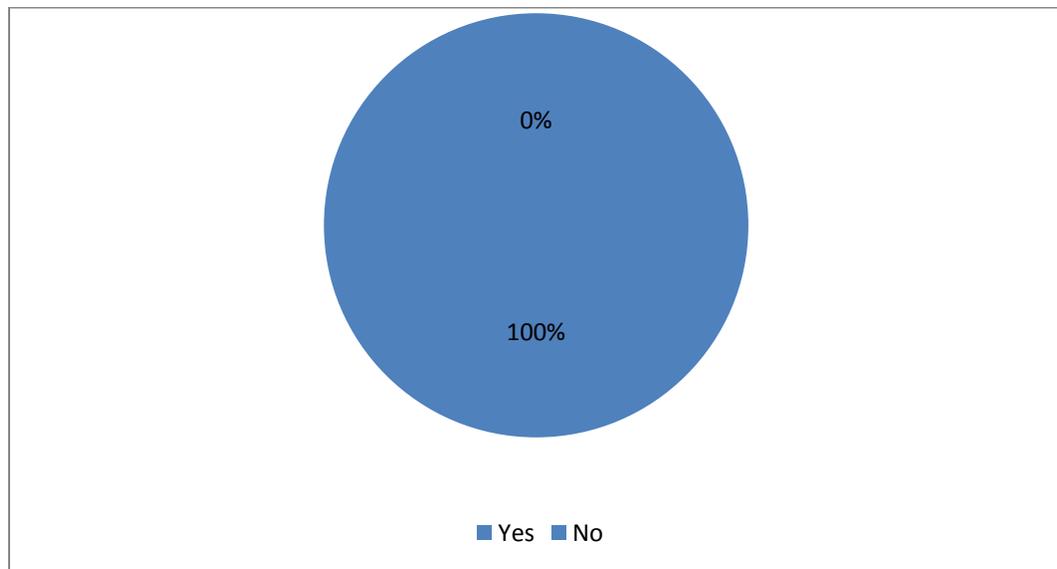


Figure 32. Metalinguistic feedback treatment group. Question 3.

Likert scales are used in order to provide participants with the opportunity to share whether or not and to what degree they agree specific statements. Six statements are provided to the participants who mark 1-5 on Likert scales. By marking the number 1, the participant indicates that “I completely disagree” and by the number 6, the participant indicates that “I completely agree”. No semantic

value is assigned to 2, 3, 4 or 5. The six specific questions are below in Figure 33.

Six Qualitative Statements
Statement 1: I feel at ease when my teacher tried to get me to fix a spoken error.
Statement 2: I believe most of my classmates feel comfortable when our teacher tries to get them to fix a spoken error.
Statement 3: I am nervous whenever my teacher tries to get me to fix a spoken error.
Statement 4: I feel mentally blocked and cannot say a word whenever my teacher tries to get me to fix a spoken error.
Statement 5: Every spoken error should be addressed by the teacher in a Conversation course.
Statement 6: I always know when my teacher is trying to get me to fix a spoken error.

Figure 33. Six qualitative statements.

Participant data from the six qualitative statements is presented in four graphs.

Due to the nature of the participant responses, Statement 1, Statement 2 and

Statement 6 are first presented together and then, Statement 3, Statement 4, and

Statement 5 are presented together in the same format for the metalinguistic

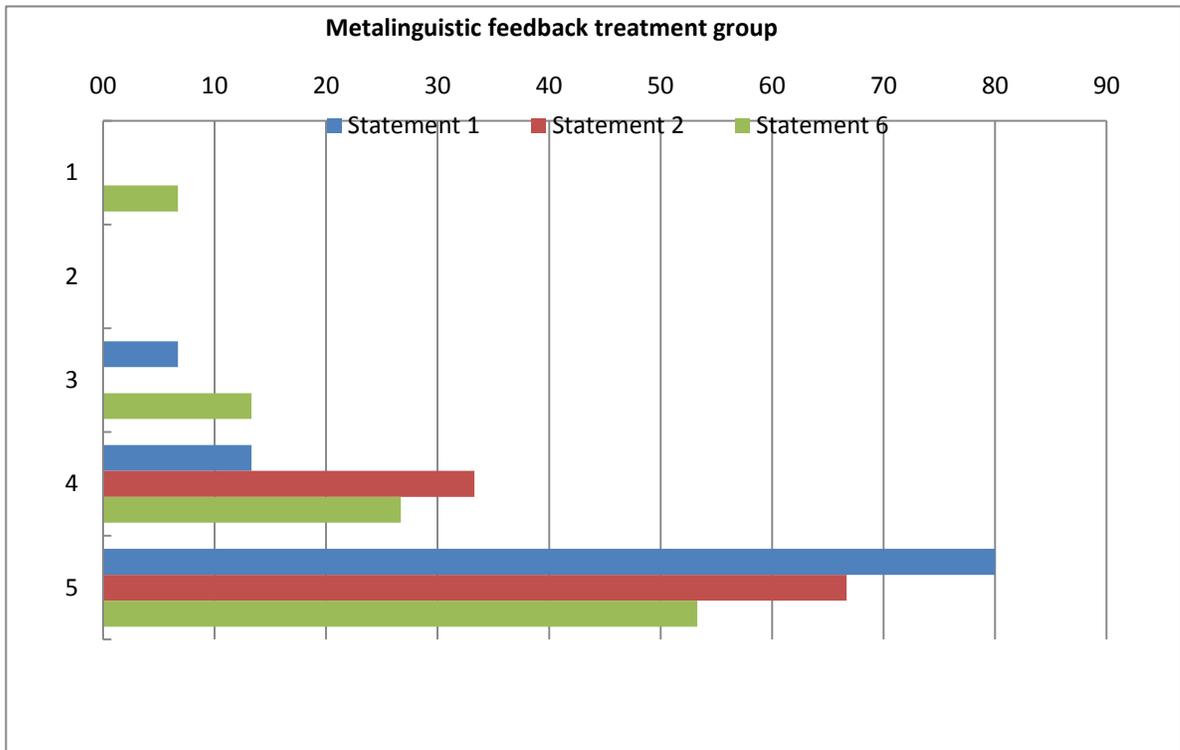


Figure 34. Metalinguistic feedback treatment group responses for Statement 1, Statement, 2 and Statement 6.

Figure 34 above shows a significant majority of participants who tended to agree with the statements provided. These statements pertain to feeling at ease on the individual level upon receiving upon receiving feedback, believes about

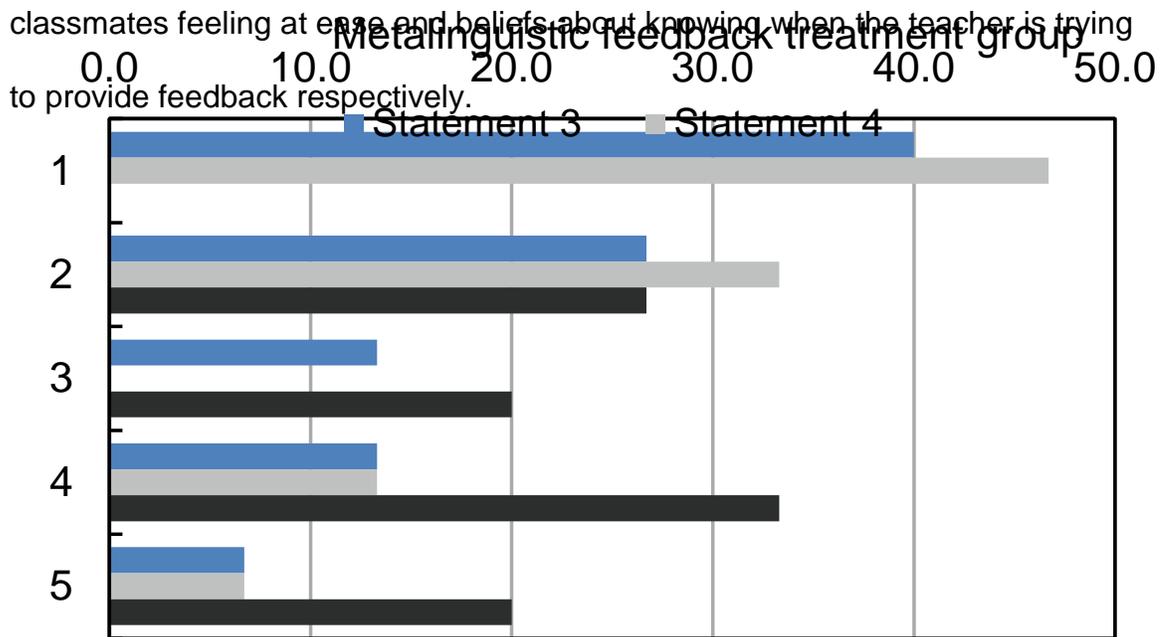


Figure 35. Metalinguistic feedback treatment group responses for Statement 3, Statement 4, and Statement 5.

Figure 35 above shows a significant majority of participants who tended to disagree with the statements provided. Note, however, that Statement 5 does have a greater distribution. These statements pertain to feeling nervous when the teacher attempts to provide feedback, feeling mentally blocked when the

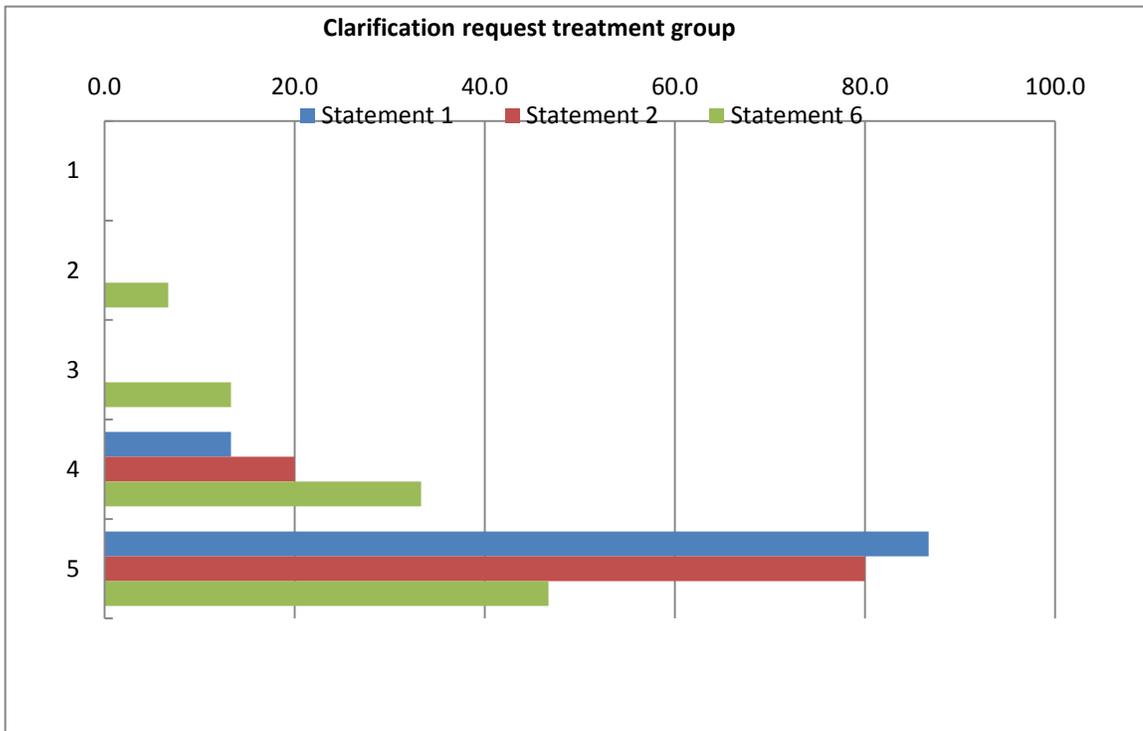


Figure 36. Clarification request treatment group responses for Statement 1, Statement 2, and Statement 6.

Figure 36, like Figure 34, above shows a significant majority of participants who tended to agree with the statements provided. These statements pertain to feeling at ease on the individual level upon receiving upon receiving feedback, believes about classmates feeling at ease and beliefs about knowing when the teacher is trying to provide feedback respectively.

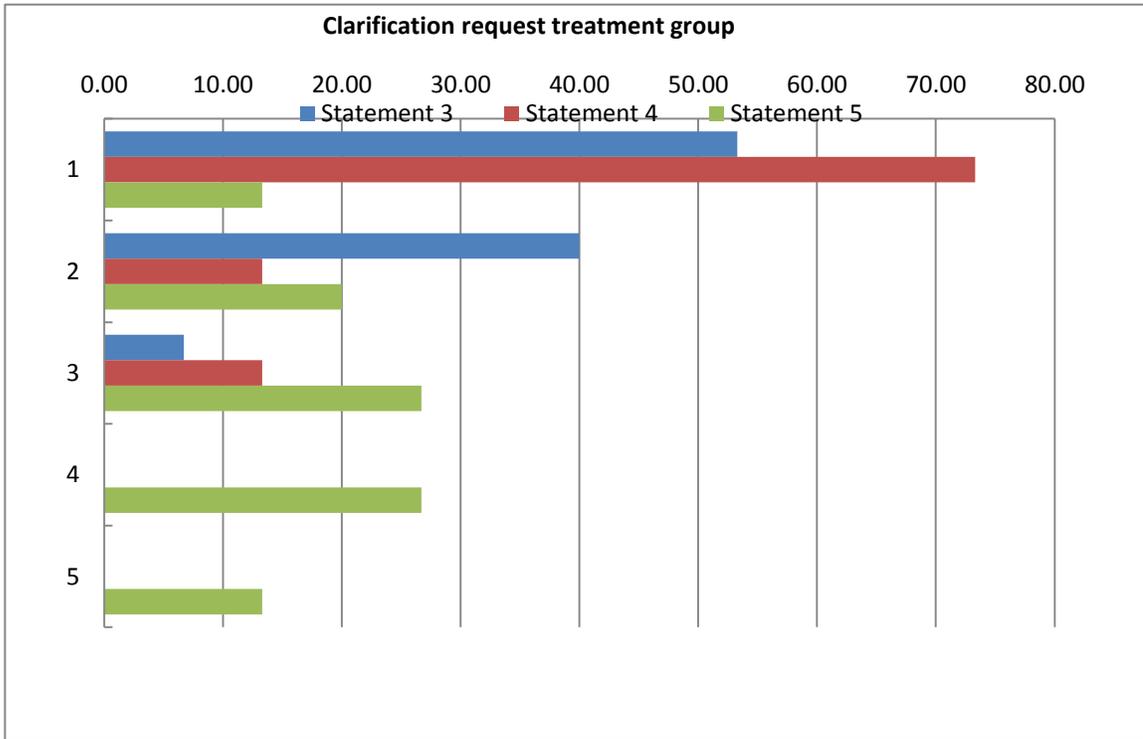


Figure 37. Clarification request treatment group responses for Statement 1, Statement 2, and Statement 6.

Figure 37, like Figure 35, above shows a significant majority of participants who tended to disagree with the statements provided. Note, however, that Statement 5 does have a greater distribution. These statements pertain to feeling nervous when the teacher attempts to provide feedback, feeling

mentally blocked when the teacher attempts to provide feedback, and the treatment of all spoken errors by the teacher.

### 4.3 Interpretation of Data

This section provides an in-depth analysis of the data presented above in section 4.2. in order to explain the conflicting findings reported earlier.

#### 4.3.1 Quantitative Data Interpretation

Data collected from the five classroom activities examines the immediate effectiveness of feedback during online, oral activities. Findings indicate that students seem to be able to recognize the corrective intention, that is, the negative evidence, in the feedback when it is in the form of metalinguistic feedback in greater frequency than when clarification requests are used as feedback. The reason for this ease of recognition for the negative evidence may have to do with the explicitness of the feedback moves themselves. When a participant is immediately interrupted and told to use subjunctive, right after an incorrectly conjugated verb in the indicative mood or vice versa, the intentions of the teacher may be more clear. The teacher clearly and briefly interrupts, states that there is a need for subjunctive and waits making eye contact with the

student. The student, in most cases is then able to correct the original utterance and continue. The metalinguistic feedback is more explicit in that it directly targets a specific form and the means through which the feedback are delivered may be seen as more clear. Also, the metalinguistic feedback does not make the student work hard to fix his/her error. In telling the student exactly what needs to be fixed, the work required of the student is less in that s/he only has to correctly conjugate the verb and the tense to use has already been provided explicitly in the feedback move.

Clarification requests are more implicit in their nature as feedback moves. Findings indicate that participants seem to be less able to recognize the corrective nature of the feedback move, that is, the negative evidence implied in the interruption. When a clarification request is provided to the student immediately after incorrectly uttering the indicative when the subjunctive must be used or vice versa, participants tend to not recognize the corrective nature, that is the negative evidence provided in them. This may be due to the implicit nature of the clarification request. The unclear nature of the clarification request, even when coupled with a repetition of the incorrect target form, does not seem to be explicit enough for participants to be able to self-repair. There are some instances in which the clarification request does function. It is in these cases during classroom activities that the clarification request may hold the key to its possible link between the statistical significance of the pre-test/post-test t-score for Activity 1 and for some of the individual gains made by participants.

Another difficulty that arises from the use of the clarification request in this specific focus on form setting is the perception of the feedback. Many times, when a participant incorrectly used the target structure and was then presented with an immediately clarification request, the communicative nature of the clarification request may not have been salient enough to the students. Many participants actually repeated the incorrect form and then moved to a topic continuation. A possible interpretation of this phenomenon is that the participants may have interpreted the clarification request as the teacher's/researcher's possible inability to hear.

Data collected from the pre-test and the post-test shows little development, however, it conflicts with the data on uptake. Analysis from the uptake portion of the study indicates that metalinguistic feedback is significantly more effective at eliciting student generated uptake that contains self-repair than are clarification requests. However, while only Activity 1 shows a t-scores with any statistical significance,  $t = -2.513$ , it is also within Activities 3 and 4 that there is some minor development. Activity 3 shows t-score of  $t = 1.762$  and Activity 4 shows a t-score of  $t = 1.521$  both for clarification requests. While no significance can be claimed by these low t-scores, in comparison with the t-scores from other activities, both in the clarification request and metalinguistic feedback treatment, they are higher and may be linked to some development in some participants.

While data presented here indicates very little development when analyzed at the whole group level, data from individual students in a post-hoc analysis does yield some results indicating development.

Participants who made a 10% gain or more from the overall pre-test to the post-test are grouped according to the feedback treatment. Data analysis is measured again in a 2-Paired Sample T-Test to test for the statistical significance of said gains. See figure 38 below for a description of the data regarding students who did show development.

Post-hoc development on an individual level			
Clarification Request		Metalinguistic Feedback	
Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
90	100	41	49
47	68	41	69
67	91	71	80
42	80	37	62
		23	46
		67	87
p = 0.014		p = 0.001	
t = 4.033		t = 5.476	

Figure 38. Post-hoc development on an individual level.

Figure 38 above shows the pre-test to post-test development of four participants in the clarification request treatment group and six participants in the metalinguistic feedback treatment group. While some participants from each group show a 10% or more gain (25% of the clarification request treatment group and 37.5% of the metalinguistic feedback treatment group), the remaining participants show no development or show a devolution. Statistical significance

is shown for both groups of students who show gains and therefore have experienced interlanguage development. The *t*-scores are statistically significant in that they are above the required *t*-score  $> 2$  and the low *p*-value also shows statistical significance at *p*-value  $< .05$ . Further consideration must be taken in regards to participants themselves. Participants who seem to have benefited from feedback in the treatment groups and subsequently made more than a 10% gain between pre-test and post-test measures are participants who may be described as either low-level, high-level or heritage speakers. That is, participants who show individual development reflect the extremes of the bell curve in regards to linguistic ability in this study. Further study and data analysis of student competencies is needed to make any further inferences.

Development as shown above, due to feedback, may have only affected certain students due to their level of developmental readiness (See Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Carpenter et. al., 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Havranek, 2002; Mackey & Philip, 1998; Truscott, 1996). It is this degree of developmental readiness that may be the contributing factor to the interlanguage development that the ten participants show in their pre-test/post-test scores. That is, participants may have been at an idiosyncratic stage of developmental readiness in which they were able to use feedback as a means of strengthening ties between form and meaning.

#### 4.3.2 Qualitative Data Interpretation

Quantitative and qualitative data from the participant questionnaire reflects the generally positive perceptions that students have about feedback. Two of the aforementioned quantitative questions provide students with the opportunity to reflect. Findings from the two treatment groups are very similar. They are analyzed and presented below together. Where any significant differences in qualitative data are reported, they are specifically addressed. See Figure 39 below for the two questions that yield qualitative data.

Qualitative Data Questions
1. If you do recall being corrected, please briefly comment on how you felt about being corrected after making a spoken error.
2. If you do recall witnessing one of your classmates being corrected after making an error, please briefly comment on how you felt about other students being corrected.

Figure 39. Qualitative data questions.

Data elicited from the participant questionnaire yields several areas into which the responses may be categorized. These areas are further compacted into three domains for each question. The three domains for analysis are the affective domain, the utility domain and the pedagogical domain. Each domain is developed below according to each question.

The first domain, the affective domain, takes into consideration the moods, feelings and attitudes of the participants, whether they be positive or negative. When participants answer the questions in a manner that directly reflects how

they are personally and emotionally affected, the statement is coded as pertaining to the affective domain.

The second domain, the utility domain, reflects the participants' reactions to the questions when their answers reflect usefulness, profitability, or benefit, whether they be positive or negative. When a participant answers directly or indirectly referencing a connection between the feedback and the possible connection to facilitated learning, the answers are coded as pertaining to the utility domain.

Finally, the third domain, the pedagogical domain, is used to code any student reaction that directly or indirectly refers to the pedagogical implication or expectation related to the use of feedback. As with the two aforementioned domains, the pedagogical domain may reflect both positive and negative reactions to the questions.

Data analysis is presented below first by domain, then within each domain, the first question is described both positively and negatively and then the second question is described both positively and negatively. Where there are discrepancies between the two treatment groups, an explanation is provided.

The first qualitative question asks participants to reflect upon and comment about their reactions in relation to receiving feedback from the instructor. Participants from the metalinguistic treatment group responded very similarly to the clarification request treatment group, see Figure 40 below for a sampling of key phrases. The affective domain contains responses such as “felt

fine”, “I like it”, “enjoyed it”, “appreciate it”, “incredibly happy because now I know” and “thankful”.

Two students from the clarification request treatment group comment that, “as long as it’s done with good humor, it’s a very positive thing” and that “I felt that it was appropriately done, and the overall mood was very positive and comfortable”. Both students echo part of the innate implicit nature of the clarification request. It is a non-invasive and oftentimes seemingly invisible feedback type. It is possible that these students were able to perceive some corrective nature in a clarification request episode when they witnessed their peers engaging in them. While the metalinguistic feedback treatment may have been more invasive, one student from that group comments that, “I feel generally everyone respected being corrected and felt good about it.”

Most affective domain responses are positive in nature, however two participants in the metalinguistic treatment group describe negative reactions to the feedback. No participants’ responses to the first question are coded negatively. One student states that, “I was fine with it- I know I make mistakes and want to improve them. But I do get nervous and have a little block on how to fix it”. The other student states that

“being corrected is sometimes embarrassing but once you get over the fact that everyone makes mistakes its helpful in bettering your conversation skills. If I make a mistake when talking I’ll probably make the same mistake again, but if I’m corrected I’m much more likely to remember and not make the same mistake”.

The second question asks participants to reflect upon their reaction to witnessing peers engage in feedback episodes with the instructor. All findings

are similar to those of question one for both treatment groups. However, one participant responded negatively to witnessing her peers engage in feedback episodes. She reports that, “They seemed comfortable with it and I felt a little uncomfortable for them.”

The second domain contains participants’ responses that have to do with a perceived benefit. All participants claim the feedback episodes in which they themselves participated (Question 1) were “helpful”, “clears up doubts”, “helps me learn from my mistakes”, “I was fine tuning my speaking”, “it will help me with my mistakes”, “it was constructive and helpful”, “it was important”, and “that’s the point of being in a Spanish class”. Again, question 2 asks participants to comment on their perceptions of feedback episodes that they witnessed their peers engaged in and only one response is coded as pertaining to the negative utility domain. The participant from the metalinguistic feedback treatment group comments that, “I didn’t think twice about it. I felt indifferent...”. All other responses to question 2 by both treatment groups are similar to the responses of both treatment groups in question 1.

The third domain categorizes participant responses that reflect a pedagogical belief or perception into positive and negative groups. No negative perceptions are reported for either the first or the second question and there is great similarity in terms of the types of positive responses from both treatment groups on both questions.

This domain reflects the fewest comments. In reference to the first question, one of the only participants in the metalinguistic feedback treatment

group to answer in the pedagogical domain seems to have understood the nature of the metalinguistic feedback. He states, “He just told me that I was supposed to use the subjunctive; without telling me exactly what the conjugated verb was gave me a chance to fix it on my own.” Participants from the clarification request treatment group comment that they may be “more prepared for next time”, and that the feedback “was more of a suggestion than a correction so I didn’t feel as though I was being attacked.”

The second question also elicits very few responses pertaining to the pedagogical domain, all of which are coded as being positive. Participant responses from the metalinguistic feedback treatment response group include comments like “it’s just part of the teacher’s job”, and “It was normal and is part of learning a language”. No participants’ answers are coded as pertaining to the pedagogical domain.

Overall, participants seem to be receptive to feedback and expect it as part of a normal language classroom. The few negative answers reported above are all responses from the same few participants. See Figure 40 below for a sample of key phrases reported by participants. A designation is made regarding the participant group and the question to which the comment refers.

Sample Qualitative Key Phrases (MLFB = Metalinguistic Feedback; CLR = Clarification Request) (1 = Question 1; 2 = Question 2)		
Affective	-	“It was embarrassing.” (MLFB 1)
		“It makes me nervous.” (MLFB 1)
	+	“I felt fine.” (MLFB/CLR 2)

		"I like it." (MLFB/CLR 2)
		"I didn't mind." (MLFB/CLR 2)
		"Thankful...not an attack." (CLR 1)
		"I feel everyone respected being corrected." (MLFB 1)
Utility	-	N/A
	+	"I am more prepared." (MLFB 1)
		"I know how to fix my mistakes for seeing others be corrected." (CLR 2)
		"They needed it." (CLR 2)
		"I learned from their mistakes." (MLFB 2)
		"Appropriate and done constructively." (CLR 2)
Pedagogical	-	N/A
	+	"...fine tune my speaking." (CLR 2)
		"...part of learning a second language." (MLFB/CLR 2)
		"...improves class conversation." (MLFB 1)
		"...reflects constructive criticism." (CLR 2)

Figure 40. Sample qualitative key phrases.

#### 4.4 Research Question Answers

The main research question in this study, 'What are the effects of feedback resulting from both clarification requests and metalinguistic teacher-initiated feedback as measured through uptake on student produced

morphosyntactic errors?' is supported by four quantitative and one qualitative questions. Below, each supporting question is analyzed and a final answer to the main research question is proposed.

The first supporting question asks the following: 'Does a clarification request (implicit corrective feedback) after an error during oral student production promote uptake? What kind of uptake?' Findings from frequency data report that clarification requests in this study promote self-repair in 29.5% of all treatment episodes. Those episodes not containing self-repair mainly contain a student repetition of the incorrect form or a topic continuation. Therefore, a clarification request after an error during oral student production is not likely to promote uptake and uptake is likely to contain a needs-repair of the incorrect target structure.

The second supporting question asks the following: 'Does metalinguistic feedback (explicit corrective feedback) after an error during oral student production promote uptake? What kind of uptake?' Frequency data shows that metalinguistic feedback is more likely to promote uptake that contains self-repair when in comparison with a clarification request. Uptake containing self-repair is at 70.2%. Therefore, metalinguistic feedback after an error during oral student production is likely to promote uptake and uptake is likely to contain self-repair.

The third supporting question asks the following: 'Does morphosyntactic error correction respond better to explicit or implicit corrective feedback concerning uptake?' Through a Chi-Square analysis of the instances of clarification request and its manifestations of self-repair, it can also be shown that

clarification requests (implicit corrective feedback) do not reflect statistically significant chances of outperforming metalinguistic feedback, which does show for statistically significant chances of outperforming clarification request. Therefore, morphosyntactic error correction may respond better to explicit corrective feedback concerning uptake containing self-repair than a clarification request.

The fourth quantitative supporting question asks: 'Does feedback either in the form of a clarification request or metalinguistic feedback lead to development of the target form in the interlanguage?' To answer this question, statistical data from the 2 Sample Paired T-Test is used. Using data from a pre-test administered before the five treatments and a post-test after the treatments, statistical data in the form of t-tests confirms that there is no development as a result of feedback interventions. The pre-tests and post-tests are originally pooled and combined data shows no significance with a t-score at  $t = 0.504$  for clarification requests and  $t = 0.593$  for metalinguistic feedback. Because no statistical significance could be claimed from this pooling of data, the pre-tests and post-tests are compared on an activity-by-activity basis. Findings from this post analysis show little development as measured by t-scores, however individual students may have benefited. Activity 1 does show statistical significance, however, it must be taken into consideration that this is a multiple-choice activity and therefore, no linguistic production is taking place. Statistical significance is operationalized as  $t > 2$ , a result that, as a whole, is not found in this data set. Therefore, no development can be attributed on a full scale due to

feedback, however, some development on the individual level may be attributed to both types of feedback.

The fifth supporting question and the only qualitative question asks the following: 'What are the students' perceptions of the teacher's attempts at error correction treatments?' To answer this question, participants answer 11 questions on the participant questionnaire pertaining to their perceptions of error treatment and their reactions to them. The first five questions ask participants to comment either yes or no, and then to comment on the questions if they have anything to share. The following six questions ask students to rate their level of agreement on a Likert scale pertaining to their affective reaction to feedback.

As reported above, the first 5 questions, especially the first, show that students are in favor of feedback, recall being given feedback, and witnessing the feedback given to other students. In general, the comments provided are positive as well. Regarding the 6 Likert scale statements, the majority of students feel at ease when engaged in a feedback episode, feel that other students are also comfortable when in engaged in a feedback episode, were not nervous when the researcher engaged them in a feedback episode, did not feel mentally blocked when engaged in a feedback episode, and always knew when the researcher was providing feedback. Only the fifth statement regarding the treatment of every error by the researcher yields varied findings.

Qualitative data points at the not only the students' perceived needs for the inclusion of feedback in the classroom, but also to that they seem to be comfortable with it. It may be that this is an expectation of a language class and

of an academic situation in general. Part of the academic and scholastic zeitgeist is that there exists feedback as a result of students' errors.

One finding that is echoed in research regarding the efficacy of feedback when provided either extensively or intensively is the question 5 regarding the treatment of every question. Participants' opinions were divided almost equally between answering 2-5 (1 being "I completely disagree"). It seems that participants do not agree on the extensiveness by which errors should be addressed. By addressing every error that is uttered in a Spanish Conversation course, it may be difficult to maintain any degree of communicativity when there is a constant interruption by the researcher to address the particular linguistic needs of every student. It may be more effective to treat specific errors that may respond better to treatment with a dual attempt to allow and encourage development of the interlanguage.

Therefore, students perceive feedback as an important and comfortable classroom activity that they recollect for both themselves and their classmates that does not produce a nervous reaction or a mental block but that may or may not necessarily address every spoken error in a Spanish Conversation course.

Finally, the main research question, 'What are the effects of feedback resulting from both clarification requests and metalinguistic teacher-initiated feedback as measured through uptake on student produced morphosyntactic errors?' can be answered affirmatively for metalinguistic feedback, but not for clarification requests. Consequently, the effects of feedback in the form of clarification requests as measured through uptake on student produced

morphosyntactic errors is not significant. Clarification requests do not tend to lead to uptake containing self-repair, but are identified by participants to be non-threatening. On the other hand, the effects of feedback in the form of metalinguistic feedback as measured through uptake on student produced morphosyntactic errors is significant. Metalinguistic feedback does tend to lead to uptake containing self-repair, and is also identified by students to be non-threatening. However, although the metalinguistic feedback does seem to be beneficial for oral production and more successful than clarification requests, neither feedback move seems to contribute to the interlanguage development of the participants unless they are developmentally ready to make interlanguage adjustments.

This means that, while metalinguistic feedback does tend to lead to immediate self-repair without interrupting the communicative flow, generalizable claims can not be made for either type of feedback regarding their ability to make adjustments to the interlanguage of a language learner unless the learner is at a specific and idiosyncratic stage that would enable said adjustments. Hence, some students will benefit on an interlanguage level while others may only benefit on an immediate conversational level by either directly or indirectly receiving feedback regarding errors made in the use of the subjunctive in Spanish nominal clauses.

#### 4.5 Conclusion

This chapter details the data collected from the two treatment groups for this study. A total of five activities, two individual interviews and three whole class activities, are used to collect feedback data on the participants in two sections of a Spanish conversation course. Each group received only one type of feedback which is analyzed above in terms of effectiveness operationalized as uptake that contains a self-repair. Interlanguage development is measured according to pre-test and post-test comparisons. While statistical significance is found for metalinguistic feedback on uptake containing self-repair, no interlanguage development is found using statistical analysis.

The next chapter, Chapter 5 - Conclusion, presents a concise conclusion to the study. Comparisons across studies are made, limitations to the study are highlighted and suggestions for future research are posited.

## CHAPTER 5

### CONCLUSION

This chapter concludes and summarizes the study of this dissertation comparing the uptake of two different feedback types and the possibility of interlanguage development within them. Although this data from this study has been analyzed and presented in the previous chapters, the goal remains to contribute to the field of feedback research, classroom research and the facilitation of language acquisition at various levels and within different contexts.

This chapter is divided into five sections. First, section 5.1. briefly describes the study and the findings and, section 5.2. connects findings from this study with those from the published field of literature. Then, section 5.3. highlights six specific limitations in this study and the suggestions for further research based and then section 5.4. provides pedagogical implications. Finally, section 5.5. concludes this study.

#### 5.1 Summary of Study

Motivation for this study came about due to a series of observations of student teachers who, in an attempt to cajole students into using the correct grammar and lexicon, simply provided students with recasts and explicit

correction. This led to a desire to find a better way to provide students with feedback during oral production that challenged students' abilities, interfaced with information that they had already partially acquired, and attempted to strengthen relationships between students' understanding of the grammatical forms and the functions within which they are used.

This purpose of this study is to examine two different types of feedback in a focus on form context in order to empirically justify the efficacy of one type over the other and to establish any possible connections between interlanguage development in the second language learner and engagement in the feedback episodes with the teacher. Participants were engaged in five activities, three in-class activities that were whole-group activities and two individual researcher/participant interviews. The pre-test/post-test collected data on the development of the interlanguage and the five activities were used to collect data on feedback treatment efficacy.

Participants' abilities were measured using a pre-test/post-test design and effectiveness of the feedback was measured through the uptake of the episodes. Based upon the data collected from this body of research, metalinguistic feedback may be seen as statistically more of a significant means of eliciting student self-repair as a result of a spoken grammatical error in the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses in comparison with that of a clarification request. While findings suggest that metalinguistic feedback is more facilitative of self-repair than are clarification requests, no significant findings can be reported regarding development of the interlanguage except on some individual bases.

This lack of association between efficacy of feedback type and interlanguage development may be attributed to the complexity of the target structure, the subjunctive in nominal clauses. The acquisition of this target structure is a lengthy process and while some participants may have been ready to acquire the form, others were not, and in some cases, devolved from the pre-test to the post-test. Another reason for the lack of development may be attributed to the context of the class from which data were collected. The class is an intermediate level course, a level from which gains are slower to appear, especially when in comparison with an introductory or beginners level course.

Two sets of empirical findings are presented as a result of this study, pre-test/post-test findings and uptake findings. First, empirical findings from the pre-test/post-test suggest that there is little to no development of the interlanguage of the whole group as a result of the five activities. One of the five activities does show statistical significance, however, it is a multiple-choice activity which does not require any linguistic production on behalf of the participant while activities that do require said production do not show any development as a whole. Some individual participants do show improvement. Second, empirical findings about uptake show that metalinguistic feedback is statistically more likely to result in self-repair. However, this may in part be due to the explicitness of the metalinguistic feedback over the clarification request. Participants seem to be able to recognize the corrective nature of the metalinguistic feedback and draw upon their interlanguage knowledge of the conjugated form and semantic function in order to self-repair. The cognitive momentary load may be lighter in

that there is less work to do since the corrective nature is explicit and the correction category is provided. The implicit nature of the clarification request may be the key to unlocking the ineffectiveness of the feedback type. The corrective nature may not be clear and the lack of localization of the error may also lead to further ambiguity.

## 5.2 Contribution to the Established Field of Study

In this section connections are made to the established literature as reported in Chapter 2, Review of Literature. Where descriptions are appropriate based on presented findings, claims of support or contradiction are developed. It must be taken into consideration that this study is the first of its kind that does not include a control group, has a pre-test/post-test design to measure effects of two treatments, and that compares two different kinds of prompts as a reaction to the use of subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish within a focus on form context. Therefore, findings from published literature that either coincide or contradict findings must be done so within the differing contexts of the individual studies.

The most relevant field of studies, the observational and experimental body of work referred to in this study as the Lyster studies, supports this study. Findings coincide with the Lyster studies which measure the effectiveness of feedback through uptake. This study supports findings from Lyster and Ranta (1997) regarding the efficacy of both types and especially metalinguistic feedback, however, Lyster and Ranta (1997) report a distribution of  $N = 73$  and  $N$

= 58 for clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback respectively (p. 53) and this study respectively reports  $N = 44$  and  $N = 63$ . See Figure 41 below for comparative information on clarification requests between this study and Lyster and Ranta (1997).

Clarification Request		
	Uptake: Self-repair	Uptake: Needs Repair
Lyster and Ranta (1997)	28%	72%
This study	29.50%	70.50%

Figure 41. Uptake comparison of clarification request with Lyster and Ranta (1997).

Figure 41 shows the frequency similarity between this study and Lyster and Ranta's (1997) observational study that details the frequencies of feedback types in a large body of recorded data. They find that clarification requests do result in some self-repair, but only in 28% of the recorded episodes. There is still the 72% of the episodes that either resulted in a situation of no uptake or a student response that was still in need of repair. This study supports Lyster and Ranta's findings regarding the efficacy of clarification requests in uptake and reports a difference of effectiveness of 1.5% more effective.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) also establish a base-line for the efficacy of metalinguistic feedback in the same publication. They find that 45% of all metalinguistic feedback resulted in student self-repair while the remaining 55% resulted in either a situation of needs-repair or no repair. This study supports findings for efficacy, however, it shows for a 31.2% greater effect. Here, metalinguistic feedback results in successful self-repair in 76.20% of the episodes while only 23.8% result in a situation of needs-repair or no uptake. See Figure 42 below.

Metalinguistic Feedback		
	Uptake: Self-repair	Uptake: Needs Repair
Lyster and Ranta (1997)	45%	55%
This study	76.20%	23.80%

Figure 42. Uptake comparison of metalinguistic feedback with Lyster and Ranta (1997).

Three sections below make some connections between this study and other studies that measure the efficacy of feedback in connection with development. First, three meta-analyses are commented on and connected to this study in section 5.2.1, then studies pertaining to the realm of feedback are integrated into the findings in section 5.2.2. Lastly, section 5.3.3. relates findings on uptake to Lyster and Mori's (2006) presentation of the Counterbalance Hypothesis.

### 5.2.1 Meta-analyses

First, Russell and Spada (2006), in their meta-analysis of research pertaining to the effectiveness of feedback report that corrective feedback does facilitate second language acquisition, however, findings from this study do not support this claim. Results from pre-test/post-test analysis show development on one activity that is classified as a multiple choice activity and this possible development of the interlanguage is only found in the data set from the metalinguistic feedback treatment group. Macky and Goo's (2007) meta-analysis of research on interaction finds that focus on form through corrective feedback is effective and corrective feedback is more effective in delayed post-tests rather than immediate post-tests. This body of research does not support this finding. Again, due to the lack of development as measured by 2 Paired Sample T-Tests on the pre-test/post-test scores for each activity, no claims about development may be made at this time. However, Mackey and Goo (2007) also report that feedback that is intensive rather than extensive, that is, feedback that focuses on one specific target structure as opposed to all lexical, morphosyntactic and phonological errors, is more effective. As previously mentioned, no interlanguage development can be claimed, however, targeted feedback, especially metalinguistic feedback, does seem to be effective at promoting student uptake that contains self-repair.

Lastly, Lyster and Saito (2010) report that feedback is facilitative of second language acquisition. This study does not support these findings, but may be indicative of the specific methodology employed. The immediate effects for feedback are only congruent in that their findings refer to immediate and post-test findings, while this study only found for immediate uptake containing self-repair. Lyster and Saito also find that corrective feedback is an effective form-focused instructional technique for the strengthening of form-meaning connections in the interlanguage, this study does not support these claims. Further study in comparison of these two feedback treatments of spoken errors regarding the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish must consider the length of study and pre-test/post-test/delayed post-test procedures.

Due to the pioneering nature of this study, that is, the measurement of uptake and development by the use of prompts in a focus on form environment with a target structure of the subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish in an intermediate level, results must be compared with caution. The majority of previous studies included in these meta-analyses contain data from introductory or beginner levels of language acquisition and reflect less complex grammatical structures. While little to no development is found in this study, this study does present significant findings in that it examines a structure that is widely ignored by scholarship in the field. The complexity of the structure seems to hinder not only findings, but research on its acquisition.

### 5.2.2 Feedback studies

Lyster (2004) compares recasts and prompts in form focused instruction in an observational study. Findings indicate that oral correction is not beneficial and these findings go against earlier findings on the use of feedback as prompts in form focused instruction (focus on form). However, he does find for the development of students' metalinguistic awareness and ability to retrieve information to make some adjustments on-line. Lyster's (2004) findings are not congruent with findings from this study. Metalinguistic feedback in this database results in a 76.20% success rate operationalized as feedback that results in a student self-repair and clarification requests result in a 29.5% success rate. While the clarification request success rate is low, both types, and especially the metalinguistic feedback, do promote on-line self-repair. That is, participants seem to be able to self-repair as a result of prompts, especially explicit prompts, immediately after an oral error of the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish.

In a study that compares recasts and prompts, Yang and Lyster (2010) find that prompts may be more effective than recasts for the acquisition of the English past tense according to pre-test/post-test analysis but may be equally effective as recasts for irregular past. Again, these findings are not congruent with findings from this study due to the lack of development, but do support data for the immediate self-repair through the integration of prompts.

Takashima and Ellis's (1999) main finding from their study comparing prompts finds that participants who witnessed other-generated modified input also improve in their accuracy. Qualitative data analysis from this study supports these findings. Part of the utility domain encompasses statements such as, "it is important", "we are all here to learn", and "now I know not to make that mistake". Therefore, qualitative findings from Takashima and Ellis (1999) are congruent with findings from this study.

Mackey, Gass and MacDonough (2000) present an explanation for the inefficiency or evasiveness of the recasts in their study. They find that the recasts do not seem to convey the corrective function that is intended by teachers when in treating morphosyntactic errors. They suggest that it may be due to the lack of "participatory demands on the learner" (p. 491). Similarly, clarification requests in this study may reflect a similar phenomenon. While the explanation of the intricacies of clarification requests is not the goal of this research, further research into the failed attempts in combination with stimulated recall sessions such as those used by Mackey et. al. (2000) may be directed at informing the field as to the ways in which they may be used more effectively.

Kim and Mathes (2001) examine implicit feedback, operationalized as a recast, and explicit feedback, operationalized as metalinguistic feedback. They find no statistical differences between the two treatments but, in their qualitative analysis, do find that the students express a preference for the explicit treatment. Data from this study does not show for any expressed preferences since participants were only exposed to one type of feedback in their respective

sections, however, qualitative data from the affective domain indicate that participants did like the type of feedback treatment that they were provided and one participant from the metalinguistic treatment group offered a succinct description of the feedback that reflected a clear understanding of the dynamics of the episode.

Havranek (2002) proposes that the learner's interlanguage must be at a point of developmental readiness in order to establish any connections between feedback and positive effects. This informs the analysis of data and may contribute to the effectiveness of the feedback for this study, however, more so in the case of metalinguistic feedback. She also offers the interpretation and possible hypothesis that explicit feedback seems to perform better in contexts that are similar in nature to the feedback itself. This study does not support, but rather refutes, those claims because here, a form focused, or focus on form, context is the environment in which two types of feedback are compared and the explicit feedback performs better, supporting claims by Lyster and Mori (2006). The metalinguistic feedback is a type of forms focused feedback while clarification requests may be form or meaning focused feedback depending on the intention of the teacher. The delineation may be in that the specificity and forms focused nature of metalinguistic feedback is salient enough that it may be more obvious to the participants whereas the possibly form or meaning focused clarification request has the potential to lose some of its saliency due to the similarity of the context in which is it delivered. This assumption goes in direct opposition to the Counterbalance Hypothesis, see section 5.2.3. below.

Rosa and Leow (2004) compare five treatments that range on a continuum of explicitness. They find that there are no differences in learning compared between the treatment groups, but that there are differences in the student response to new information versus old information. While no differences were found for new information, the student uptake for old information varied. Most important from this study is the presentation of empirical evidence supporting the idea that cognitive processes are possibly activated through feedback during online oral language usage and feedback. This study supports Rosa and Leow's findings in that participants are able to be interrupted, reformulate based on prompts, and continue with their train of thought. In other words, the very explicit, non-contextualized feedback was not too much of an interrupting force that participants were not able to switch back to focus on meaning.

Bolstering the recommendation for more explicit types of feedback, Mackey (2006) compares recasts and unspecified prompts in the acquisition of question forms, plurals and past tense. Findings suggest that feedback may prompt learning and noticing. Mackey's study supports findings from this study regarding the uptake from metalinguistic feedback. This feedback treatment seems to be more salient to participants in that they are able to recognize the corrective nature and then adjust accordingly, however, unlike Mackey's study, this study does not show any development or learning.

Although lacking specificity in the operationalization of the prompts, Ammar and Spada (2006) find that prompts, when compared to recasts and a

no-feedback treatment groups, outperforms and that participants benefit from the treatment. This study supports the inclusion of prompts as a means of focus on form to treat errors.

Ammar (2008) continues the line of research established in Ammar and Spada (2006) by comparing the same feedback types, prompts, recasts and no-feedback, however, the latter study examines a different target structure. Findings again suggest that prompts are more effective than recasts as feedback and that there may be a possible timing effect as well. Ammar suggests that prompts may provide a faster means and trigger for retrieval of the target form, however, there is no description as to which types of feedback. This study supports findings regarding efficacy of prompts, especially metalinguistic feedback over clarification requests.

Further support for claims of metalinguistic feedback come from Ellis, Leowen, and Erlam (2006). Ellis et. al. finds that metalinguistic feedback outperforms recasts and that there is a greater correlation between metalinguistic feedback and implicit and explicit knowledge, especially in comparison to recasts and the two types of knowledges. Similarly, although not in comparison with recasts, this study finds in favor of metalinguistic feedback.

From the field of published literature on classroom oral feedback studies, Leowen and Nabei's (2007) study shares the most characteristics with this research. Leowen and Nabei compare recasts, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests and a control group in order to measure the effects on second language knowledge. Findings suggest that feedback has significant

effects on L2 knowledge regarding question formation, however little differences are found between treatments. These findings are not congruent with those who find differences between treatment groups regarding development.

Finally, Nassaji (2009) finds in favor of explicit treatments over implicit treatments when measured by learning, operationalized as the participant's accuracy in recognizing and self-correcting after feedback. Four feedback methods here are compared, explicit recasts, implicit recasts, explicit elicitations and implicit elicitations. This study supports Nassaji's findings regarding the efficacy of a more explicit feedback type. Also noted here is that elicitations may be more well suited for treating errors of target forms that have already been learned while the recasts may be more well suited for treating errors that have yet to be learned.

This study stands out from previously published studies in that not only is there no development at the whole class level, but in some individual cases, there is a devolution of participant ability from the pre-test to the post-test in terms of mean scores. While some participants have shown development by a raise in their pre-test to post-test scores, this may be due to the combination of developmental readiness and the feedback. Those who show no development or a devolution may not have been developmentally ready for the feedback treatments and therefore do not show any interlanguage development or the feedback simply may not be enough to promote second language acquisition at all.

The aforementioned studies that do show development do not account for the complexity of the target structure. While those studies focus on gender, dative verbs, past tense formulations, etc., they are set apart from this study in terms of linguistic complexity and learnability. The subjunctive in nominal clauses is a complex linguistic structure to acquire, and the complexity is compounded by the lack of familiarity that participants have with the structure, as it is not a common or generally taught structure in the L1. Additional complexity is found in the syntactic and semantic nature of the structure. Syntactically, the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses requires a subordinated clause structure. Subordination, then, requires participants to connect two different verb phrases with a conjunction and to place value on the independent clause by subordinating the dependent clause. Semantically, the use of the subjunctive requires that the independent clause contain a specific verb phrase that will induce the use of the subjunctive in the nominal clause or that the speaker use the subjunctive to imply doubt or uncertainty with verbs in the independent clause that do not normally elicit the subjunctive in the dependent clause. There is then a perceived difficulty in the conjugation of the verb in the dependent clause. This difficulty stems from the similarity that it has with its indicative, and more commonly used, counterpart. Generally, second language learners are exposed to more instances, practice, and general use of the indicative than the subjunctive and may not even have any conscious experience with the form of the subjunctive in their own L1. Lastly, while the subjunctive may be conceptualized as a binary system of subjunctive or indicative, that view is

shortsighted. The use of the subjunctive is not a binary choice because the limitation of two options is both shortsighted and does not grasp the full conceptualization of the subjunctive as a mood. It is multi-faceted in that it may be seen as an opportunity to use the subjunctive or not use the subjunctive, to use the indicative or not use the indicative, or to simply modify the statement to a degree in which the infinitive may be used in the dependent clause. It is this complexity that, in combination with the morphological change that may be required depending on the content of the independent clause, the intention of the speaker and the norms of the dialect, may have lead to a lack of development where other researchers have found interlanguage development.

Due to the lack of development as measured by a pre-test/post-test design and the consequent analysis accompanied by the statistically insignificant gains as measured through mean scores and parametric tests, no interlanguage development is shown due to the incorporation of feedback in the second language classroom in regards to the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish. However, as previously mentioned, the target structure, the subjunctive in nominal clauses, is being measured in a realm that it has yet to be fully explored, that is, its acquisition as operationalized as pre-test to post-test development in the interlanguage. The era of the exclusion of more complex target structures in scholarship regarding classroom feedback and subsequent interlanguage development has come to an end and the inclusion of more complex target structures has begun. Therefore, this study empirically supports Truscott's (1999) position that oral feedback may not be conducive to learning in

the second learning context, even if it is successful at eliciting a reformulation that contains self-repair. Here, there is no relationship between the ability to self-repair and the interlanguage development of the subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish. However, while this study does support Truscott's (1999) findings, it is hoped that as more research emerges that examines more complex structures, that a growing body of research focuses on language acquisition beyond the typical first and second year target structures.

### 5.2.3 Counterbalance Hypothesis

Lyster and Mori (2006) present a study that compares recasts and prompts in two different settings, with two different languages, and multiple target structures. A French immersion setting is compared with a Japanese immersion classroom and feedback is provided to oral errors at the grammatical, lexical and phonological level. Findings show a very low success rate for recasts in the French immersion classroom and high rates of success for the prompts. Conversely, the Japanese setting shows opposite data, that is, recasts yield high rates of successful uptake while prompts show little. Lyster and Mori explain this by introducing the Counterbalance Hypothesis which emphasized the importance in the shift from focus on form to meaning in a form-oriented context and focus on meaning to form in a meaning-oriented context. They claim that the attentional shift may be the basis of the effectiveness. They define the Counterbalance Hypothesis as the following:

Instructional activities and interactional feedback that act as a counterbalance to the predominant communicative orientation of a given

classroom setting will be more facilitative of interlanguage restructuring than instructional activities and interactional feedback that are congruent with the predominant communicative orientation (p. 294).

This study does not seek to test theories relating to the Counterbalance Hypothesis, however, due to the strong statistical significance of the feedback types within a meaning-oriented context, more specifically that metalinguistic feedback is more successful at eliciting self-repair as a result of a spoken error regarding the use of the subjunctive in nominal clauses in Spanish, it can be said that this study does support claims made by Lyster and Mori (2006) regarding the Counterbalance Hypothesis. In this study, an explicit, focus on forms type of feedback is compared with an implicit, focus on meaning type of feedback in a meaning-oriented context. This study falls under the description of a classroom in which the majority of classroom time is spent negotiating meaning, in other words, sharing opinions, ideas, and emotions regarding specific topics upon which students expound. Therefore, in accordance with the Counterbalance Hypothesis, the context for this study is one in which

“the communicative orientation does not favor opportunities for controlled production practice with an emphasis on accuracy. It is predicted that learners unaccustomed to any accuracy-based oral production practice will (a) detect prompts more easily....(b) benefit from being overtly prompted to shift their attentional resources toward form and momentarily away from meaning and (c) benefit from opportunities to produce modified output...” (p. 296).

### 5.3 Limitations of the Study and Further Suggestions

This study examines the role of two different types of feedback and their effect on the interlanguage development of the subjunctive in nominal clauses. It employs a pre-test/post-test design. Statistical significance is established for the effectiveness of one treatment over the other, the explicit over the implicit, however no statistical significance is established regarding pre-test/post test analysis. Therefore, while metalinguistic feedback may be the better feedback treatment in this context due to its potential for immediate self-repair, it may not lead to any development of the students' interlanguage systems. Six specific limitations are highlighted in this section. They relate to the pre-test/post-test design, the data analysis methodology, the testing period and the activities within it, the target structure, the classroom dynamic within which data is recorded, and the sample size.

The pre-test/post-test design of this study may limit the data set in that the pre-test is administered one day before the first treatment and the post-test is administered one day after the fifth treatment. This continued line of research may account for possible long-term effects. A delayed post-test may yield additional findings. Further research must examine further possible effects through the integration of a delayed post-test.

The methodology for data analysis uses both quantitative and qualitative research methods. A Chi-Square test and a 2 Paired Sample T-Test are used to quantitatively analyze data while the long-table method is used to qualitatively group and analyze data from the participant questionnaire. One method that future research may employ is the use of the stimulated recall. Stimulated recall

is a method through which participants, shortly after having engaged in a treatment, are guided through a reflective dialogue and are asked to comment on what they see or hear in an audio or visual recording of the event (See Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000, p. 479). This type of data analysis may allow for better analysis of the last supporting question regarding students' perceptions of the teacher's attempts at error correction. While this method is somewhat controversial in that it allows for some subjective interpretation, even by the student himself, it may be beneficial and provide additional insight.

The third limitation has to do with the testing period and the activities within it. This study collects data from only five separate activities that do not comprise the entirety of the class period. Additional activities specifically focused on eliciting the target form should provide for a greater sample size of feedback episodes. However, this must be taken with caution. In addition to the activity frequency, there may also be effects from a previous activity in the same period. Students may begin to need less feedback intervention as a result of witnessing a higher quantity of feedback episodes, and/or from having participated in them. Therefore, further research may collect data over a time span greater than a two week period because development in the interlanguage after one semester may be more significant and durative than that which is gained in a shorter period of time.

The fourth limitation in this study is the choice of target structure, however it may be better understood as a condition rather than a limitation. The subjunctive in nominal clauses is not as common of a structure as some of the

other structures used in feedback studies that have focused intensively, for example, the past tense, gender, etc., and which have found statistical significance regarding interlanguage development. This study does affirm findings regarding the efficacy of metalinguistic feedback over clarification requests, however it does not find for development, which, may, in part, be due to the complex structure that is examined. Further comparative study may consider using a target structure that is more common, less complex, and therefore may be less obvious to the students and have a higher frequency of use; that is, further study may employ target structures such as those use in other studies. Additionally, more common, less complex target structures may result in less avoidance by the participants. Combined with the developmental readiness of the participants, the subjunctive in nominal clauses may be the link between the efficacy of the feedback regarding uptake and the deficiency of development in all participants.

The fifth limitation is the class dynamic within which data is recorded. In this study, participants witnessed the feedback episodes in which their classmates participated which may have lead to a lower quantity of quantifiable episodes. Some studies have reported on the benefits of witnessing feedback in terms of correctly producing when one's turn to speak comes (see Takashima & Ellis, 1999), however, avoiding this caveat may be both impossible and detrimental. If the ultimate goal is language acquisition, it may not be beneficial to deny participants the opportunity to indirectly receive feedback. In fact, it may be that through this indirect feedback in part that some students made gains

between the pre-test and post-test. A possible suggestion would be to take into consideration a longer data collection period with more opportunities for production and possibilities for feedback episodes.

Finally, the sixth limitation to the study is the small sample size. Data from a total of 32 participants is used that comprises 107 individual feedback episodes. Radwan (2005) also comments on low numbers in regards to participants but claims findings congruent to other research on noticing and awareness. Future research may reflect a greater research scope and even work with other researchers in order to collect more data from more students, both across levels and inter-institutionally as a means of creating a corpus from which to analyze different pieces of data such as different feedback types and different target structures. The future of this field of research may depend on cooperation between researchers and teachers from a broad spectrum of language learning contexts.

#### 5.4 Pedagogical Implications

This section discusses the possible pedagogical implications based on findings from this study as they relate to facilitated language acquisition and classroom feedback. They consider a range of conclusions from the context, to the terminology, to the classroom dynamic to the size of the student body.

Findings from this study suggest that metalinguistic feedback may be more suited to treat morphosyntactic breakdowns of the use of the subjunctive in

nominal clauses, however they may not lead to the development of the interlanguage system. In relation to suggestions for classroom integration, it may best to first assess the needs of a student population by means of dialogue and survey, and then implement a pedagogy that simultaneously compliments the context of the larger educational setting and works from within the specific classroom with the students to create a means for classroom feedback. If it is an implicit means of feedback that is chosen, then students may respond better when and if they are aware of the mechanics of the clarification request as well as how it manifests itself. For example, a specific external cue could be added to the clarification request to make the corrective nature more salient. While the role of awareness is not examined here, a heightened awareness around the conceptualization of the feedback type may lend itself to a higher degree of efficacy. As reported previously, one participant did accurately describe the mechanics of the metalinguistic feedback. If a debriefing period were spent explaining an implicit feedback type to the participants, it could result in more uptake that contains at least an attempt at self-repair. Due to this aforementioned rationale, the provision of feedback that takes into consideration the needs of the student community as well as meets of the milieu to which students are accustomed may be ultimately beneficial.

In this study, metalinguistic feedback significantly outperformed clarification requests. Because of the participant demographic, some assumptions are made regarding previous education in Spanish. Due to institutional prerequisites for registration in the courses from which data was

collected, it is likely that participants have previously taken Spanish courses in which both the form and function of the subjunctive in nominal clauses was examined to at least some degree. Therefore, by using a feedback type whose manifestation is simply an immediate interruption in the form of the word 'subjunctive', it may be more likely that students who have already had some form of grammatical instruction will be able to more frequently self-repair when the grammatical terminology is used. Additional research would be needed to expand upon this suggestion, but it remains within the realm of possibilities if findings here are generalizable. Consequently, feedback that integrates the metalinguistic terminology that students may be accustomed due to previous experiences may be more beneficial and have a stronger correlation with immediate self-repair.

Taking the aforementioned second pedagogical implication into consideration, it must be expanded to recommend that there be some degree of rapport between the teacher, researcher, and participant group. The unique relationships that can spawn from the language learning context may facilitate data collection without many negative affective domain reactions. While this may limit the generalizability of the findings in that not all educational settings may be deemed safe and comfortable, it may be a goal to strive for depending on the individual dispositions of researchers and teachers since student-teacher rapport is often considered to be of importance in the field of Education.

Participants report that they are generally comfortable with feedback, expect feedback, and notice when their peers are engaged in feedback with the

teacher. This is, in part, possible due to the nature of the setting in which data was collected. These two small sections of a Spanish conversation course were set up by the researcher to put an emphasis on the classroom community and individual student-student and teacher-student rapport. Participants were told that mistakes were acceptable and that they may or not be addressed or corrected. This kind of classroom environment may have lead participants to feel more comfortable receiving feedback, as can be seen by qualitative data, and to not be intimidated or react negatively, in other words, to be risk takers. Additionally, there may be some benefit to having collected data in this type of setting with a smaller group. Since there were about 16 participants present, barring any absences, the ability to individually address participants and engage in feedback with them in front of a group of peers who were comfortable receiving feedback may have been paramount, however this dynamic was not addressed in this body of research. Thus, a smaller class size may be even more beneficial than previously thought due to the ability to allot for individual attention and the witnessing of feedback episodes when occasional shifts from meaning to form and can be done so based on an actual student error at a time when focus on meaning and focus on form can unite.

The pedagogical implications for feedback that enables students to have the ability to self-repair may be great, on both a personal affective level as well as on a communicative level. When done so with a theoretical background and purpose, the results may stretch beyond the findings of this study.

## 5.5 Final Conclusion

This study contributes to the field of Applied Hispanic Linguistics, specifically to the realm of classroom language teaching. Results may be extended into contexts in which a teacher is working to build students' abilities to use complex structures without any intervention.

While significance for this study is only found in the uptake as a result of metalinguistic feedback and not for development, further research will need to work with a greater body of evidence, different pre-testing and post-testing means, the inclusion of a delayed post-test, and more activities. Another line of research will need to examine the efficacy of different feedback types and combinations, different contexts and even different second languages.

This study meets its goals and purposes. A contribution to the field of feedback studies has been made in the findings regarding the use of metalinguistic feedback in order to elicit student self-repair and is supported by empirical evidence. A contribution to the field of interlanguage development has been made in the findings regarding pre-test/post-test analysis regarding the lack of development after a treatment period of five activities over six-class unit.

## APPENDIX A

### FEEDBACK ACTIVITIES

In this section, a detailed description of activities used from which data is collected is described. The study from which data analyzed in this body of work is detailed; these are Activity 1, Activity 2, Activity 3, Activity 4, and Activity 5.

#### Data Collection Activities

Five activities are used to collect data for this study. Activity 1, Activity 2, and Activity 4 are in-class activities that reflect the individual work, then small group work and then finally, whole group reporting. Activity 3 and Activity 5 are individual, one-on-one interviews with the researcher/instructor. Activity 1 and Activity 3 are repetitions of the same activity, however Activity 1 is in class and Activity 3 is done during an individual interview.

#### Activity 1

**Grouping:** Students will work in groups of two during class time. Students will think independently about the topic, work in pairs, and then share with the rest of the class. Each student group will be assigned a specific topic upon which to comment.

**Objective:** Students will share their personal opinion.

**Purpose:** Students will use the subjunctive in nominal clauses.

**Length:** Students will orally formulate opinions in their groups, then share them with the rest of the class. They will speak out loud in Spanish. They may take

notes to prepare for the reporting portion. The entire activity will last approximately 10 minutes.

Treatment: Upon any spoken error regarding the use of the subjunctive in the nominal clause, students will immediately receive a treatment, either metalinguistic feedback or a clarification request.

Guiding Question: *En cuanto a \_\_\_\_\_, ¿qué le sugieres al presidente de la universidad?* In regards to \_\_\_\_\_, what do you suggest to the president of the university. Students will be asked to comment on economics, residential life, tuition, health care, safety, international relations, transportation, and diversity.

## Activity 2

Grouping: Students will work in groups of two during class time. Students will think independently about the topic, work in pairs, and then share with the rest of the class. Each student group will be assigned a specific topic upon which to comment.

Objective: Students will share their personal opinion.

Purpose: Students will use the subjunctive in nominal clauses.

Length: Students will orally formulate opinions in their groups, then share them with the rest of the class. They will speak out loud in Spanish. They may take notes to prepare for the reporting portion. The entire activity will last approximately 15 minutes.

Treatment: Upon any spoken error regarding the use of the subjunctive in the nominal clause, students will immediately receive a treatment, either metalinguistic feedback or a clarification request.

Guiding Question: *¿Qué le sugieres a 1) un estudiante nuevo en tu universidad, 2) un extranjero en tu pueblo, y 3) un amigo que anda por un barrio peligroso?*

What do you suggest to 1) a new student at your university, 2) a stranger in your town, and 3) a friend who is passing through a dangerous neighborhood?

### Activity 3

Grouping: Students will meet individually during a pre-scheduled time-slot with the researcher/instructor for a one-on-one interview during class time.

Objective: Students will share their personal opinion.

Purpose: Students will use the subjunctive in nominal clauses.

Length: The entire interview will last approximately 5 minutes.

Treatment: Upon any spoken error regarding the use of the subjunctive in the nominal clause, students will immediately receive a treatment, either metalinguistic feedback or a clarification request.

Guiding Question: *En cuanto a \_\_\_\_\_, ¿qué le sugieres al presidente de la universidad?* In regards to \_\_\_\_\_, what do you suggest to the president of the university. Students will be asked to comment on economics, residential life, tuition, health care, safety, international relations, transportation, and diversity. Each student will be asked to comment on topics that they did not speak about in Activity 1 as a means of avoiding repetition.

### Activity 4

Grouping: Students will work in groups of two during class time. Students will work in pairs and then share with the rest of the class. Each student group will

be assigned a specific set of questions based on a picture upon which to comment. This is a picture description activity with original questions.

Objective: Students will share their personal opinion and describe the pictures provided in the text *Revista, 3rd Edition* (Blanco, 2010, pp. 121-124)

Purpose: Students will use the subjunctive in nominal clauses.

Length: Students will orally formulate opinions in their groups, then share them with the rest of the class. They will speak out loud in Spanish. They may take notes to prepare for the reporting portion. The entire activity will last approximately 15 minutes.

Treatment: Upon any spoken error regarding the use of the subjunctive in the nominal clause, students will immediately receive a treatment, either metalinguistic feedback or a clarification request.

Guiding Question: See below.

Set 1: Pg. 119. Left photograph.

1. ¿Qué pasa en este momento?
2. ¿De qué se entristece Micaela?
3. ¿Qué le molesta?

Set 2: Pg. 119. Right photograph.

1. ¿Qué pasa en este momento?
2. ¿Qué te parece (sobre Julián)?
3. ¿Qué espera Julián (sobre la situación)?

Set 3: Pg. 123. Photograph #1.

2. ¿Qué pasa en este momento?
3. ¿Cómo reacciona Micaela cuando lee la carta de Alberto?
4. ¿Qué quería Micaela (sobre su vida con Alberto)?

Set 4: Pg. 123. Photograph #2.

2. ¿Qué pasa en este momento?
3. ¿Qué le molesta a Micaela ahora?
4. ¿Duda la verdad de la carta?

Set 5: Pg. 123. Photograph #3.

3. ¿Qué pasa en este momento?
4. ¿Qué le sugiere el Don Moy a Micaela?
5. ¿Creen (uds.) que debe ser escribana?

Set 6: Pg. 123. Photograph #4.

3. ¿Qué pasa en este momento?
4. ¿De qué se alegra Julián?
5. ¿Qué es importante para Micaela en este moment?

Set 7: Pg. 123. Photograph #5.

4. ¿Qué pasa en este momento?
5. ¿Qué es bueno/malo (de la situación entre Micaela y Julián)?
6. ¿Qué quieren (uds.) en cuanto a la situación entre Micaela y Julián?

Set 8: Pg. 123. Photograph #6.

4. ¿Qué pasa en este momento?
5. ¿De qué se enoja Micaela?
6. ¿Qué quiere Julián de Micaela?

#### Activity 5

Grouping: Students will meet individually during a pre-scheduled time-slot with the researcher/instructor for a one-on-one interview during class time.

Objective: Students will share their personal opinion.

Purpose: Students will use the subjunctive in nominal clauses.

Length: The entire interview will last approximately 5 minutes.

Treatment: Upon any spoken error regarding the use of the subjunctive in the nominal clause, students will immediately receive a treatment, either metalinguistic feedback or a clarification request.

Guiding Question: There are two sets of guiding questions. One contains original questions about the short film *Nada que perder*, (Russo, 2002), for Activity 5.

Questions are presented in the order below.

1. Nina es supersticiosa. ¿Qué le molesta hoy?
2. ¿Qué le sugiere el taxista a Nina?
3. En tu opinión, para el taxista, ¿qué es importante?
4. Nina está contenta. ¿De qué se alegra ella?
5. ¿Qué le ordena Nina al taxista?
5. ¿Qué le pide el taxista a Nina?
  
5. *Nina is superstitious. What is bothering her today?*
6. *What does the taxi driver suggest to Nina?*
7. *In your opinion, for the taxi driver, what is important?*
8. *Nina is happy. Why is she happy?*
9. *What does Nina order the taxi driver to do?*
10. *What does the taxi driver ask Nina to do?*

The second contains original questions about the short film *Diez Minutos* (Ruiz Rojo, 2004) for Activity 5. Questions are presented in the order below.

1. ¿Qué le molesta a Enrique?
2. ¿Qué opina Nuria en cuanto a la regla de Airfone?
3. ¿Qué no le permite Airfone a Nuria?
4. Nuria duda y tiene miedo.
  - a. ¿Qué duda?
  - b. ¿De qué tiene miedo?
5. Para resolver el problema, ¿qué le sugiere Enrique a Nuria?
6. Enrique no tiene paciencia porque su situación es urgente. ¿Qué es tan urgente?
  
1. *What is bothering Enrique?*
2. *What does Nuria think about the Airfone rule?*

3. *What does Airfone not allow Nuria to do?*
4. *Nuria is doubtful and scared.*
  - a. *What does she doubt?*
  - b. *What is she afraid of?*
5. *To resolve the problem, what does Enrique suggest to Nuria?*
6. *Enrique has no patience because his situation is urgent. What is so urgent?*

## APPENDIX B

### PRE-TEST ACTIVITIES

Nombre: \_\_\_\_\_

Sección: 03 04

#### I. Escoger el verbo conjugado correcto.

1. No estaba importante que la los oficiales \_\_\_ la identidad.
  - a. supieran
  - b. superon
2. Es verdad que tienen que \_\_\_ la ley de caudicidad.
  - a. cambiar
  - b. cambiara
3. ¿Quién sugirió al alcalde que \_\_\_ de vacaciones?
  - a. regresó
  - b. regresara
4. No es importante que \_\_\_ en caso de guerra.
  - a. nos preparamos
  - b. nos preparemos
5. Los oficiales no \_\_\_ que los rebeldes reunieran.
  - a. permitieron
  - b. permitirán
6. Era urgente que el sindicato \_\_\_ la huelga.
  - a. parara
  - b. pare

#### II. Conjugar el verbo en parentesis.

1. No es verdad que la justicia les \_\_\_\_\_ (servir) a todos.
2. La señora mandó a que el autor le \_\_\_\_\_ (firmar) el libro.
3. El escritor cree que los niños \_\_\_\_\_ (deber) tener libros.
4. Al escritor le molestó que la madre \_\_\_\_\_ (enojarse).
5. El jefe de la tienda le rogó que le \_\_\_\_\_ (dedicar) el libro a la mujer.
6. El autor tiene miedo de que el niño lo \_\_\_\_\_ (morder).

#### III. Conjugar el verbo en parentesis.

1. Se prohíbe que los clientes \_\_\_\_\_ (fumar) alrededor del edificio.
2. No es justo que el gobierno \_\_\_\_\_ (ignorar) los crímenes del pasado.
3. El acusado va a declarar su inocencia cuando \_\_\_\_\_ (hablar) con el juez.
4. No me gusta que los profesores sólo \_\_\_\_\_ (dar) lecturas.
5. El alcalde quiere que cambien las leyes para que los ciudadanos \_\_\_\_\_ (pagar) más cada año.
6. No crees que las minorías \_\_\_\_\_ (ir a conseguir) más derechos.

**IV. Volver a escribir la oración y cambiar al opuesto (con 'no' o quitar el 'no' en la primera parte). Conjuguar el verbo en parentesis.**

**Modelo:** Creo que la censura de las películas es necesaria.

*No creo que la censura de los medios sea necesaria.*

1. Me parece que el cortometraje fue bien guiado por el director.

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2. No piensas que haya mucho grafiti en la ciudad.

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3. Por el escándalo, no parece que el nuevo presidente consiga el voto.

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4. Me enojó muchísimo que la gente gastara su voto en ese candidato.

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5. Creían que el acusado que admitió el crimen era culpable de más crímenes.

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6. El público sabía que el presidente de la universidad mentía.

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**V. Unir los elementos para crear una oración completa. Hay 2 verbos por oración para conjugar.**

**Modelo:** yo / gustar (presente) / que casi la mitad de mis estudiantes / votar  
*Me gusta que casi la mitad de mis estudiantes voten.*

1. Ahora, la universidad de Massachusetts / estar a punto de prohibir (presente) / que la gente / fumar / en campus.

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2. Ser justo (presente) / que la universidad / castigar / a los estudiantes que no cumplir sus notas incompletas.

---

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3. Nosotros / temer (presente) / que los estudiantes / ir a tener que pagar / más matrícula el año próximo.

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4. Los RAs / no permitir (pasado) / que sus residentes / tomar / en las residencias.

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5. Ser urgente (presente) / que los textos / venderse / por menos plata.

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6. Ojalá / que el email a mi advisor / haber llegar (presente) / ya

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7. ser una lástima (pasado) / que los conductores de las guaguas / no poder / escuchar música.

---

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8. El año pasado, la instructora de SP 311 / pedir (pasado) / que los estudiantes / ignorar / el uso del subjuntivo.

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APPENDIX C  
POST-TEST ACTIVITIES

Nombre: \_\_\_\_\_

Sección: 03 04

**I. Escoger el verbo conjugado correcto.**

1. No es verdad que el novio de Michaela la \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. quiere
  - b. quiera
2. Es cierto que Michaela \_\_\_\_\_ que empezar una vida nueva.
  - a. tiene
  - b. tenga
3. Le sugirió el Don Moy que Michaela \_\_\_\_\_ como escribana.
  - a. trabajaba
  - b. trabajara
4. Michaela no estaba preparada en caso de su novio la \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. dejó
  - b. dejara
5. El policia permitió que Michaela \_\_\_\_\_ un oficio nuevo en la calle.
  - a. estableció
  - b. estableciera
6. Cuando supo de la situación de Julián, era urgente que Michaela \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. se iba
  - b. se fuera

**II. Conjuguar el verbo en parentesis.**

1. No es cierto que los libros del Sr. Drácula \_\_\_\_\_ (ser) para los niños.
2. La señora exigió que el autor le \_\_\_\_\_ (dedicar) el libro
3. El autor cree que no se le \_\_\_\_\_ (poder) negar un libro a un niño que quiere leer.
4. Al escritor le molestó que la madre \_\_\_\_\_ (confundir) al Sr. Drácula con un psicópata.
5. El encargado le rogó que \_\_\_\_\_ (firmar) el libro.
6. El niño lloró porque quería que su madre le \_\_\_\_\_ (comprar) el libro.

**I. Conjugar el verbo en parentesis.**

1. Es aconsejable que todos nosotros \_\_\_\_\_ (reciclar) papel y latas.
2. No es importante que los recursos naturales \_\_\_\_\_ (durar).
3. Algunas personas creen que los objetos desechables \_\_\_\_\_(ser) mejores que los que se puede volver a usar.
4. Según el cuento, es mejor que se \_\_\_\_\_ (comprar) una heladera nueva que arreglar una rota.
5. Antes los juguetes duraron mucho, pero ahora, las compañías producen juguetes que \_\_\_\_\_ (rompen) facilmente.
6. Algunos padres piensan que sus hijos no \_\_\_\_\_ (saber) apreciar sus juguetes.

**V. Volver a escribir la oración y cambiar al opuesto (con 'no' o quitar el 'no' en la primera parte). Conjuguar el verbo en parentesis.**

**Modelo:** Creo que la censura de los medios es necesaria.

*No creo que la censura de los medios sea necesaria.*

1. Es aconsejable que todos nosotros \_\_\_\_\_ (reciclar) papel y latas.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. No es importante que los recursos naturales \_\_\_\_\_ (durar).  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Algunas personas creen que los objetos desechables \_\_\_\_\_(ser) mejores que los que se puede volver a usar.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. Según el cuento, es mejor que se \_\_\_\_\_ (comprar) una heladera nueva que arreglar una rota.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

5. Antes los juguetes duraron mucho, pero ahora, las compañías producen juguetes

que \_\_\_\_\_ (rompen) facilmente.

---

---

6. Algunos padres piensan que sus hijos no \_\_\_\_\_ (saber) apreciar sus juguetes.

---

---

**V. Unir los elementos para crear una oración completa. Hay 2 verbos por oración para conjugar.**

**Modelo:** yo / gustar (presente) / que casi la mitad de mis estudiantes / votar  
*Me gusta que casi la mitad de mis estudiantes voten.*

1. El estado de Massachusetts / prohibir (presente) / que la gente / fumar / dentro de los restaurantes.

---

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2. Ser justo (presente) / que la universidad / castigar / a los malos profesores

---

---

3. Nosotros / temer (presente) / que los estudiantes / ir a perder / sus derechos

---

---

4. Los RDs / no permitir (pasado) / que los estudiantes jovenes / beber / en las residencias

---

---

5. Ser urgente (presente) / que UHS / abrir / más temprano

---

---

6. Ojalá / que el mensaje / haber llegar (presente) / ya

---

---

7. ser una lástima (pasado) / que los estudiantes / no querer / presentar

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---

8. El año pasado, SP 301 / exigir (pasado) / que los estudiantes / escribir /  
muchas críticas

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APPENDIX D  
PARTICIPANT QUESTIONNAIRE

## Questions regarding your information

The following section contains 9 questions regarding your information.

**13. Name \***

**2. Gender \***

**3. Have you participated in a study abroad program? \***

Yes No

**4. If you have participated in a study abroad program, please indicate where you lived.**

For example, Bogotá, Colombia

**5. If you have studied abroad, please indicate the duration in months.**

For example, 4.5 months

**6. Do you speak any language other than English in your household or the household where you grew up? \***

Yes No

**7. If you do speak any language other than English in your household or the household where you grew up, please tell me what language/s.**

**8. If you do speak any language other than English in your household or the household where you grew up, please tell me with whom you speak/spoke these languages.**

**9. If you do speak any language other than English in your household or the household where you grew up, please tell me for how long you have spoken/spoke these languages.**

**10. If you have had any other experience abroad, please briefly explain it below including location, duration, and purpose.**

Extended travel, working abroad, foreign internship, etc

## **Questions regarding courses in Spanish**

The following section contains 5 questions regarding Spanish 301: Conversation and Spanish 311: Advanced Grammar.

**1. During the Spring semester of 2011, are you enrolled in section 04 (10:10-11:00) or section 03 (12:20-1:10) of Spanish 301: Conversation? \***

Section 03    Section 04

**2. Why did you decide to take Spanish 301? \***

Major Requirement    Minor Requirement    Other

**3. If you chose 'Other' for the previous question, please explain why you chose to take Spanish 301.**

**4. Are you concurrently enrolled in Spanish Grammar 311? \***

'Yes' indicates that you take 311 and 301 at the same time. 'No' indicates that you do not take 301 and 311 at the same time.

Yes No

**5. Had you already taken Spanish Grammar 311 before the Spring 2011 semester? \***

Yes No

## **Questions regarding error correction**

The following section contains 6 questions regarding error correction.

**1. Do you feel that it is important that a language teacher corrects your spoken grammatical errors in a conversation course? \***

Yes No

**2. During the course of Spanish 301: Conversation, do you recall being corrected by your teacher after making a spoken grammatical error? \***

Yes No

**3. If you do recall being corrected, please briefly comment on how you felt about being corrected after making a spoken error.**

**4. Do you recall witnessing one of your classmates being corrected by the teacher after making a spoken grammatical error in your Spanish 301: Conversation course? \***

Yes    No

**5. If you do recall witnessing one of your classmates being corrected after making an error, please briefly comment on how you felt about other students being corrected.**

<b>6. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 being "I completely disagree", and 5 being "I completely agree"), rate the following statements: *</b>					
	1	2	3	4	5
1) I feel at ease when my teacher tried to get me to fix a spoken error.					
2) I believe most of my classmates feel comfortable when our teacher tries to get them to fix a spoken error.					
3) I am nervous whenever my teacher tries to get me to fix a spoken error.					
4) I feel mentally blocked and cannot say a word whenever my teacher tries to get me to fix a spoken error.					

<b>6. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 being "I completely disagree", and 5 being "I completely agree"), rate the following statements: *</b>					
5) Every spoken error should be addressed by the teacher in a Conversation course.					
6) I always know when my teacher is trying to get me to fix a spoken error.					

# APPENDIX E

## HUMAN CONSENT FORM

### Consent Form for Participation in a Research Study University of Massachusetts Amherst

**Principal Investigator:** Brian Boisvert  
**Study Title:** The effects of prompts as focus on form on uptake

#### 1. WHAT IS THIS FORM?

*This form is called a Consent Form. It will give you information about the study so you can make an informed decision about participation in this research study. Thank you for taking the time to read this Consent Form.*

#### 2. WHO IS ELIGIBLE TO PARTICIPATE?

*In order to be eligible to participate in this study, you must be currently enrolled in a Spanish 301 - Conversation course at the University of Massachusetts. You must be a matriculated student who is over the age of 18.*

#### 3. WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY?

*The purpose of this study is to contribute to the growing field of teacher-initiated feedback moves in the language classroom. Specifically, this study will look at two types of feedback moves that do not provide the student with correct answer, but rather encourage and solicit a student-generated corrected response. By participating in this research, you will help distinguish which types of classroom feedback moves are more beneficial in regards to eliciting a correct response from students.*

#### 4. WHERE WILL THE STUDY TAKE PLACE AND HOW LONG WILL IT LAST?

*This research will be conducted in the Spanish 301 classroom. Research will be conducted both during class time and scheduled appointments as well as during oral interviews between the researcher and the participants. No extra time will be required of you. Sessions will last approximately 10 minutes per student. You will not be contacted in the future for further research. However, you may request information regarding the findings of this research. Should you decide at any time that you do not want to participate, you may do so. Because activities for data collection are part of the normal curriculum for the course, you will not need to leave the room or do any additional activities. All activities for this research are normal classroom activities that will not change the flow of the course or the scope and sequence of the syllabus.*

#### 5. WHAT WILL I BE ASKED TO DO?

*If you decide to participate in this study, you will not be asked to do anything additional in regards to time, activities, or levels of participation in a 301 Conversation course. You will be asked to attend class and you will have opportunities to receive feedback that you can choose to take into consideration or ignore.*

Version 1  
Initials \_\_\_\_\_

University of Massachusetts Amherst-IRB (413) 545-3428	
Approval Date: 01/27/2011	Protocol #: 2010-0726
Valid Through: 10/11/2011	
IRB Signature: 	

1 of 3

Upon committing an error, the researcher will prompt you to correct your error. At that time, you may choose to continue the topic, or address the error. Participants will be screened regarding age and matriculated status at the university. Only data from students who are currently enrolled in Spanish 301 will be eligible to participate.

During the interview, you will be asked questions that attempt to clarify an utterance that is not understood or is incorrect, or you will be asked questions that will highlight the error and provide you with a clue to fix your previous utterance. You will also be asked questions that attempt to elicit your perceptions about the feedback that you received.

## 6. WHAT ARE MY BENEFITS OF BEING IN THIS STUDY?

If you choose to participate in this study, you will be engaged in a feedback treatment that has been shown to greatly enhance your ability to correct your own errors. As a participant, you will represent a population of student language learners who may benefit from teaching interventions that aim to develop linguistic ability in the second language.

## 7. WHAT ARE MY RISKS OF BEING IN THIS STUDY?

We believe that there are no known risks associated with this research study; this study examines behaviors normally associated within the context of a language classroom.

## 8. HOW WILL MY PERSONAL INFORMATION BE PROTECTED?

The following procedures will be used to protect the confidentiality of your study records and audio recordings. Research records will be labeled with a numeric code and all identifiers will be destroyed. Voice recordings will be stored on a password protected personal computer inside of password protected files. This computer has been disconnected from cable and wireless Internet. All research records and voice recordings will be destroyed six (6) years after the close of the study. Only the researcher will have access to the files. At the conclusion of this study, the researcher may publish any findings. Information will be presented in summary format and you will not be identified in any publications or presentations.

## 9. WHAT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?

Take as long as you like before you make a decision. I will be happy to answer any question you have about this study. If you have further questions about this project or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact the principal investigator, Brian Boisvert, at 860-933-6816. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact the University of Massachusetts Amherst Human Research Protection Office (HRPO) at (413) 545-3428 or [humansubjects@ora.umass.edu](mailto:humansubjects@ora.umass.edu).

## 10. CAN I STOP BEING IN THE STUDY?

You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate. You will be notified of all significant new findings during the course of the study that may affect your willingness to continue.

Version 1  
Initials \_\_\_\_\_

University of Massachusetts Amherst HRD (413) 545-3428	
Approval Date: 01/27/2011	Protocol #: 2010-0720
Valid Through: 10/11/2011	
IRB Signature: 	

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**11. WHAT IF I AM INJURED?**

*The University of Massachusetts does not have a program for compensating subjects for injury or complications related to human subjects research, but the study personnel will assist you in getting treatment.*

**12. SUBJECT STATEMENT OF VOLUNTARY CONSENT**

*I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. The general purposes and particulars of the study as well as possible hazards and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. I understand that I can withdraw at any time.*

\_\_\_\_\_  
Participant Signature:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Print Name:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date:

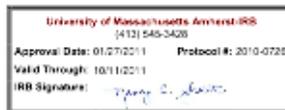
By signing below I indicate that the participant has read and, to the best of my knowledge, understands the details contained in this document and has been given a copy.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Person  
Obtaining Consent

\_\_\_\_\_  
Print Name:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date:

Version 1  
Initials \_\_\_\_\_



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APPENDIX F  
DATA CODING SCHEME

				Episode #	Episode #	Episode #
# of correct uses before FB			1			
# of avoidance of target structure			2			
Teacher Feedback type	MLFB		3			
	CLR		4			
Student Uptake	Needs Repair	Acknowledge	5			
		Different Error	6			
		Same Error	7			
		Hesitation	8			
		Off Target	9			
		Partial Repair	10			
	Repair	Repetition	11			
		Incorporation	12			
		Self-Repair	13			
		Peer-Repair	14			
Teacher response to no uptake	No Uptake	Repeat initial FB type	15			
		Topic Continuation	16			
Student Uptake		Self-Repair	17			
		Topic Continuation	18			
		Focus on Forms	19			

# of correct uses after FB			20			
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## APPENDIX G

### TRANSLATIONS AND GLOSSES FROM EXAMPLES

Student:	*Parce qu' elle cherche, euh, son, son *Because she searches for, uh, her <sub>(masculine, singular, possessive)</sub> , her carte. card. <i>Because she's looking for, um, her, her card.</i>
Teacher:	Pas son carte. Not her <sub>(masculine, singular, possessive)</sub> , card. <i>Not her card.</i>
Student:	Euh, sa carte? Uh, her <sub>(feminine, singular, possessive)</sub> , card? <i>Um, her card?</i>

Figure 5. Example of Metalinguistic Feedback (See Lyster, 2004)

St:	*Euhm, le, le éléphant. Le éléphant gronde. *Um, the, the elephant. The elephant thunders. <i>Um, the, the elephant. The elephant trumpets.</i>
T5:	Est-ce qu' on dit le éléphant? Is it that one says the elephant? <i>Does one say the elephant?</i>

Figure 6. Example of Metalinguistic Feedback (See Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Student:	*Et le coccinelle... *And the <sub>(masculine article)</sub> ladybug... <i>And the ladybug...</i>
Teacher:	Pardon? Sorry? <i>Sorry?</i>
Student:	La coccinelle... The <sub>(feminine article)</sub> ladybug... <i>The ladybug.</i>

Figure 9. Example of Clarification Request (See Lyster, 2004)

St:	*Est-ce que, est-ce qu je peux fait une carte sur le... por *Is it that, is it that I can she/he makes a card on the...for mon petit frère sur le computer? my little brother on the computer?
T6:	Pardon? Pardon? <i>Pardon?</i>

Figure 10. Example of Clarification Request (See Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

S: “\*Nosotros queremos que construye...  
 \*We want that he constructs<sub>(present indicative)</sub>...  
 “We want that he builds...”

T: “Ah, subjuntivo.”  
 Ah, subjunctive.  
*Ah, subjunctive.*

S: “construya, um, um, edificios más largas, ah,  
 constructs<sub>(present subjunctive)</sub>, um, um, buildings more long, ah,  
 más grandes.”  
 more big.  
*constructs, um, um, longer buildings, ah, larger buildings.*

Figure 21. Sample episode in Activity 5 with metalinguistic feedback.

T: “Y, y, ¿tienes alguna sugerencia que tu vives en el  
 And, and, do you have any suggestion since you live in the  
 pueblo, tienes alguna sugerencia para el presidente en  
 downtown, do you have any suggestion for the president in  
 cuanto a cambios o maneras de integrar a la gente que  
 regards to changes or ways of integrating the people that  
 no vive en campus?  
 no live on campus?  
*And, and, do you have a suggestion since you live downtown, do you  
 have a suggestion for the president in regards to changes or ways of  
 integrating people who live off campus?*

S: “\*Um, sugiero que, um, el presidente puede, um...”  
 \*Um, I suggest that, um, the president can (present indicative) , um,  
*Um, I suggest that, um, the president can, um*

T: “¿Cómo? ¿Puede?”  
 What? He can (present indicative)?  
*Huh? He can?*

S: “¿Puede? [brief pause] Can?”  
 He can (present indicative)? [brief pause] Can?  
*He can? Can?*

T: “¿Pueda qué?”  
 He can (present subjunctive) what?  
*He can what?*

S: “Oh, porque es un subjuntivo. Que el presidente  
 Oh, because it is a subjunctive. That the president  
 pueda hacer un sitio web...”  
 can (present subjunctive) make a site web...  
 Oh, because it's a subjunctive. That the president can make a web site.

Figure 22. Sample partial episode in Activity 5 with clarification request.

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