

IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK FOR MIDDLE SCHOOL
ESL LEARNERS

By

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To my parents, Russ and Karla. Thank you for correcting my grammar when I was a kid. Who would have thought it would lead to all of this?

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

As a middle school teacher of English language learners (ELLs), I often wonder if the feedback I give my students on a daily basis is retained in their memory. I remember as a child receiving oral feedback from family and teachers correcting my grammatical mistakes. Why do I remember some of these corrections, while others have been lost time and time again? I started thinking about my students and which aspects of grammar stay in their memory as they learn the complicated grammatical structures of the English language. Perhaps a certain type of corrective feedback stays in learners' memory better than others. Now, as an educator of the English language to nonnative speakers, I wanted to discover what feedback stays in my students' memory when learning second language (L2) grammar. I want my students to retain the corrections and feedback I give them on a daily basis immediately and in the long term. I want to find out which type of corrective feedback is more effective for middle school students learning L2 grammar, specifically simple past tense *-ed*.

For the purposes of this research project, I will exclusively research corrective feedback, which is defined by Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) as "taking the form of responses to learner utterances that contain an error" (p. 340). The responses can indicate that an error has been committed, specify the correct target language form, or contain metalinguistic information about the nature of the error (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam).

The Interaction Hypothesis (IH) suggests that negotiated interaction can facilitate second language acquisition (SLA). One reason IH facilitates SLA could be that those learners receive feedback on their utterances (Mackey, 2000). Helpful interactional processes can supply corrective feedback making learners aware that their utterances contained errors or were somehow problematic (Mackey, 2006). Negative feedback attained in negotiation may contribute to the facilitation of second language development (Long, 1996).

A growing interest has developed in corrective feedback in the last ten years. Studies have looked at the types of corrective feedback, if the feedback is noticed by learners, and how the feedback contributes to language acquisition. Specifically, the research examined the effectiveness of implicit and explicit types of corrective feedback (Mackey, 2000; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Kim & Mathes, 2001; Carroll, 2001; Rosa & Leow, 2004; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Nagata, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Havranek & Cesnik, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Sanz, 2003; DeKeyser, 1993; Lyster, 2004). Implicit feedback often takes the form of recasts (Loewen, 2006). For the purposes of this study I will refer to implicit feedback as *recasts* and use Loewen's definition, adapted from Long, which states that a recast is a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target like items are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s).

S: to her is good thing

T: yeah *for her it's* a good thing

S: because she got a lot of money there (Loewen & Philp, 2006)

In the other type of feedback, explicit feedback, a learner has said something incorrect or provides metalinguistic feedback by giving comments or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006).

S: She *goed* to the store
T: No, not *goed*—*went*. (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006)

The aforementioned terms will be defined in much greater depth, along with examples, in chapter two of this study. For my research, I will examine the efficacy of implicit and explicit feedback for ELLs in my classroom. I want to find out which type of corrective feedback is more effective for middle school students learning L2 grammar, specifically simple past tense *-ed*.

Purpose

Since my teaching career began, I have always been curious about what my students remember after grammar lessons, both immediately and in the long-term. I became especially curious after I implemented the response “I don’t know, can you?” after my students would ask, “Can I go to the bathroom?” After I started using that line for feedback, the majority of my students, some with very Limited English Proficiency (LEP), started asking permission using the more formal form of “may.” Although “can” is still acceptable, I discovered that my correction was not only noted by students, but also retained in their memory. I realized the importance of teacher/student interaction and how that may contribute to their L2 acquisition. I noticed that the feedback I was giving my students affected their grammatical accuracy when they made oral statements and requests. It was then I had an epiphany as to the significance of the corrective feedback used in my ESL classrooms. My interest expanded, and I began to wonder about the different types of corrective feedback, i.e., what I use in the classroom and which type, if any, might change my instruction and benefit my students’ L2 acquisition. I thought this could potentially be valuable information to share with my colleagues. I

also thought that the more I learn about corrective feedback and its correlation to L2 grammar acquisition, the more this would help my students. By exploring which type of corrective feedback was most effective in my classroom, I hope to have better suggestions for teachers about how to provide corrective feedback to their students. The purpose of this study is to inform teachers of possible effective ways to correct learner errors for ESL students with LEP in a middle school setting.

Role of the Researcher

I teach English as a Second Language (ESL) levels one, two, and three to seventh and eighth graders. These levels will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Three. The school is a public middle school in a suburb of a major metropolitan area located in the Upper Midwest. During this study, I was in my third year of teaching ESL in both pull-out and inclusion models. My first year teaching I was hired to work exclusively with newcomers to the United States, many of whom had no schooling prior to being in my classroom. Also, many students entered my classroom unable to read and write in their native language (L1). By year three in my current district, my teaching role had expanded to covering three different ESL levels, as well as team teaching ESL math.

As my ESL teaching and advocacy duties in the middle school began to increase, so did my motivation to inform colleagues and superiors about current ESL topics. For this particular study, I worked with my students in pull-out classes of ESL levels two and three. I became both a teacher and an insider for this project because I conducted the research and taught the lessons used in this study. As I discuss in Chapter Three, I gave corrective feedback to my students through oral and written tests correcting the grammatical mistakes they uttered involving past tense *-ed* after reciting a narrative

from a picture story. These error corrections given during a second retelling of a picture story were tested immediately and one week after the immediate implicit and explicit corrective feedback.

Significance

Corrective feedback is an extremely relevant, but controversial issue in SLA today. I wanted to provide data for ESL teachers, English teachers, professors and researchers to gain better understanding of corrective feedback and which type is more effective for learner accuracy and retention. After almost 20 years of research and exploring error correction and communicative language teaching, researchers are still asking the same five questions:

1. Should learners' errors be corrected?
2. When should learners' errors be corrected?
3. Which errors should be corrected?
4. How should errors be corrected?
5. Who should do the correcting? (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

Consequently, I want to know what works for middle school students with LEP and personally be more intentional, as a teacher, about the type of corrective feedback I use in the classroom setting. Specifically, I would like to know if learners' errors should be corrected and how they should be corrected. Even though we may still be a long way from answering these questions, I need to gain a better understating of what works in my classroom with my learners in the hopes to inform teachers which type of corrective feedback may be useful to them. As teachers gain a better understanding of which types of corrective feedback benefit students, the students receive more quality instruction and receive feedback that best contributes to L2 acquisition. The more data we have

regarding implicit and explicit feedback, the more insight we gain as to how to best correct learner errors.

Biases

I enter this study with one major bias. I am a believer that conversational interaction and error correction are useful for L2 acquisition. I believe that the more interaction I have with my students, the more grammatical accuracy they may acquire in the English language. Since I began teaching, I have followed the philosophies of Krashen (1985) and Long (1985, 1996) that promote interaction between native and nonnative speakers. I must keep in mind that the data I collect may not necessarily coincide with my personal beliefs. I will make sure I do not allow this bias to interfere with the collection and analysis of my classroom data. I can accomplish this by following the specific criteria discussed in chapter three. Regardless of personal belief, this study will examine the benefits, if any, of corrective feedback. I want to find out which type of corrective feedback is more effective for middle school students learning L2 grammar, specifically simple past tense *-ed*.

Summary

In this study, I focus on whether my middle school ESL students benefit more from implicit or explicit corrective feedback. In doing so, I hope to gain further understanding on the benefits, or lack thereof, regarding teacher/student interaction, specifically corrective feedback. This information benefits ESL teachers as we decide whether to implement focus-on-form instruction and corrective feedback into our classrooms. I hope to gain more insight as to whether middle school students benefit from corrective feedback. Perhaps after more research, educators can figure out ways to

best implement these practices into ESL classrooms regardless of age or time spent in the country.

In Chapter One I introduced my research by establishing the purpose and significance of this study. The context of the study was briefly introduced as was the role, assumptions and biases of the researcher. The background of the researcher was also provided. In Chapter Two I provide a review of the literature relevant to the Interaction Hypothesis, interactional feedback, implicit and explicit corrective feedback including the different types, effectiveness, and contributions to SLA. Chapter Three includes a description of the research design and methodology that guides this study. Chapter Four presents the results of this study. In Chapter Five I reflect on the data collected. I also discuss the limitations of the study and implications for further research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The goal of this research is to learn about the different types of corrective feedback, with a heavy emphasis on distinguishing implicit versus explicit feedback, and their roles, if any, in L2 acquisition. In particular, my question is which type of corrective feedback is more effective for middle school students learning L2 grammar, specifically simple past tense *-ed*? The literature reviewed in this section will be divided into six sections. The first section looks at the history of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories in relation to error correction to show how, in recent years, many classrooms have shifted to a blend of Focus-on Form Instructions (FFI) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). This leads into current methods and ways of implementing FFI in classrooms today. The next section will discuss conversational interaction and its correlation with error correction. The chapter will then examine corrective feedback specifically and the different types commonly used in recent years. The next section directly compares implicit and explicit feedback. In addition to the direct comparison, previous research regarding which type has been more effective in both classroom and laboratory settings will be evaluated. Finally, the gaps in previous research will be examined in order to support the need for my research project. This study will collect data to determine if recasts (implicit) or metalinguistic feedback (explicit) contribute to gains in grammar accuracy using past tense *-ed* with middle school ELLs.

Focus-on-form Instruction

People are now paying more attention to grammar in the classroom. Instructors are referencing communication and grammar (Xiao-xia, 2006). According to Lightbown & Spada (1999), second language learners benefit from FFI and corrective feedback provided they are within communicative contexts (p. 152). In addition, helpful effects have occurred with a focus-on-language form. Although FFI is not likely to change sequences of development, it does speed up the rate of learning and assists learners in their learning processes (Xiao-xia, 2006).

The recent literature on SLA, and in particular, SLA within a classroom context, has witnessed a growing interest in focus-on-form and focus-on-meaning (Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres & Fernandez-Garcia, 1999). It is now common to distinguish *focus-on-meaning* and *focus-on-form* instruction in discussions of language pedagogy. Focus-on-meaning assumes that linguistic knowledge is obtained through communication, as opposed to direct instruction. It also requires task-based language teaching. These tasks serve to provide opportunities for learners to focus-on-meaning enabling them to acquire the target language. FFI occurs during interlanguage construction and attempts to draw learners' attention to and providing opportunities for them to practice specific language features (Ellis, Basturkman & Loewen, 2001). For example, a student might say, "Every day they walk." The teacher would respond, "Walk. You need to use past tense of walk." The student would then state, "Every day they walked to store." A distinction exists between reactive and pre-emptive focus-on-form. Reactive focus-on-form refers to error correction, corrective feedback, or negative evidence/feedback. Error correction occurs when, during the context of focus-on-meaning activities, learners'

Table 2.1

Focus-on-form vs. Focus-on-meaning

Focus-on-form	Focus-on-meaning
Focus-on-form instruction includes the function that a particular form performs. For example, like this study, attention to the 'form' <i>-ed</i> shows that <i>-ed</i> signals an action performed in the past (Laufer, 2005).	While any L2 learner attempts to produce preset language structures, there is a chance they will also understand the meanings and could produce those meanings in a communicative setting (Littlewood, 1980).

attention is drawn to errors in their production. Thus, the error triggers discourse aimed at a specific linguistic item. Contrarily, pre-emptive focus-on-form is defined as occurring when either the teacher or a learner initiates attention to form even though no actual problem in production has arisen (Farrokhi & Gholami, 2007). An example of pre-emptive would be if a teacher tells a student to use the past tense –ed form of a verb before they have made a mistake. Reactive focus-on-form includes the treatment of learner errors. Generally, this does not clearly differentiate between error treatment in focus-on-form(s) instruction and in focus-on-form instruction. An example of this would be if a teacher tells a student to use the past tense –ed form after they have used it incorrectly. Many of the strategies used to address learner errors in these two types of instruction may be alike, but some differences also exist (Ellis, Basturkman, & Loewen, 2002).

Pre-emptive focus-on-form is almost entirely non-existent. This consists of efforts by the students or the teacher to make a particular form the topic of the conversation, even though an error has not occurred. It is also conversational focus-on-form. Student pre-emptive focus-on-form typically occurs when a student addressing the teacher asks a question. The student may use a communication strategy of

'requesting assistance' in the hopes of getting what he/she wants from the teacher.

Sometimes, the teacher chooses not to answer the student but to re-direct the question at the class to see if another student gives the answer. On other occasions, the teacher may simply say that they will address the question later (Ellis, 2002).

Planned focus-on-form uses targeted pre-selected linguistic items during a focus-on-meaning activity, using input or output. An example of this would be when a teacher informs the students which linguistic item they are using before an activity. In contrast, incidental focus-on-forms lets linguistic items arise spontaneously during focus-on-meaning activities. An example of this would be when a teacher gives immediate corrective feedback to a grammatical item unrelated to the lesson. Although both types of focus-on-form may help learners, their impact may differ. According to Loewen (2005), pro-active focus-on-form has the advantage of giving intensive coverage of one specific linguistic item, where incidental focus-on-form provides extensive coverage, targeting numerous items.

In incidental focus-on-form, unfocused tasks need a great deal of instruction. For example, a teacher may have planned to focus on past tense –ed.; however, because students are making mistakes in subject/verb agreement, the teacher corrects the students on the latter error. In planned focus-on-form instruction, focused tasks require intensive instruction. These two pairs of focus-on-form options (proactive and reactive, planned and incidental) overlap, as opposed to being unrelated. They both suggest that focus-on-form treatment can give instruction on the forms, which are either found during interaction, or are planned beforehand intentionally. When these forms need pre-

selection, they all acknowledge that decisions should be made according to the criteria of meaning, instead of structure of difficulty (Kong, 2005)

Focus-on-form(s) is defined, according to Loewen, as instruction in which syllabi and lesson are based on linguistic items, with the primary goal being to teach those items. A focus-on-form differs in that it overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication (2005, p. 362). For example, in an ESL class for housekeeping workers, an oral work report given at the end of a shift (e.g., "I cleaned the room, then I changed the bed") could be used to focus students' attention on the formation of the past tense.

Focus-on-Form Instruction Versus Focus-on-Meaning Instruction The Form/Meaning Continuum

Focus-on-form and meaning expands from activities in which the main focus is on language forms to be acquired, to activities where the main focus is on the meanings, which these forms convey (Littlewood, 1980). Focus-on-form and focus-on-meaning vary in their emphasis. While any L2 learner attempts to produce preset language structures, there is a chance the student may also understand the meanings and could produce those meanings in a communicative setting (e.g., prepositions of location such as *in*, *on*, *under* when talking about building a house). Form and meaning can coexist by the learner concentrating on the message communicated to a partner, but may also pay attention to the accuracy of the form of the language used.

Focus-on-form instruction includes the function that a particular form performs. For example, in this study, attention to the 'form' *-ed* showed that *-ed* signaled an action performed in the past (Laufer, 2005). Two kinds of focus-on-form instruction exist, *focus-on-forms* and *focus-on-form*. Focus-on-forms has the pre-selection of specific

Table 2.2

The Form/Meaning Continuum

Type	Meaning	Example
Focus-on-form(s)	Entirely requires activities with specific linguistic structures without paying attention to the meaning being communicated. Whether learners are aware of the meaning is irrelevant and not most important factor when compared to the linguistic operation (Littlewood, 1980).	When students are asked to change the tense (e.g. simple present to simple past).
Focus-on-form(s) (plus meaning)	The learner is practicing specific communicative functions (i.e. questions and answers), but the procedures are still in the same structural nature given by the instructor.	Picture sequences narrated into a short story.
Focus-on-meaning (plus form)	Language use to takes place not for its own sake alone, but also as a means towards achieving some nonlinguistic end (Littlewood, 1980).	Questionnaires, identifying pictures and obtaining missing information.
Focus-on-meaning	Classroom work is concerned with communication of meaning. No attention is given to the forms used to convey this focus-on-meaning and the approach no longer concerns grammar teaching as it once did (Ellis, Basturkmen, Loewen; 2004). Conveying the message effectively is far more important in this stage than the language actually used to express the intended meaning (Littlewood, 1980).	Speaking activities with instances of real communication (Gao,2009).

features based on a linguistic element and the handling of those features. With this instruction, the key focus of attention is on the form that is targeted. For example, when

students are asked to change the tense (e.g. simple present to simple past). On the other hand, in focus-on-form instruction the key focus of attention becomes the meaning. As shown in Table 2.2, the attention to form arises out of activities revolved around meaning coming from the performance of a communicative task.

According to Littlewood (1980), a continuum exists between form and meaning depending on the perspective of a given activity. This continuum ranges from teaching activities exclusively with focus-on-form instruction to focus-on-meaning instruction. Therefore, a third option is *focus-on-meaning*. With this approach, classroom work is concerned with communication of meaning. No attention is given to the forms used to convey this focus-on-meaning and the approach no longer concerns grammar teaching as it once did (Ellis, Basturkmen, Loewen, 2004).

Focus-on-form(s) entirely requires activities with specific linguistic structures without paying attention to the meaning being communicated. Whether learners are aware of the meaning is irrelevant and not the most important factor when compared to the linguistic operation. An example includes when students are asked to change the tense (e.g. simple present to simple past).

In *Focus-on-form(s)* (plus meaning), the learner is practicing specific communicative functions (e.g. questions and answers), but the procedures are still in the same structural nature given by the instructor. An example of this can be taken from a study done by Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), which used picture sequences narrated by the students into a short story. The learners were encouraged to use a particular language form when provided with certain linguistic prompts from the instructor. For

example, the learner practiced specific communicative functions, such as questions and answers (Ellis, 2006).

Next on the continuum comes *Focus-on-meaning* (plus form). This stage aims for language use to take place not for its own sake alone, but also “as a means towards achieving some nonlinguistic end” (Littlewood, p. 443). Examples of focus-on-meaning with form include questionnaires, identifying pictures and obtaining missing information. The Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) study used picture sequences narrated into a short story. The learners are then asked to link the linguistic form with the meanings they might convey during communication. Through these techniques, communicative purpose can be added to the classroom.

The final stage of the continuum is *focus-on-meaning*. In this stage, students are no longer aware of practicing any predetermined language. Instead, they begin from an individual communicative goal and find language forms that will best express it. An example of this would be a speaking activity with instances of real communication. Conveying the message effectively is far more important in this stage than the language actually used to express the intended meaning (Littlewood, 1980). In this study, the intervention introduced in chapter three uses focus-on-form instruction, specifically the aforementioned *Focus-on-form(s)* (plus meaning). Throughout this continuum, error correction and corrective feedback make up two key components in focus-on-form instruction and focus-on-meaning instruction.

Error Correction and Corrective Feedback

Error correction and corrective feedback make up a large component of conversational interaction. Of the various types of corrective feedback, each can be

placed under the category of implicit or explicit. While explicit feedback indicates that an error has occurred within an utterance by pointing it out, implicit feedback, generally through recasts, allows for the teacher to state the correct form out loud. Within the last 15 years, multiple studies have been done to compare which type of corrective feedback is more effective for L2 learners. The majority asserted that explicit feedback was the more effective form of corrective feedback; fewer studies have shown recasts to be more effective or have shown no significant difference between the two. This study hopes to determine what the more effective type of corrective feedback (recasts or metalinguistic feedback) is with middle school ELLs by testing gains in L2 grammar accuracy. Little research has been done with these students.

According to Spada and Lightbown (1993), learners of a second language develop a series of interlanguages that are systematic and related across all learners. They state that researchers tend to disagree, however, about the role of instruction and how big of a factor that plays in the grammatical aspects of SLA. They conclude that regardless of these differing opinions, FFI and corrective feedback lead to changes in learner performance.

According to Mackey (2000), conversational interaction and its role in L2 acquisition have been studied for the past two decades. Beginning in the early 1980s, this research often considered the role that negotiated interaction played in L2 development. For the purpose of this study I will use her definition of negotiated interaction as being “between native [NS] and nonnative [NNS] speakers or between two nonnative speakers and [when] the two speakers arrive to mutual understanding, negotiated interaction has occurred” (p. 472). The interaction hypothesis (IH) plays an important role in the SLA

process for negotiated interaction that elicits negative feedback. The interaction gives learners, both speakers and listeners, opportunities to understand and use the language that was previously incomprehensible (Mackey, 2000). An example of negotiated interaction is the following:

Speaker 1: There's a pair of reading glasses above the plant.

Speaker 2: A what?

Speaker 1: Glasses, reading glasses to see the newspaper?

Speaker 2: Glassi?

Speaker 1: You wear them to see with, if you can't see. Reading glasses.

Speaker 2: Yeah. (Mackey, 2000, p. 558-559)

This allows for learners to receive different input and have greater opportunities for output (Mackey, 1999). One way of having students become aware of the linguistic form is through negotiated interaction. This provides a valuable context for learning. One way this occurs, and is the focus of this study, is through learners receiving feedback on their own errors of their utterances and problems with their L2 grammar (Mackey, 2000).

The negotiation of meaning and the use of recasts facilitate conversational interaction. During negotiation of meaning, nonnative speakers (NNSs) signal that they do not understand something. Through the interaction, the learner has an opportunity to understand and use the language that was once incomprehensible (Mackey, 1999).

Recasts involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student utterance, minus the error. This contributes to corrective feedback and letting learners know that their utterances contained errors. For example,

Speaker 1: And in the er kitchen er cupboard no on shef.

Speaker 2: On the shelf. I have it on the shelf.

Speaker 1: In the shelf, yes OK. (Mackey, 2006, p. 406)

The question of whether there is a direct relationship between interactional feedback and L2 development has been the focus of a great deal of research (Carroll &

Swain, 1993; Nagata, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Carroll, 2001; Havranek & Cesnik, 2003; Lyster, 2004; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006) (Mackey, 2000). Now, I will discuss studies that examine the definition of corrective feedback and the different types used by teachers in classroom settings.

An overall definition of corrective feedback is responding to learner utterances that contain an error. When providing corrective feedback, three possible responses can occur.

1. The response can simply be that an error has been committed. Here, the error could be in pronunciation or tone.
 - S: Le... le girafe?
 - T: *Le girafe?* [repeat and change tone for repetition] (Lyster, 1997)

2. Another form of corrective feedback occurs when the response targets the correct language form.
 - S: to her is good thing
 - T: yeah *for her it's* a good thing
 - S: because she got a lot of money there
(Loewen & Philp, 2006)

3. The final possible response gives metalinguistic information regarding the error (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006).
 - S: yesterday Joe and Bell ah went to ah ah Bill's grandmother and visit their grandmother
 - T: and *visit, you need past tense*
 - S: Visited, yes (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006)

Corrective feedback can be given as learners attempt to use the target language (TL).

The feedback varies in explicitness and tries to identify problems of appropriateness or accuracy in communication when given verbally (Loewen & Philp, 2006). Within that range of explicitness, explicit feedback is corrective, telling the learner that their words are nontarget-like. The range of explicit correction varies and will be discussed later in the chapter.

Within three possible aforementioned responses, corrective feedback can also take multiple forms or any combination of the aforementioned responses (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). A 1997 study from Lyster and Ranta discuss the six common ways in which errors are corrected through immediate feedback:

1. *Explicit correction* refers to the explicit condition of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect.
2. *Recasts* involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student utterance, minus the error.
3. *Clarification requests* indicate to students either the teacher has misunderstood their utterance or that the utterance is ill formed in some way and that a reformulation is necessary.
4. *Metalinguistic Feedback* contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.
5. *Elicitation* has three different techniques
 - a. Elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to "fill in the blank as it were.
 - b. Use questions to elicit the forms
 - c. Teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterance
6. *Repetition* refers to the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error (pp. 46-49).

Table 2.3 provides examples of all six different types of corrective feedback. Recasts, clarification requests, elicitation, and repetition all fall under the category of implicit feedback. Contrarily, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback fall under the category of explicit correction. As previously mentioned, it is possible to combine the two different forms of correction. The combination of explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback is commonly referred to as *multiple feedback* (Lyster, 1997). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback are two of the six types and the focus of this study. The following section further explains the differences between implicit corrective

feedback and explicit corrective feedback when implementing focus-on-form(s) corrections.

Implicit vs. Explicit Corrective Feedback

Focus-on-form instruction chooses linguistic items during a focus-on-meaning activity either planned or unplanned. A focus-on-form overtly draws the learners' attention to linguistic elements as they arise and not in predetermined ways. In a classroom setting, corrective feedback deals with focus-on-form instruction through output. This means any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is non-standard, including different responses that the learners receive. So, if a language learner says, 'He *go* to school everyday,' the corrective feedback can be given explicitly, for example, 'no, you should say *goes*, not *go*.' Or, feedback can be given implicitly, for example 'yes he *goes* to school every day,' and may or may not include metalinguistic information, for example, 'Don't forget to make the verb agree with the subject' (Tatawy, 2002). This focus-on-form instruction attempts to draw learners' attention to language in two ways: implicitly and/or explicitly (Loewen, 2005). This section will first examine explicit feedback, specifically metalinguistic error correction. Then it will look at implicit feedback, specifically recasts. To help differentiate these two forms, previous studies that collected data with these forms of corrective feedback will be referenced. Explicit feedback occurs in two different ways. First, teachers can simply indicate that an error has been made or they can give detailed metalinguistic feedback (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). The former is called explicit correction and the latter is appropriately called metalinguistic feedback. Ellis (2001) describes the effects of the self-processing that go with explicit correction:

Table 2.3

Six Types of Corrective Feedback with Examples

Type of Corrective Feedback	Example
1. Explicit Correction	1. S: [...] le coyote, le bison et la gr...groue (phonological error) T: Et la grue. On dit grue. (Lyster, 1997)
2. Recasts	2. S: to her is good thing T: yeah for her it's a good thing S: because she got a lot of money there (Loewen & Philp, 2006)
3. Clarification Requests	3. S: Est-ce que, est-ce que je peux fait une carte sur le... T: Pardon? (Lyster, 1997)
4. Metalinguistic feedback	4. S: yesterday Joe and Bell ah went to to ah Bill's grandmother and visit their grandmother T: and visit, you need past tense S: Visited, yes (Ellis, 2006)
5. Elicitation	5. S: Le chien peut court. T: Le chen peut court? Le chien peut ... [pause for elicitation] (Lyster, 1997)
6. Repetition	6. S: Le... le girafe? T: Le giraffe? [repeat and change tone for repetition] (Lyster, 1997)

...it would seem that the metalinguistic time-outs from communicating afforded by explicit correction constitute a perfect context for melding the conscious and unconscious processes involved in learning. Within the context of a single interactional exchange, such a time-out creates an opportunity for learners to traverse the learning sequence (p. 343).

In other words, with explicit feedback, learners get an opportunity to understand what specific errors they need to correct, while also periodically getting a break from performing to process the negotiated interaction.

Explicit corrective feedback has been tested in multiple ways. A 1993 L2 Japanese study done by Nagata tested 32 second-year university students learning Japanese passive structures: verbal predicates and particles. Group (A) received what was missing or not expected and (B) received the same feedback plus metalinguistic explanations. Learners performed computer-based exercises having them respond to sentences produced by an imaginary partner. Sentences were computer based and feedback on errors provided on the basis of group membership. Group B tested better than group A on the particles, but not on the verbal predicates.

Also in 1993, Carroll and Swain conducted a study with 100 Spanish and adult ESL learners at the low intermediate level. The target structure was dative verbs. The design had two groups with group (A) receiving direct metalinguistic feedback, group (B) received explicit rejection, group (C) recasts, group (D) indirect metalinguistic feedback, and group (E) served as the control group. The groups had two feedback sessions each followed by recall using tests that elicited production tasks following each feedback's session. The results found all of the treatment groups performed better than the control group on both recall tasks. Group A outperformed all other groups.

Finally, two studies were conducted in 2004, one by Lyster and one by Rosa and Leow. Each study used corrective feedback with participants and divided them into three groups: 1) implicit feedback in the form of recasts, 2) explicit feedback, and 3) a control group. In the Lyster study, the explicit feedback group outperformed the implicit group.

Both experimental groups out-performed the control group. The same results occurred with Rosa and Leow.

The aforementioned studies demonstrate that explicit feedback may be of value (Ellis, 2006). Previous studies have shown that explicit feedback, specifically, metalinguistic feedback, outperformed various types of implicit feedback, mostly recasts (Carrol & Swain, 1993; Nagata, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Carroll, 2001; Havranek & Cesnik, 2003; Lyster, 2004; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006).

On the other hand, implicit feedback focuses on meaning. While explicit feedback simply states the existence of the error, implicit corrective feedback can involve eliciting correction from the learners themselves. As stated earlier, this can occur through a repetition of the learner's utterance (Loewen, 2006). For example, the student (S) states, "Le... le girafe?" The teacher (T) then repeats and changes tone for repetition, "Le giraffe?" (Lyster, 1997) Sometimes, implicit corrective feedback is given through rejection and repetition. However, the most common form of implicit feedback is through recasts (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). Recasts make for the most common form of corrective feedback because they save time, they are not as intimidating to student confidence, and they generally keep a flow of interaction repair. An example of this would be:

S: to her is good thing

T: yeah for her it's a good thing

S: because she got a lot of money there (Loewen & Philp, 2006)

As previously stated, recasts keep the focus-on-meaning. Recasts also allow the teacher to maintain control (Loewen and Philip, 2006). In defining recasts one can identify three

parts as defined by Loewen and Philp in their 2006 study measuring the characteristics, explicitness, and effectiveness of this form of implicit feedback:

- 1) Recasts are generally provided incidentally in the course of focus-on-meaning interaction in response to nontarget-like utterances.
- 2) Recasts retain the central meaning of the learner's utterance while changing the lexical, morphosyntactic, or phonological form.
- 3) Recasts provide positive evidence and negative feedback rather than providing overt correction (537).

The effectiveness of recasts has also been tested in multiple ways. In 2000, Maranoi used indefinite articles with 114 first-year Japanese college students with one group receiving requests for repetition, recasts in communicative tasks, and explicit grammar explanation. The other group received focus-on-meaning debriefing. A third group acted as the control group. A grammaticality judgment test, an oral production task, and a written production task with two posttests five weeks apart, found that both experimental groups outperformed the control group on both posttests. Group A outperformed group B on posttest one, but not on posttest two.

Also, Leeman (2003) conducted a study with 74 first-year university learners of Spanish using Spanish noun-adjective agreement. The (A) recast group, (B) negative evidence group (C) enhanced salience with no feedback group, and (D) control group, performed communicative tasks one-on-one with the researcher. The results from a posttest and delayed posttest with picture description tasks found that only groups A and C outperformed the control group on any measure. So, the recast group outperformed the control group.

Sometimes with previous studies regarding the effectiveness of implicit and explicit feedback, little to no difference occurs between recasts and metalinguistic error correction. In 1993, DeKeyser tested morphosyntactic features with explicit corrective

feedback and limited explicit corrective feedback to 25 Dutch high school seniors learning L2 French. The participants were tested with three oral communication tasks and fill-in-the-blank tests. DeKeyser did not find enough of a significant difference between the two groups.

Another study done by Carroll, although this time without Swain, and completed eight years later, tested forming nouns to verbs with 100 adult low-intermediate ESL learners in 2003. The groups were identical to the aforementioned Swain study, although this time participants were tested with conversations in sentence format. The results of the study concluded that all types of feedback helped students learn the targeted items, but few differences existed between the effectiveness of implicit versus explicit corrective feedback.

A study by Kim and Mathes used a target structure of dative verbs with 20 Korean adult ESL learners in 2001. Their study examined two groups: Group (A) received metalinguistic feedback and Group (B) received recasts. Both were presented in two sessions one week apart from each other. Although learners said they preferred explicit feedback, the gains between the two production tasks were not that dramatic.

Another study conducted in 2003 by Sanz studied 28 first-year university learners of Spanish studying pronouns between the object and verb and placed them into two groups. Group one received metalinguistic feedback and group two received implicit feedback. Sentence completion and written video retelling found that both groups considerably increased ability to supply the target structure with no difference between the groups.

In general, recast studies show implicit feedback is effective in terms of L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2006). Of the previous studies, Leeman (2003) found recasts to be the more effective type of corrective feedback. Although the majority proved corrective feedback to be an effective form of interaction (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Nagata, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Carroll, 2001; Havranek & Cesnik, 2003; Lyster, 2004; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006), studies showed that little significance can occur between the data of implicit and explicit feedback (DeKeyser, 1993; Kim & Mathes, 2001). Similar to many of the aforementioned studies (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Leeman, 2003; Lyster, 2004; Rosa & Leow, 2004), the experimental group outperformed the control group. The next section discussed the gaps to differentiate this study from previous studies regarding implicit and explicit feedback.

Gaps

Similar to this study, implicit feedback generally appears in the form of recasts and explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic feedback. However, due to classroom size and the number of participants, this study will not have a control group to compare with the experimental groups receiving implicit and explicit corrective feedback. In this study, the intervention introduced in Chapter Three uses focus-on-form instruction, specifically the *Focus-on-form(s)* (plus meaning). One major way to differentiate this study from the previously mentioned studies is the age of the participants. Many studies have included adult learners (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Kim & Mathes, 2001; Carroll, 2001; Rosa & Leow, 2004; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). A large number of studies were conducted in a university setting (Nagata, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Havranek & Cesnik, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Sanz, 2003). DeKeyser (1993) collected data from high

school students and Lyster (2004) tested 10-11 year old students in the fifth grade. I hope to determine what type of corrective feedback with 13-14 year olds in the seventh and eighth grade, might be the most effective in terms of L2 grammar acquisition.

Conclusion

In Chapter Two, the history of SLA in relation to error correction recounted how in recent years many classrooms have shifted to a blend of FFI and CLT rather than each being taught in isolation. This has led to many classrooms implementing error corrections through immediate oral corrective feedback given both implicitly and explicitly. Therefore, this chapter also had given an overview of error correction and corrective feedback in FFI, specifically the effectiveness of implicit feedback through recasts and explicit feedback through metalinguistic feedback. This study will attempt to find if a more effective type of corrective feedback (recasts or metalinguistic feedback) with middle school ELLs by testing increases in L2 grammar accuracy. The research questions are (1) which type of corrective feedback is more effective for gains in L2 grammar accuracy, specifically past tense *-ed*, for middle school ELLs? and (2) are recasts or metalinguistic feedback associated with higher accuracy scores on posttests and is that accuracy retained on a delayed posttest? Little research has been done with this demographic. The following chapter discusses the methods I will use to answer these questions and how I will analyze the data.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

The questions I hope to answer are: (1) which type of corrective feedback is more effective for gains in L2 grammar accuracy, specifically past tense *-ed*, for middle school ELLs? and (2) are recasts or metalinguistic feedback associated with higher accuracy scores on posttests and is that accuracy retained on a delayed posttest? This chapter describes the methodologies used in this study. First, the rationale and the description of the research design are given along with a description of the quantitative paradigm. Second, the participants and setting are presented. Third, the procedures for data collection are given along with materials used for collecting the data. Fourth, the methods used for analysis are discussed. Finally, the verification of data and the ethics are presented.

Research Paradigm

This study focused on the themes that emerge from implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. For the purposes of this study, I used quantitative research. This paradigm is most suitable for collecting and analyzing the data and entails a data collection instrument that is responsive to analyzing statistics. Quantitative research uses numbers and answers the questions of at *how much* and *how many*. Dealing strictly with numbers makes this research mostly logical and statistical. Therefore, the design of this study was controlled with a predetermined structure. Like

other quantitative studies, the data was collected through a series of tests. This resulted in findings that were precise and numerical (Merriam, 1998).

This research question specifically fits the description of a generic quantitative study, in which a study tries to discover and understand a phenomenon, a process, or the perspectives and worldviews of the people involved. Generic quantitative research often includes a description, interpretation, and understanding of a concept and then identifies continual patterns in the form of themes and categories (Merriam, 1998).

Setting

This study took place at a suburban public middle school in the Upper Midwest. The school has approximately 2,000 students all in 7th and 8th grade. About 20% require ESL services, compared with about 4.5 % in the district overall. 459 students out of 10,092 are in ESL services. The middle school provides five levels of ESL language arts classrooms: newcomer, novice, beginner, intermediate, and advanced (levels 1-5). Students in the first three levels receive two hours of ESL instruction per day. These two hours account for all of their English services. They are not required to attend a mainstream English class. Students in the two higher levels receive one hour of ESL services per day, in addition to their mainstream English class. Data was collected during ESL language arts classrooms taught by the researcher. The site has had ESL students for the past ten years. The district has also served ESL students for the past ten years.

Participants

In May 2009, 11 students took part in this study. Two classes of participants were involved. The school, specifically the ESL department, classifies these participants as novice and beginners, according to scores on a graded reading test and a previous

classroom level placement test called the Language Assessment Scales (LAS). The majority of the students came from Somalia. The other students came from Cambodia, Korea, Vietnam and Argentina. Most of the students have been in the country for approximately two to three years, but the range extends from one to five years. All students were either 12 or 13 years old and in 7th or 8th grade. Students varied in the amount of time they have been studying English in the United States. This range extends from less than one year, to five years. Some students could read and write in their L1, depending on their background and country of origin.

The students were placed in classes as novice and beginning learners. In other words, the students were in levels two and three out of five. These levels were determined by LAS measuring reading, writing, and various grammatical components of English. The other factors included their success (grade percentage) in the classroom of the previous level, and years spent in the country. Level two and three learners were ideal for this study because they had previous experience working with the target grammatical structure of past tense *-ed*, but had not mastered yet. The study attempted to discover if learners could gain greater control over a target structure somewhat familiar to them, instead of something completely new.

Groups were not divided according to level or ability for one particular type of feedback. According to a district reading placement exam, group one (recasts) students had a reading level of grades three through five. Group two (metalinguistic feedback) students also had a reading level of grades three through five. As stated earlier, these levels were determined by LAS measuring reading, writing, and various grammatical

components of English. Also, groups did not differ according to grade level, time spent in the county, nationality, or gender.

Target Structure

For this study, the target grammatical structure was past *-ed*. The participants worked previously with past tense *-ed*, and thus are familiar with the structure. Also, the participants often struggled with this particular structure in the past, and I wanted to see if increased interaction and corrective feedback might help my students in the future when learning this commonly misused and mispronounced structure.

As described in Chapter Two, one of the semantic functions of the simple past is to state facts (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). When using past tense, speakers relate the time of a situation to the time of speaking. Tense states the relation between a time we speak about with the time of speaking (Klein, 1994). The materials will now be presented.

Materials

First, students were given two separate picture sequences. Picture 1 was a narrative, entitled “Catching a Thief.” Below the picture, students read the following passage:

Two men and a woman followed the boys chasing the burglar. The boys attacked the burglar. They jumped on his back trying to tackle him down. The two men and woman watching just stood there. They pointed and laughed while the boys attacked the burglar. The director watched the actors try to finish the scene. He yelled at them after he saw all the people laughing.

This picture story established simple past *-ed*. Picture story 1 included four pictures that told the same story as the paragraph above. Picture story 1b included bare infinitives located underneath the picture sequence. Picture story 2, on the other hand, was a

sequence of events entitled “Peter’s Day Off.” This picture described a day in the life of Peter, one of the characters from the previous picture. Again, underneath the picture story were bare infinitives. These bare infinitives, *open, brush, kiss, listen, play, cook, wash, drop, and watch*. Each picture of this sequence of events illustrated the bare infinitives placed underneath the picture story. A total of nine pictures described the sequence of Peter’s day with matching bare infinitives (see appendix B). Unlike part one, each picture sequence was different. In this picture story, each picture was a separate event; associative, but not causally connected because activities and events were in each picture and were self-contained. In both picture sequences, pictures were chosen in order to try and have students meet the objective of using action verbs with regular past *-ed*.

The other materials needed for data collection included a tape recorder with a microphone for the students to talk into for the instructor to transcribe later. The data collection process required two tapes for the recordings of the transcriptions. Students viewed the pictures and the written narratives on a laptop provided by the instructor. The procedures will now be presented.

Instruction

Each group received the same amount of instruction. This was two hours in two consecutive days. The instructional procedure took a total of two days. Instruction was given for two hours each day. The total instruction over the two days was four hours. The students were divided into two groups within one class. One group received implicit feedback in the form of *recasts* and the other received explicit feedback in the form of *metalinguistic feedback*. On day one, the recast group received the instructional procedures and took the immediate oral imitation test. On day two, the metalinguistic

feedback group received the instructional procedures and took the immediate oral imitation test. Both groups took the written metalinguistic feedback test one week after the instructional procedures. The two groups were divided randomly within each class/level. The learner received corrective feedback while completing the aforementioned tasks. Examples of *recasts* and *metalinguistic feedback* are as follows:

Recasts:

Learner: He *like* them.

Teacher: *Liked*.

Learner: He *liked* them.

Metalinguistic:

Learner: He *like* them

Teacher: *Like*—you need past tense.

Learner: He *liked*...

The researcher repeated the error before giving the metalinguistic feedback in order to address all students taking part in this study (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006).

Instructional Procedure Part I: Story Read Aloud and Retell

During step one of the first part of the instructional procedure, students did not receive feedback from the instructor (cf. Table 3.1). The students retold a story for two separate pictures sequences in Picture Story 1 and 1b. Learners in each group were given a picture sequence that illustrated a story. In addition to the picture sequence, students were given a written version of the same story (see appendix A). Students were provided with pictures and written text underneath the pictures. These pictures and text provided one coherent story of causally connected events. Students read the written story out loud to the instructor and received absolutely no feedback and no instruction while reading this text out loud to the researcher. This read-aloud was important so students could have a base for their retelling of the narrative and helping establish simple past *-ed*.

Table 3.1.

<i>Instructional procedures/data collection</i>	
Instructional Procedure Part I	Instructional Procedure Part II (Pretest)
Step 1. Pictures and Text	Step 4. Pictures and bare infinitives without Text
a) Pictures and text for one coherent story of causally connected events	a) Retell of pictures with bare infinitives given with no text.
b) No feedback and no instruction while reading	b) Each picture is a separate event; associative, but not causally connected
c) Instruction for retell is given	
Step 2. Pictures and bare infinitives without text	c) Five minutes of planning
a) Read aloud story first	d) Students describe day in the life of Peter, one of the characters from picture 1
b) Pictures and bare infinitives for one story of causally connected events	
c) Five minutes to plan and retell	e) Activities and events are in each picture
d) “Yesterday...” cue for establishing past tense	
Step 3. Story Retell 1	
a) Students retell the picture sequence with bare infinitives	
Feedback is given by the instructor	

Next, during Step 2 in Part 1 of the instructional procedure, in students were given the same set of pictures. Learners were told they had five minutes to read the story, look at the pictures, and retell the story with as much detail as possible. Students were given two minutes to plan with no instruction provided. They could not use or write any notes to assist them. During Step 3, after reading the passage out loud, the written narrative was replaced with a set of bare infinitives from the story. The pictures and bare infinitives told the same story of casually connected events. These verbs were there to guide the students through their retelling of the story while the instructor gave corrective

feedback to them. Again, these verbs were there to guide the students through their retelling of the story while the instructor gave corrective feedback to them.

Also during Step 3, after completing the retelling of picture story 1, the written story was removed and replaced with infinitive bare verbs, the students had to retell the story in the same order. During this part of the instructional procedure, instruction for retell was needed. The instructor gave the verbal cue, “Yesterday...” in order to establish simple past tense. Students then retold the picture sequence using the provided bare infinitives under the pictures. Feedback was given to the students in the form of recasts for group 1 and metalinguistic feedback for group two (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006).

Instructional Procedure Part II/Pretest: Picture Sequence Retell

During this section of the instructional procedure (Step 4), students received a picture sequence and then attempted to orally describe a sequence of events. Once again, students had pictures and bare infinitives with no text to tell a story in simple past tense - *ed*. These bare infinitives helped students tell the story and gave them verbs to put into simple past. They were also given to the students in order to help their descriptions. Students described a day in the life of Peter, one of the characters from picture sequence one mentioned above. Students were told to tell his story out loud using the simple past. Students again had five minutes of planning prior to the tape-recorded telling of the sequence of events. Again, each picture sequence was different and a separate event. Students were given five minutes to tell a day in the life of the character. Again, students must start their telling with “Yesterday...” For the pretest, feedback was given to the students in the form of recasts for group one and metalinguistic feedback for group two. Each retelling was audio taped, including the corrective feedback following learner errors

(Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). The data collection for the instructional procedures will now be presented.

Data Collection

Immediate Post-Test: Oral Imitation Test

Two different tests, both after the collection, helped measure the results of the class. Immediately after part two of the instructional procedure, students took an oral imitation test. In this production test, students retold “Peter’s Day Off,” the same picture sequence given from the instructional procedure part two. No changes were made with the pictures or the bare infinitives. Students were simply asked to retell part two of the instruction period. They received a picture sequence and then tried to once again orally describe a day in the life of Peter. Again, pictures were chosen in order to try and have students meet the objective of using action verbs with regular past *-ed*. The researcher transcribed all the instances of past *-ed* receiving corrective feedback. Students were infinitives, with no feedback from the instructor in order to see if an improvement has been made. This improvement was documented by a point system calculated into a percentage.

Metalinguistic Knowledge Test

One week after the instructional procedures and the oral imitation test, a comprehension test was given in the form of a metalinguistic knowledge test. Here, students took a delayed written test. Participants were presented with ten sentences and told the sentences are grammatically incorrect. Only four of the errors contained past tense *-ed*, with the other six questions acting as distracter items. In every sentence, the section containing the error was underlined. Learners were then asked to 1) correct the

Table 3.2

<i>Tests/Data Collection</i>	
Oral Imitation Test	Metalinguistic Knowledge Test
Step 5. Oral Imitation Test	Step 6. Metalinguistic Knowledge Test
a) Immediately after instructional procedure 4	a) Delayed written test
b) Same pictures as part II with bare infinitives	b) One week after Immediate Oral Imitation Test
c) Production Test	c) Comprehension Test

error and 2) explain, in writing, what was incorrect about the sentence in their own words in English.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics and percentages were calculated for both tests. As previously stated for the oral imitation test, participants received no score if the target structure was avoided, or the target structure was attempted but not correctly used. Scores were calculated into a percentage of total points possible. For the metalinguistic test, learners scored one point for correcting the mistake and one point for an accurate explanation of the error. Scores for the metalinguistic knowledge test were based off the total scores possible and calculated as a final percentage (Ellis, 2006).

Both tests were scored separately for each participant. The oral imitation test was compared with part two of the instructional procedure in order to see if improvement had been made. Learners scored one point for each correct usage of past tense *-ed* in each separate picture. Since there were nine pictures of Peter with separate events, students could receive a total of nine points. Participants received no score if the target structure was avoided, or the target structure was attempted but incorrectly imitated. Scores were then calculated into a percentage based off the number correct out of nine points possible.

This was determined by comparing the percentage correct on instructional procedure part two, with the percentage correct on the immediate posttest. A final percentage was given measuring if and how much growth occurred from the instructional procedures scores to the imitation test scores.

The metalinguistic knowledge test was also calculated into a percentage to determine how much passive accuracy can be comprehended on a delayed test. The researcher then compared the scores between the group receiving implicit feedback and the group receiving explicit feedback from the instruction, immediate and delayed post-tests. Learners scored one point for correcting the mistake and one point for an accurate explanation of the error. Learners only received scores for the four past tense *-ed* grammar points. Total scores for the metalinguistic knowledge test were based off total points possible and calculated into a final percentage (Ellis, 2006). Students could receive a maximum of four points for correcting the mistake and a maximum of four points for an accurate explanation of the error. Therefore, students could receive a maximum total of eight points. Percentages were then calculated from how many answers correct out of eight possible points. The scores should determine which type of corrective feedback, if any, produced greater gains in L2 grammar accuracy.

Pilot Study

Participants completed the tasks described next one week before the data collection using a different grammatical structure. The grammatical structure was nouns becoming verbs by adding *-ing* (Carroll, 2001). This pilot study occurred for a number of reasons. First, introducing students to this procedure prior to data collection eliminated confusion during the actual process and would ideally cause students to work more

efficiently. Second, students immediately realized that past tense *-ed* was the focus of this study and the *-ing* verbs and other distracters became more valid. Finally, students knew that narratives were part of the classroom curriculum. The participants had prior knowledge for completing the instructional procedures mentioned below.

Verification of Data

Several strategies were used to increase the internal validity of this research. This is important so that the design of this study will control variables that could influence the final outcome (McKay, 2006). For one, I used triangulation for data collection and analysis. Triangulation uses multiple sources of data to confirm emerging findings (Merriam, 1998). Having multiple sources of data provides more information for the interpretation of what is being studied (McKay, 2006). As previously stated, these multiple sources included a two part instructional procedure, an oral imitation test, and a metalinguistic knowledge test. Also, the tests were administered both immediately after data collection and one week after the instruction, which helps internal validity. Triangulation not only strengthens internal validity, but reliability as well (Merriam 1998).

Another way I enhanced internal validity was through peer examination by asking colleagues to comment on the findings as they emerge (Merriam, 1998). By receiving comments from my colleagues, I have more certainty over the conclusions I gathered from the results of the study. Since this study requires multiple sources of data, it became advantageous to have multiple people helping to analyze the results. I had two other raters for analyzing the results. Finally, previous research had caused some possible

biases for the predicting an outcome. I clarified assumptions at the outset of the study by telling the other evaluators to accept the concluding results of the study (Merriam, 1998).

Ethics

I took every step possible to guarantee that all participants have complete privacy before, during, and after the data collection. For one, through Hamline University, I submitted a Human Subjects Research. I requested permission from the school district to perform the research. I also received permission from the school's principal, vice principal, and the director of testing and assessment. I sent a consent letter to the parents/guardians of the projected participants of this study. This letter asked for permission from the parents/guardians for their child's participation and ensured that everybody's identity will remain confidential. I also informed them that non-participation is an option and will not affect their grades in anyway. This eliminated risk for the participants. I explained all of the research objectives to all of the participants. No adjustments and misrepresenting any transcriptions took place as I transcribed the observations verbatim. The raters ensured that no misrepresentations occurred.

In this chapter the research paradigm was presented. Also, the participants and setting of the study were given. This chapter presented the target structure and the corresponding instructional procedure, along with the tests for data collection. These tests include an oral imitation test and a metalinguistic knowledge test. The next chapter presents the results of this study. The results and themes that emerged from the instructional procedures, the oral imitations test, and metalinguistic knowledge test are discussed. The results are presented from both the immediate and the delayed posttests.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Overview

In Chapter Three I described the three data collection parts of the procedures that I used for this study. The three methodologies I used were 1) the instructional procedures (pretest), 2) an immediate oral imitation (immediate posttest), and 3) a delayed metalinguistic knowledge test (delayed posttest). Each procedure was useful in understanding some of the issues that could help guide me to answering my research questions: (1) Which type of corrective feedback is more effective for gains in L2 grammar accuracy, specifically past tense *-ed*, for middle school ELLs? and (2) Are recasts or metalinguistic feedback associated with higher accuracy scores on posttests and is that accuracy retained on a delayed posttest? This chapter describes the methodologies used in this study. This chapter presents the results from the tests used for this research. In studying my results, I discuss if recasts (implicit feedback) or metalinguistic feedback (explicit feedback) contribute to gains in grammar accuracy using past tense *-ed* with middle school ELLs. I will begin by presenting the results. First, I will show the number of instances of corrective feedback during the instructional procedures. Then I will discuss the results of the immediate oral imitation test. Finally, the results of the delayed metalinguistic test will be presented, along with a follow-up discussion and literature revisited in light of my study.

Teaching Intervention: Corrective Feedback Rates

The recorded error correction episodes were transcribed verbatim onto a word document by the researcher in order to listen repeatedly to the recordings. Detailed transcriptions of every word said during the data collection process took place during this time period. A second rater was added to verify the data for interrater reliability. Each error correction episode was separated into explicit or implicit error correction. (Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2008).

A correction episode consisted of an error made by the learner followed by a correction from the researcher. It ended when the student returned to telling the story. There should be mention of two factors considered in identification of the episodes. First, error correction episodes included only researcher-corrected errors. They did not include self-corrections. Each episode included only one error. However, self-corrections were also recorded as indications of a changing interlanguage system.

The data is composed of a total of 73 instances of corrective feedback. These instances took place during *all* of the instructional procedures, including the pretest in part II. Between the instructional procedures parts I and II, there were 231 possible instances where students could have received feedback. This indicates that students received immediate corrective feedback from the instructor 32 percent of the time. Of the total amount of corrective feedback given, 32 instances (44%) were recasts, and 41 (56%) were metalinguistic. Table 4.1 shows that throughout the instructional procedures, including the pretest, there were a total of 21 instances of possible error; in each instance, students could need corrective feedback. It also shows how many times each student

Table 4.1

*Total number of instances of
corrective feedback*

Groups	Total number of instances of possible corrective feedback for past tense <i>-ed</i>	Number of errors
Group 1: Recasts		
Student 1	21	6
Student 2	21	3
Student 3	21	8
Student 4	21	6
Student 5	21	7
Student 6	21	2
Total	126	32
Group 2: Metalinguistic Feedback		
Student 1	21	10
Student 2	21	4
Student 3	21	12
Student 4	21	5
Student 5	21	10
Total	105	41

Table 4.2

Total average percentage of instances of corrective feedback

Groups	Percentage of past tense <i>-ed</i> errors possible	Percentage of actual number of errors
Group 1: Recasts		
Student 1	100	29
Student 2	100	14
Student 3	100	38
Student 4	100	29
Student 5	100	14
Student 6	100	11
Total Average	100	22.5
Group 2: Metalinguistic Feedback		
Student 1	100	48
Student 2	100	19
Student 3	100	57
Student 4	100	24
Student 5	100	48
Total	100	39.2

required corrective feedback out of the possible 21 instances. The metalinguistic group made more errors in past tense *-ed* on both instructional procedures parts I and II. That shows the number of times feedback was given to both groups was equivalent. Tables

4.1 and 4.2 are for the instructional procedures, not for the pretest. Therefore, more instances of corrective feedback were used with the metalinguistic feedback. Although metalinguistic feedback was used slightly more than recasts, results were based on a percentage increase, so this difference does not factor in this study's final results. Also, percentages are relative to the total number of instances of past tense *-ed*, i.e., total number of possible sources of errors.

Scoring

Immediate Posttest: Oral Imitation Test

As mentioned in the methods chapter, only the pretest in instructional procedures part II (Step 4) was used for scoring data. Learners scored one point for each correct usage of past tense *-ed* in each separate picture. Since there were nine pictures of Peter with separate events, students could receive a total of nine points. On this particular test, nine indicated a perfect score. Participants received no score if the target structure was avoided, or if the target structure was attempted but incorrectly imitated. Scores were then calculated into a percentage based on the number correct out of nine points possible. However, learner improvement, if any, was calculated based on the number incorrect, since this study focused on error correction. Improvement was apparent when a student made fewer mistakes with past tense-*ed* on the immediate posttest, than on the pretest.

Delayed Posttest: Metalinguistic Knowledge Test

Learners scored one point for correcting the mistake and one point for an accurate explanation of the error. Learners only received scores for the four past tense *-ed* grammar points. Total scores for the metalinguistic knowledge test were based on the total possible points and calculated into a final percentage (Ellis, 2006). Students could

receive a maximum of four points for correcting the mistake and a maximum of four points for an accurate explanation of the error. Therefore, students could receive a maximum total of eight points. Percentages were then calculated from how many answers were correct out of eight possible points.

Results: Instructional Procedure and Oral Imitation Test

Overall Trends

Substantial differences occurred between the groups from the instructional procedures (pretest) to the oral imitation (immediate posttest) scores (refer to Tables 4.1 and 4.2). The descriptive statistics for regular past tense *-ed* on a comparison of instructional procedures and the imitation test demonstrate a range in overall improvement regardless of the type of feedback. 32 total errors followed by corrective feedback occurred during the instructional procedures. The number of total errors dropped to 14 on the oral imitation test (immediate posttest). The results of the study disclose that there were 18 fewer errors on the immediate posttest, thus signifying overall improvement between the two groups.

However, the descriptive statistics in Table 4.3 suggest that the corrective feedback resulted in differences among the two groups on the oral imitation test (immediate posttest) for past tense *-ed*. These differences were evident on the immediate posttest. Although both groups improved from the pretest to the posttest, the group receiving explicit feedback showed greater gains than the group receiving implicit feedback. Those results will now be presented.

Table 4.3.

Imitation Test Results
(posttest) Raw Numbers

Groups	Instructional Procedures--Number of Errors	Imitation Test-- Number of Errors	Improvement
Group 1: Recast			
Student 1	5	2	3
Student 2	2	1	1
Student 3	3	4	-1
Student 4	2	0	2
Student 5	2	0	2
Student 6	1	3	-2
Total	15	10	5
Average	2.5	1.6	0.9
Group 2: Metalinguistic			
Student 1	4	1	3
Student 2	6	1	5
Student 3	2	0	2
Student 4	2	1	1
Student 5	3	1	2
Total	17	4	13
Average	3.4	0.8	2.6

Table 4.4.

*Imitation Test Results
(posttest) Percentages*

Groups	Instructional Procedures Percentage Incorrect	Imitation Test Percentage Incorrect	Improvement
Group 1: Recast			
Student 1	66%	33%	33%
Student 2	33%	22%	11%
Student 3	55%	66%	-11%
Student 4	23%	0%	23%
Student 5	23%	0%	23%
Student 6	12%	33%	-20%
Total	35.3%	25.6%	9.7%
Group 2: Metalinguistic			
Student 1	45%	12%	33%
Student 2	66%	12%	44%
Student 3	23%	0%	23%
Student 4	23%	12%	11%
Student 5	34%	12%	22%
Total	38.2%	9.6%	28.6%

Recasts

As demonstrated in tables 4.3 and 4.4, the results show that the recast group had 15 total errors out of a possible 42 (35%) during the instructional procedure. On the immediate oral imitation test, the group required ten total errors, signifying some improvement. The group receiving recasts averaged 2.5 errors on the pretest to 1.6 errors

on the posttest. The highest score was nine correct, indicating zero errors. Two students scored a perfect nine out of nine. Two members in the recast group (students 3 and 6) had more errors on the posttest than on the pretest. That is significant because every member of the group receiving metalinguistic feedback improved. The group's average number of errors went from 35.3 percent down to 25.6 percent. This proved that the group, as a whole, made improvement. When calculated into a percentage, the group demonstrated a range of 66 percent incorrect to improving as much as zero percent incorrect. The group's average improvement of 35.3 percent to 25.6 percent was a total of 9.7 percentage points.

Metalinguistic Feedback

The results also showed that the group receiving metalinguistic feedback had a total score of 17 errors out of a possible 45 on the pretest. On the immediate posttest, the group had only four errors out of a possible 45, signifying greater improvement than the group receiving recasts. The highest score was a perfect nine, (zero errors) scored by one student. The group receiving metalinguistic feedback averaged 3.4 errors on the pretest to .8 on the posttest. The improvement numbers show metalinguistic feedback had much greater gains. Unlike the recast group, every student in the group improved their scores. As shown in Table 4.4, the range of improvement went from 11 percent to as high as 42 percent. The average improvement total of the metalinguistic group was 38.2 percent errors to 9.6 percent errors. This marked an improvement of 28.6 percentage points. The recast group improved only 9.7 percentage points. That means the metalinguistic group improved 18.9 percentage points more than the group receiving recasts for immediate feedback.

Delayed Posttest: Metalinguistic Knowledge Test

As previously stated in the methods chapter, participants were presented with ten sentences and were told the sentences are grammatically incorrect. Only four of the errors contained past tense *-ed*. In every sentence, the section containing the error was underlined. Learners were asked to correct the error and explain what was incorrect about the sentence in their own words in English. Learners scored one point for correcting the mistake and one point for an accurate explanation of the error. Total scores for the metalinguistic knowledge test are based off the final percentage of the number correct out of eight possible points (Ellis, 2006) and the results are presented in Table 4.5.

Recasts

On correcting the errors, the results of the metalinguistic knowledge delayed posttest indicate that group one, receiving recasts as implicit corrective feedback, scored a combined 23. This averaged 3.83 per student. Only one student did not receive a perfect score of four, lowering the average. On the explanations, they scored a 21, with an average score of 3.5. The total scores for the delayed posttest illustrated a combined score of 44, with an average score of 7.3 for a final total. Based on a percentage from a total of eight points, the group scored 91.6%.

Metalinguistic Feedback

The results also demonstrate that group two, receiving metalinguistic feedback as explicit corrective feedback, scored a combined 20 on the correcting with an average four per student, a perfect score. Likewise, all students received a perfect score in giving

Table 4.5

Metalinguistic Knowledge Test Results

Groups	Past tense -ed Correcting the error	Explanation	Total correct (8 points possible)	Percentage
Recast				
Student 1	4	4	8	100%
Student 2	3	3	6	75%
Student 3	4	4	8	100%
Student 4	4	4	8	100%
Student 5	4	2	6	75%
Student 6	4	4	8	100%
Group total	23	21	44	91.6%
Metalinguistic				
Student 1	4	4	8	100%
Student 2	4	4	8	100%
Student 3	4	4	8	100%
Student 4	4	4	8	100%
Student 5	4	4	8	100%
Group Total	20	20	40	100%

explanations. So, every student in this group received perfect scores in both correcting the error and giving the explanation. With an average of four points per student, this

resulted in perfect scores. The total scores for the delayed posttest illustrated a combined score of 40, with an average score of eight for a final total. Based on a percentage from a total of eight points, the group scored a perfect 100 percent correct, up 8.4 percent from the group receiving recasts. Final test scores indicate that with past tense correcting, both groups one and two had high percentage scores. However, the group receiving metalinguistic feedback scored slightly higher in both the correcting and explanation sections.

The outcome from the delayed metalinguistic test indicates that both the implicit (recasts) and explicit (metalinguistic feedback) groups had high accuracy scores on the delayed posttests, scoring 91.6 percent and 100 percent respectively. However, the metalinguistic feedback group was slightly more accurate than the recast group. A difference of eight percent occurred between the two groups that were shown on the results of the metalinguistic knowledge test with the metalinguistic feedback group slightly outperforming the recasts group.

Final Results

The results of both the oral imitation test and the delayed metalinguistic knowledge test suggest that corrective feedback had a positive effect on the learning of implicit knowledge. The feedback appears to have had a larger effect on the learners receiving explicit feedback than on the learners receiving implicit feedback. Also, the effects of the experimental treatments on the metalinguistic knowledge scores were more evident one week after the instruction than the oral imitation test scores one day after. This provides more evidence that the corrective feedback induced changes in learners'

Table 4.6

Facilitative potential of implicit and explicit feedback

General Action	Specific Step	Implicit feedback (recasts)	Explicit feedback (metalinguistic information)
Detecting the Error	The learner's attention must switch from meaning to form; this can only occur if the corrective attention is recognized, which happens only if the feedback is perceived and irrelevant to the ongoing discourse.	Partial recasts are more likely to induce a switch in attention from meaning to form than full recasts; however, the corrective force of partial recasts is not self evident, as repetitions serve other functions in discourse.	Metalinguistic information is clearly irrelevant to the ongoing discourse, which makes a switch from meaning to form likely and the corrective intention of the feedback is clear.
Correcting the Error	The learner must be able to locate the error.	Recasts make the location of the error clear.	Repeating the error and then giving a metalinguistic clue makes the location of the error clear.
	The learner must be able to distinguish the phonological dissimilarity between his or her erroneous form and the target form in the feedback.	Recasts make it possible for the learner to compare two phonological forms (the erroneous form and the target form), but the learner has to attend the difference.	The process of comparing the erroneous and target phonological form is enhanced because the teacher repeated the incorrect form before supplying metalinguistic information.
	The learner must be able to decide whether pronunciation,	Recasts provide no clues as to the nature of the error; that is, the learner is	The nature of the error is made clear. A connection is

morphology, syntax, or semantics is causing the problem. The learner can make use of explicit knowledge to decide.	left to infer whether the error is of pronunciation or morphology.	made between in the implicit use of a specific form (the error) and an explicit representation of the target form required.
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Adapted from Ellis, 2006

implicit knowledge. Mackey (1999) explained that the effects of instruction became more noticeable in delayed tests with language use likely to measure implicit knowledge. The superior accuracy displayed in the oral imitation posttest shows learners' potential successful incorporation of the target structure into their interlanguage systems. The first research question tried to discern if a difference existed in the effects of explicit correction, specifically metalinguistic feedback, and implicit correction, specifically recasts, during language learning. Research question two examined whether recasts or metalinguistic feedback are associated with higher accuracy scores on tests and how much accuracy can be retained on a delayed test. Overall, explicit correction was more effective than implicit. A number of reasons for this were suggested: 1) explicit feedback may have created more attention; 2) implicit feedback may not have been quite as effective because it was less obvious to learners what was incorrect regarding their utterances and 3) learners possibly saw that metalinguistic feedback, more so than recasts, required them to correct their errors. (Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2008).

Discussion

The main purpose of the study was to examine the comparative effects of implicit and explicit corrective feedback on the acquisitions of L2 grammar for middle school ESL learners. In this study, metalinguistic information was used for explicit feedback, and recasts were used for implicit corrective feedback. The results point to a slight

advantage for metalinguistic feedback. The advantage found for the metalinguistic groups was evident in both tests.

It is possible to explain this slight advantage of explicit feedback over implicit feedback. It is possible that explicit feedback is more likely to be seen as corrective than implicit feedback. In both implicit and explicit feedback, the teacher's correction overlaps with the learner's preceding move. However, metalinguistic feedback needs around six words as opposed to one word needed with recasts. This possibly makes metalinguistic feedback more apparent as overtly corrective, perhaps making it more likely that the learner will successfully repair the error following the feedback move. According to Ellis (2006), there appears to be evidence of greater awareness that repair is wanted in the metalinguistic episode. Thus, metalinguistic feedback seems more likely to lead to greater recognition between what the learner actually said and the target norm. The high level of awareness it generates in a communicative context might help with the usefulness of metalinguistic feedback. As shown by the results of the Oral Imitation Pretest, the learners in this study illustrated only partial implicit knowledge of past-tense *-ed* initially. Also, it is possible that for corrective feedback of some kind to have an effect on learning, the structures must be at least somewhat established in the learners' interlanguages.

Another possible reason for a slightly better performance in the explicit group may have been that the learners received more awareness of the corrected feature, simple past tense *-ed* itself, not just the correction process. Both implicit and explicit correction included the specification of the correct forms, but only explicit correction used metalinguistic feedback. Possibly, it made learners more able to reform their

interlanguage. Perhaps explicit error correction allows for better understanding than implicit error correction. Implicit correction may not have triggered the noticing of specific errors to the same degree as the explicit correction did. This could possibly form a situation where the learners could compare the target forms with their existing interlanguage forms, in the hopes of integrating them into their interlanguage systems (Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2008).

The final possible reason for slightly better performances from the explicit group may stem from the nature of explicit feedback, which may also cause better performance in error corrections. Due to the nature of the feedback, learners may view explicit corrections as corrective feedback that requires them to actually correct the errors. Contrarily, implicit correction could be perceived as the researcher simply affirming an error occurred. Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen (2008) believe implicit corrections may be more meaning-based than explicit corrections. The learners may not interpret the implicit feedback as providing error correction. Instead, they might perceive it as the researcher continuing the flow of communication. They say explicit correction may possibly better help with target grammar features because the information in the feedback helps the learners confirm rules in their developing L2 grammars. Implicit correction may not be as effective as explicit correction because it may not provide the learners with enough information. This could imply that implicit correction may be less effective in allowing learners to understand what is wrong with their incorrect utterance.

Literature Revisited

The results of my study compare the following studies that demonstrated explicit corrective feedback has been tested in multiple ways and has outperformed recasts in several studies summarized in chapter two. First, a 1993 L2 Japanese study lead by

Nagata tested 32 second-year university learners who were learning Japanese passive structures; verbal predicates and particles. Group (A) received what was missing or not expected and (B) received the same feedback plus metalinguistic explanations. Group B tested better than group A on the particles, but not on the verbal predicates.

Also in 1993, Carroll and Swain conducted a study with 100 Spanish and adult ESL learners at the low intermediate level. The target structure was dative verbs. The design had five groups with group (A) receiving direct metalinguistic feedback, outperforming all other groups. Finally, two studies were conducted in 2004, one by Lyster and one by Rosa and Leow; each used corrective feedback with participants and divided them into three groups. Explicit feedback outperformed recasts and the control group.

It is important to explain that my study shows recasts still show positive gains. These results are similar to previous studies regarding student improvement from recasts. In the year 2000, Maranoi used indefinite articles with 114 first-year Japanese college students with one group receiving requests for repetition, recasts in communicative tasks, and explicit grammar explanation. The group receiving recasts (group A) outperformed group B on posttest one, but not on posttest two. Also, Leeman (2003) conducted a study with 74 first-year university learners of Spanish using Spanish noun-adjective agreement. The recast group (A) outperformed the control group on any measure.

Also, the results of this study are similar to the following recast studies that show implicit feedback is effective in terms of L2 acquisition. (Ellis, 2006). Of the previous studies, Leeman (2003) found recasts to be the more effective type of corrective feedback. Although the majority proved corrective feedback to be an effective form of

interaction (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Nagata, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Carroll 2001; Havranek & Cesnik, 2003; Lyster, 2004; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006), studies still show that little significance can occur between the data of implicit and explicit feedback (DeKeyser, 1993; Kim & Mathes, 2001). Similar to many of the aforementioned studies (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Leeman, 2003; Lyster, 2004; Rosa & Leow, 2004), the experimental group outperformed the control group.

Conclusion

The three data collecting tools that I used for my research gave me an abundance of beneficial information to further my understanding of immediate corrective feedback. For the instruction and pretest, I used a narrative comparable to reading materials that are part of our classroom curriculum. This made the data more legitimate as far as actual classroom research. The participants had prior knowledge for completing both task one and task two. The Oral Imitation Test (immediate posttest) proved English (L2) learners receiving metalinguistic feedback had higher scores. Finally, results for the Metalinguistic Knowledge Test, required students to 1) correct the error and 2) explain what was incorrect about the sentence in their own words in English. The metalinguistic feedback group was more accurate than the recast group and minor differences between the two groups were shown on the results of the metalinguistic knowledge test. With this knowledge, I have a better understating of my role as a teacher of English learners and as an advocate for the benefits of corrective feedback during FFI. In the concluding chapter of this capstone, I will discuss how I will use the data that I have collected and analyzed to pursue the research further.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

Chapter Five will contain the conclusions of what I have learned from collecting data on implicit and explicit corrective feedback. This is an important issue since so many ESL students receive corrective feedback from their teachers every day. In this research project, I attempted to answer the questions: (1) Which type of corrective feedback is more effective for gains in L2 grammar accuracy, specifically past tense *-ed*, for middle school ELLs? and (2) Are recasts or metalinguistic feedback associated with higher accuracy scores on posttests and is that accuracy retained on a delayed posttest? This chapter presents the conclusions this study.

This capstone investigated the role of implicit and explicit corrective feedback and grammar acquisition in the middle school English language learners' classroom. I conducted classroom research over a period of two weeks (4 class periods) in my novice and beginning ELL classes with a total of 11 students. I collected data from guided instruction, a pretest, an immediate oral posttest, and a delayed metalinguistic knowledge test in order to answer my primary and secondary research questions. My main goal of this research project was to determine whether using implicit or explicit feedback in my classroom was worthwhile with ELLs.

In Chapter Four, I presented the results from the sources of data. I discussed the results, along with the findings of my research questions. In this chapter, I reflect on the

major findings of my study and connect them to the information presented in the literature review. I also discuss their implications for schools, their limitations, and suggestions for further research.

Major Learnings and Literature Review Revisited

Previous studies share similarities with the results of this study. Corrective feedback proved to be an effective form of interaction since both the recast (implicit) and metalinguistic (explicit) feedback groups showed better results on the immediate oral posttest than the pretest. Students displayed lasting knowledge with good results on the delayed metalinguistic knowledge test. Also, like many similar studies conducted prior to this study, the group receiving explicit feedback slightly outperformed the group receiving implicit feedback.

The results of my study compare with three previously mentioned studies resulting in explicit corrective feedback outperforming recasts in several studies summarized in Chapter Two (Nagata, 1993; Carroll and Swain, 1993; Lyster, 2004; Rosa and Leow, 2004). In all of the studies, explicit feedback outperformed recasts and/or the control group. It was also mentioned that students in the recast group also showed positive gains. I discussed Maranoi (2000) and Leeman (2003), which found that groups receiving recasts as feedback outperformed the control group on both posttests.

Finally, this study echoed the results of the following recast studies that show implicit feedback is effective in terms of L2 acquisition, especially when the feedback is given explicitly in nature (Ellis, 2006). Of the previous studies, Leeman (2003) found recasts to be the more effective type of corrective feedback. Although the majority proved corrective feedback to be an effective form of interaction (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Nagata, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Carroll, 2001; Havranek & Cesnik, 2003; Lyster, 2004;

Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006), studies still show that little significance can occur between the data of implicit and explicit feedback (DeKeyser, 1993; Kim & Mathes, 2001). Similarly to many of the aforementioned studies (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Muranoi, 2000; Leeman, 2003; Lyster, 2004; Rosa & Leow, 2004), the experimental group outperformed the control group.

Possible Implications

The implications of this study affect ESL learners and teachers as the primary stakeholders, as well as universities and colleges preparing ESL teachers for instruction and maintaining ongoing research on best practices. As stated before, the descriptive statistics in Table 4.2 suggest that the corrective feedback resulted in minor differences among the groups on the oral imitation test for past tense *-ed*. These differences were evident on the immediate posttest. Based on scores from the pretest to the immediate posttest, the immediate oral imitation test showed overall gains in corrective feedback.

Studies that compare explicit and implicit corrective feedback usually use other forms of feedback. Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) say that metalinguistic explanation and recasts make up the best exemplars of explicit and implicit corrective feedback, as both are supported by previous research that shows them to be effective in promoting learning. They also argue that from a pedagogical perspective, it is important to look at corrective feedback within the classroom context through classroom-based research.

Since metalinguistic feedback outperformed implicit, albeit by a relatively small margin, it may be beneficial for a teacher to use explicit error correction when possible. Explicit correction, when used to measure grammar, may create more attention because learners are overtly corrected on their errors. Although learners' scores from implicit

correction group were high, it may not have been quite as effective because it was less obvious to learners what was incorrect regarding their mistakes. English language learners may possibly see the metalinguistic corrections as more of an extensive form of corrective feedback required to correct their errors, as apposed to other forms of feedback like recasts. (Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2008).

When target structures are used incorrectly, it is often believed that feedback should be given. Without any type of feedback, how would learners know whether they were processing target structures incorrectly? It is also important that learners change their approach to the processing of target structures (Takimoto, 2006). Both the implicit and explicit groups showed improvement from the pretest to the immediate posttest, with greater gains in the explicit groups. Therefore, we cannot deny the beneficial effects of using explicit feedback in the classroom for L2 grammar acquisition.

This study proved that both methods are effective with L2 grammar acquisition with a slight advantage for explicit feedback, in the form of metalinguistic feedback. This may help in the ESL classroom because students will have a greater depth of awareness of the space between what they say and the actual target grammatical form. This, in turn helps with grammar acquisition. Since explicit feedback seems to not interfere with the flow of communication and may allow the student to concentrate on the form. The student must generate a high level of awareness of the target (Ellis, 2006). After obtaining the results of this study and comparing the results to similar studies, it appears that using recasts is an effective form of feedback for focus-on-form instruction, but metalinguistic feedback may be slightly more effective.

Limitations

The main limitation of this study was that there was no control group. Without a control group, I cannot *fully* claim that the implicit and explicit corrective feedback produced acquisition. I can only make claims that one type worked better than another in terms of the tests and that an overall improvement was made from the pretest to the posttest. Also, this research project included only two levels of correction: explicit and implicit. There can be a flexible range of focus-on-form possibilities to include many different levels of implicitness and explicitness common in real classroom situations.

Other limitations occurred in this study. First, the sample size for this study was fairly small. Only 11 students took part in the study because that was the number of students in the beginner class. Second, because the main objective was to evaluate the relative success of the two types of corrective feedback, the study did not have a control group that completed the communicative tasks without any corrective feedback. Third, the length of the treatments was short (approximately six hours). Potentially longer treatment would prove effective. Fourth, learners had already begun to acquire past tense *-ed* prior to the days of data collection. This may be helpful in that it enables the researcher to examine which type of corrective feedback works best for structures already partially acquired. However, it can also be a weakness because the researcher is unable to unequivocally state whether corrective feedback is successful in establishing new knowledge (Ellis, 2006).

Recommendations for Further Studies

As shown by the results of the Oral Imitation Pretest, the learners in this study illustrated partial implicit knowledge of past-tense *-ed*. According to Ellis (2006), it is possible that for corrective feedback of some kind to have an effect on learning, the

structures must be at least somewhat established in the learners' interlanguages. Further research is needed to establish whether corrective feedback is effective in enabling learners to acquire new structures in grammar.

Stemming from the limitations of this study, adding a control group, along with the two groups receiving recasts and metalinguistic feedback, could be done for further research. This would help fully determine if both types of feedback produce L2 grammar acquisition. As always with this type of study regarding corrective feedback, further research could be done with more of the various types of corrective feedback. It is possible that one of the groups would have benefited even more and scored even higher on the posttests if they received a different type of corrective feedback altogether. Further research could be done with a higher number of subjects. With a quantitative research study such as this, perhaps the numbers become more valid with more data to analyze. Another possibility for further research might be to study more specifically to what extent passive accuracy can be measured on a delayed test.

Plans for Using Results and Conclusion

I want my students to continue receiving immediate oral feedback from not only me, but from every teacher they encounter throughout their academic journeys. I hope that through immediate feedback and focus-on-form instruction, L2 grammar acquisition can become easier. Considering how many components of English they must learn in order to succeed in our schools, any method we find to improve our teaching will benefit the students greatly.

I have come to realize how important corrective feedback is for me as a teacher and a researcher. I will constantly be verifying its worth in my ESL classrooms. There is much to explore in implicit and explicit feedback. I look forward to continuing my efforts

toward discovering the most effective ways to use corrective feedback and focus-on-form instruction in ESL classrooms everywhere. I have learned a great deal about corrective feedback through this study. I plan to integrate this knowledge into my teaching throughout my career. I plan to expand my knowledge of these strategies and to continue to learn how to use them to improve instruction. I plan to share what I have learned with my ESL colleagues and district teachers. As we continue to enumerate best practices for facilitating language acquisition, we can share what we learn to ensure that all students succeed.

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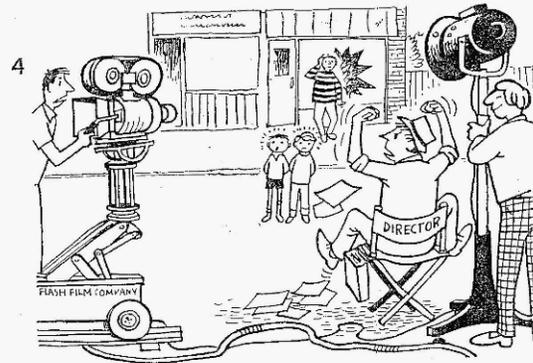
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APPENDIX A
DATA COLLECTION PICTURE STORY 1
CATCHING A THIEF

Catching a thief



visit live walk turn kill want follow

attack laugh point stay watch

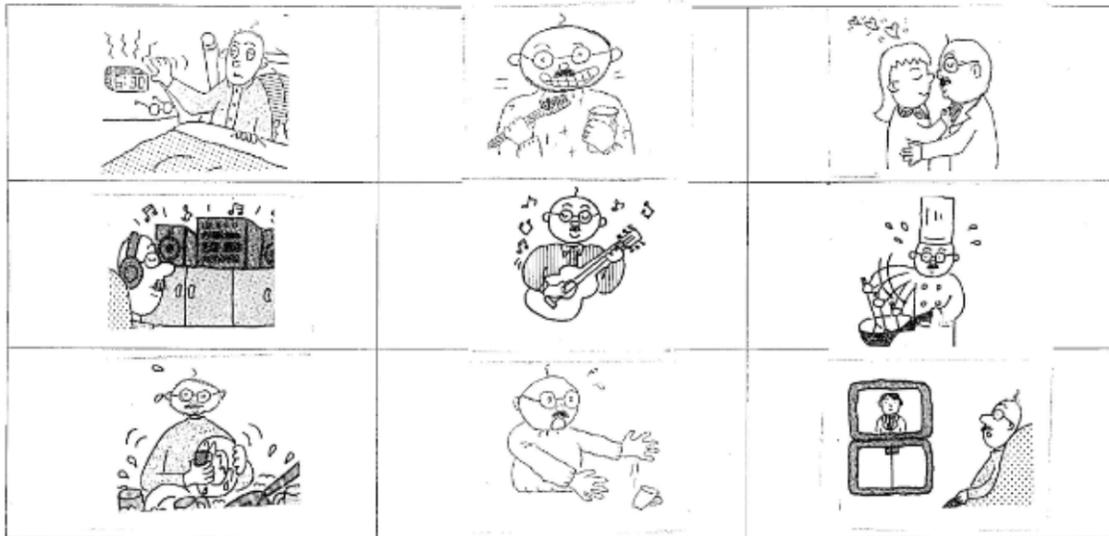
Picture Text

Yesterday, two boys visited a store. They really wanted to get some candy to bring back to their houses. These boys lived in the town where the store was located so they went to the store all the time. When the boys arrived to the store, they noticed that something wasn't quite right. They walked to the front of the store and saw a burglar breaking open a window. The boys did not seem to worry that the burglar could have killed them. The boys wanted to save their favorite candy store. The boys decided to run after the burglar. Two men and a woman followed the boys chasing the burglar. The boys attacked the

burglar. They jumped on his back trying to tackle him down. The two men and woman watching just stood there. They pointed and laughed while the boys attacked the burglar. The director watched the actors try to finish the scene. He yelled at them after he saw all the people laughing.

APPENDIX B
DATA COLLECTION PICTURE STORY 2
PRETEST AND IMMEDIATE ORAL IMITATION TEST
PETER'S DAY OFF

Yesterday Peter had a day off. What did he do?



- Picture 1: Open
- Picture 2: Brush
- Picture 3: Kiss
- Picture 4: Listen
- Picture 5: Play
- Picture 6: Cook
- Picture 7: Wash
- Picture 8: Drop
- Picture 9: Watch

APPENDIX C
METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE TEST

Metalinguistic Knowledge Test

In every sentence, the section containing the error will be underlined. Learners are then asked to 1) correct the error and 2) explain what was incorrect about the sentence in their own words in English. Learners score one point for correcting the mistake and one point for an accurate explanation of the error.

1. Five students listens to the teacher.
2. Yesterday the woman wash the dishes.
3. Last week, the boys visit the candy store.
4. The woman is wear a dress.
5. We went to the store on sunday.
6. The soccer team are good.
7. Jose is tall than Jack.
8. We watch TV last night for two hours.
9. Me and Jill like to go to the movies.
10. Yesterday, we cook a nice dinner.

APPENDIX D
TRANSCRIPTIONS

Transcriptions

Highlighted Word: Disagreement with second Reader

Highlighted Word: Self Correction

Student 1

Retell Picture 1

Yesterday, two boys go into the store and they saw the thief want to steal candy and uuh the candy store and the boys don't want lost their candy. How about beginner?

Student: Yesterday two boys visit the candy store.

Teacher: You need to use past tense.

Student: Ok, two boys visited the story.

Student: They live near the story.

Teacher: Past tense.

Student: Lived near the store.

Student: Everyday they walk.

Teacher: Walk. You need to use past tense on walk.

Student: Walked to store.

Student: I don't know how to use turn.

Teacher: Past tense. Past tense for turn.

Student: Turned.

Teacher: Turned, very good.

Student: I don't know how to use turn.

Student: They saw the thief steal candy in candy store. They are scared the thief can killed them. They want to...

Teacher: Want, past tense.

Student: Wanted.

Teacher: Good.

Student: They wanted sell their candy.

Student: They followed and attacked the thief. The two men and two women laughed and pointed. Then director watch.

Teacher: watch, past tense

Student: Watched

Teacher: Good. All done? Good.

Student retell 2

Student: In the morning , Peter open...

Teacher: Open, past tense.

Student: Opened his eyes.

Student: And he brush his teeth.

Teacher: Did you say past tense?

Student: No, he brushed his teeth.

Student: And he kissed his wife. And he listen radio. And he play his guitar. And he cook.

Teacher: Past tense cook.

Student: Cooked. I said cooked. And he washed... uh... dishes.

Student: And he drop...

Teacher: Drop, past tense.

Student: Dropped his cup.

Student: And in the night, he watch his TV

Teacher: Yep watch, gotta use past tense.

Student: Watched.

Teacher: Say again.

Student: Watched.

Oral Imitation Test

One billion years ago, Peter have a day off. He open his eyes and he brushed his teeth, and kissed his wife, and he listened radio. And he played guitar. And in the afternoon, he **cooked** his food and he washed dishes. And he dropped his cup. Into night, he watched TV.

Student 2

Retell Picture 1

Student: Yesterday, the guys visited the candy store. They saw a burglar and then they want... they wanted to attack the burglar. They people were laughing...

Teacher: Okay, Okay, laughed.

Student: Oh. The people laughed and pointed them. Um, and then the... I don't know.

Student Retell 2

Student: Yesterday, Peter opened his eyes. Then he brushed his teeth. And then he kiss a girl.

Teacher: Ok, kissed.

Student: Kissed a girl.

Student: He listened to the music. He played the guitar. He cook...

Teacher: Cooked.

Student: Cooked

Student: He wash the dishes.

Teacher: Washed.

Student: He washed the dishes.

Student: Um, he drop the coffee.

Teacher: Dropped.

Student: Dropped the coffee.

Student: He watch TV.

Teacher: Watched.

Student: Watched TV.

Oral Imitation Test

Yesterday Peter had a day off. He open his eyes. He brushed his teeth. He kissed a girl. He **listen** to the music. He played the guitar. He cooked. He washed the dishes. He dropped the coffee and he watched the TV.

Student 3

Retell Picture 1

Student: Yesterday two boys visited the store. They saw a man at the store steal something. They went after him. They get scared that he's going to kill them. They tackled him.

Teacher: Good, tackled. Tackled.

Student: Tackled. And the man laughed and yelled at him.

Student retell 2

Student: He's brushing his teeth.

Teacher: Okay, brushed.

Student: Brushed his teeth. He kissed his wife. He listened to music.

Student: He plays...

Teacher: Okay, played.

Student: He played the guitar. He cooked the food. He washed dishes. He dropped the cup. He watched TV.

Oral Imitation Test

Yesterday Peter opened his eyes. He brushed his teeth. He kissed his wife. He listened to music. He played guitar. He cooked food. He washed dishes. He dropped a cup. He watch movies.

Student 4

Retell Picture 1

Student: The two boys visit the burglar.

Teacher: Visited

Student: Visited. They walked with the burglar. They killed the burglar. They follow the burglar. They acted the burglar. They laughed to the burglar. They point to the woman and man. Stayed and watched...

Student retell 2

Student: Yesterday he open his eyes.
 Teacher: Good. Okay, opened. Good opened.
 Student: Opened.

Student: Yesterday he brush his teeth.
 Teacher: Brushed
 Student: Brushed. Yesterday he kissed his wife. Yesterday he listened. Yesterday he played. Yesterday he cooked.

Student: Yesterday he watch.
 Teacher: Okay, watched.
 Student: Watched. Yesterday he dropped. Yesterday he watched.

Oral Imitation Test

Yesterday he opened his eyes. Yesterday he brush his teeth. Yesterday he kissed his wife. Yesterday he listened to a music. Yesterday he play a guitar. Yesterday he cooked a food. Yesterday he washed dishes. Yesterday he pick up the cup. Yesterday he watch TV.

Student 5

Retell Picture 1

Student: When they walk to the candy store...
 Teacher: Okay, you need to use past tense.
 Student: Walked to the candy store.

Student: When they turn around...
 Teacher: Turn, past tense.
 Student: Turned around, they laughed at the man.

Student: Who tried to kill, kill...
 Teacher: Good, kill, past tense.
 Student: Killed the person in the store.

Student: The boy follow and watch them.
 Teacher: Watch, past tense.
 Student: Watched and laughed.

Student: He point...
 Teacher: Point, past tense.
 Student: Point and stay to attack.

Student: When he was turn...
 Teacher: Turn, did you say turn past tense?
 Student: Yeah, turned.

Student: He live at the downtown.

Teacher: Live, past tense.

Student: Lived.

Student retell 2

Student: Peter opened his eyes. He tried to close the alarm clock. He brush his teeth.

Teacher: Good, brush past tense.

Student: He brushed his teeth to be clean. He kissed his wife goodbye.

Student: He listen to his favorite music.

Teacher: Yep, listen past tense.

Student: Listened. He played his favorite song.

Student: He cook.

Teacher: Cook, past tense.

Student: Cooked his food for his family.

Student: He was washing...

Teacher: Wash, past tense.

Student: Washed.

Student: He drop...

Teacher: Drop, past tense.

Student: Dropped his cup on the floor.

Student: He was watching...

Teacher: Watching, past tense.

Student: Watching his favorite show.

Oral Imitation Test

Yesterday, Peter opened his eyes to close the alarm clock. Yesterday, Peter brushed his

teeth. Yesterday Peter kissed his wife. Yesterday Peter listened to his favorite music.

Yesterday Peter played the song. Yesterday Peter cooked. Yesterday Peter wash the

plate. Yesterday Peter dropped the cup. Yesterday Peter watched the TV.

Student 6

Retell Picture 1

Yesterday boys visited to his favorite store. When boys walked to the store, they watch the store but oh wait.. but there were burglar... was...

Yesterday boys visited to his favorite store. They walked into store.

Student: Yesterday boys walked to visit to favorite store. When the boys walked to the store, they watch the store. But there were a burglar. Oh wait. Burglar was...

Teacher: Yep, visited.

Student: Visited his favorite store.

Student: This was their favorite store because they lived right by it. Suddenly they saw a burglar was breaking the store. And uh the burglar might kill the owner.

Teacher: The burglar killed.

Student: Oh, the burglar killed the owner.

Student: The burglar just... like... walk away.

Teacher: Walked.

Student: Walked away from the store and boys saw that. The boys followed the burglar. Burglar ran but boys attacked the burglar very hard and the burglar got knocked out.

And... uh... the mans and womans saw them. They point at them.

Teacher: Pointed.

Student: Pointed at them and laughed hard. The director watched them and director got mad so he said, "Stay!" to the boys.

Student retell 2

Student: Yesterday Peter open his eyes.

Teacher: Opened.

Student: To turn off his clock.

Student: Peter brushed his teeth. Yesterday, Peter feel in love, kissed her... uh... her date. Yesterday, Peter listened to the music. Yesterday, Peter played his guitar.

Yesterday, Peter cooked his barbeque, but they got all burnt. Yesterday Peter washed his plates. Yesterday, Peter dropped his cup. Yesterday Peter watch the news.

Teacher: Watched

Student: Watched. I did say watched.

Teacher: You said watch. Watched.

Student: Watched.

Oral Imitation Test

Yesterday, Peter opened his eyes to turn off his clock. Yesterday, Peter brushed his teeth.

Yesterday, Peter married and kissed his wife. Yesterday, Peter listened to music.

Yesterday, Peter played his guitar. Yesterday, Peter cooked his barbeques. Yesterday Peter washed his cups and stuff. Yesterday, Peter dropped his new cup. Yesterday, Peter watched his television.

Student 7

Retell Picture 1

Student: Yesterday the boys visit...

Teacher: Okay, past tense.

Student: Boys visited the store.

Student: They lived in a town. They walked to the store. The robber almost killed them. They want to buy...

Teacher: Okay good. Want, past tense.

Student: Want to buy some candy. They followed the robber. They stayed at the candy store. They watched the robber go in the store. He pointed the robber breaking the window.

Student retell 2

Student: Peter opened his eyes to turn on the clock. Peter brushed his teeth, yesterday. Peter kissed a girl, yesterday. Peter listen to music.

Teacher: Okay, listen past tense.

Student: Listened to music yesterday.

Student: Peter played the guitar yesterday. Peter cooked food yesterday. Peter washed the dishes yesterday. Peter... what is this word?

Teacher: Drop, past tense

Student: Drop.

Teacher: Past tense.

Student: Dropped a cup yesterday. Peter watched a movie yesterday.

Oral Imitation Test

Peter opened his eyes yesterday. Peter brushed his teeth yesterday. Peter kissed a girl yesterday. Peter listened to music yesterday. Peter played the guitar yesterday. Peter cooked food yesterday. Peter washed the dishes yesterday. Peter dropped the plate yesterday. Peter watched a movie yesterday.

Student 8

Retell Picture 1

Student: Yesterday, the two boys visited a store. Then they saw a burglar break their favorite candy store. The boys just stood there first. Then they wanted to save their favorite candy store, so they chased after the burglar. Then they saw these two men and a woman standing there and watching them.

Teacher: Watching, past tense

Student: Watched them.

Student: The two boys tried to attack the burglar.

Teacher: Good. Attack, past tense

Student: Attacked the burglar.

Student: The director saw the two boys laughing.

Teacher: Laugh, past tense.

Student: The director laughed. The saw them laughing, so he told the boys to stop.

Student retell 2

Student: Yesterday Peter had a day off. What did he do? He open his eyes.

Teacher: Open, past tense.

Student: Opened his eyes.

Student: Then he brushed his teeth. Then he kissed a girl, or woman. Then he turned his music off. He played his music. Then he cooked some food.

Teacher: Did you say cook past tense?

Student: He cooked. Then he cooked. Then washed his hands. Then he dropped the cup. Then he watched the TV.

Oral Imitation Test

Yesterday Peter had a day off. What did he do? He open his eyes. He brushed his teeth. He kissed a girl. He listened to some music. He cooked food for himself. He washed his hands. He dropped the cup, then he watched the TV.

Student 9

Retell Picture 1

Student: Yesterday, two boys visited a candy store. They saw a burglar breaking into the window of a candy store. The kids live in a town...

Teacher: Good, lived.

Student: The kids lived in a town that is in Hollywood.

Student: They walked and then they turn.

Teacher: Turned.

Student: They turned and then they saw a burglar. They thought he was about to killed them. They wanted to save their candy store. They followed the burglar and chased him.

Student: They attacked him... attack him.

Teacher: Attack. Did you say attacked them?

Student: They attacked him. Then people started laughing. At that point, they were in a movie.

Student: They wanted to stay still, but everybody watch them.

Teacher: Good, watched.

Student: Watch... watch... watched them.

Picture Story II

Student: Yesterday Peter had a day off. What did he do? First, he open his eyes.

Teacher: Opened

Student: Opened his eyes in the morning. Then he brushed his teeth. And then, after that, he kissed his wife.

Student: And then he listen...

Teacher: Listened.

Student: I mean he listened to music. And he played guitar. And then he cooked lunch. Then, he played Frisbee. Then, he washed the dishes. While he was washing, he dropped a cup. Then he went in the living room and then watched TV.

Oral Imitation Test

Yesterday, Peter had a day off. What did he do? First he opened his eyes. Then, he brushed his teeth. Then, he kissed his wife. Then, he listened to music. Then, he played guitar. Then, he cooked lunch. Then, he washed the dishes. Then, he dropped a cup. Then, he watched TV.

Student 10

Retell Picture 1

Student: Yesterday, they visited a store to walk...

Teacher: Okay, walk, you need to use past tense.

Student: Walked.

Student: They saw a burglar and kill.

Teacher: Kill, good. Past tense.

Student: Killed.

Student: Then they follow...

Teacher: Follow, past tense.

Student: Followed.

Student: They attacked and some people laugh at them.

Teacher: Laugh, past tense.

Student: Laughed.

Student: They pointed and stay and watched.

Teacher: Stay, past tense.

Student: Stayed.

Retell Picture 2

Student: Yesterday, Peter open...

Teacher: Open, past tense.

Student: **Opened** his eyes.

Student: Yesterday Peter brush

Teacher: Brushed past tense

Student: Brushed his teeth

Student: Yesterday he kissed his girlfriend. Yesterday he listening...

Teacher: Listening, you need to use past tense.

Student: Listening. Yesterday, he played. Yesterday, he cooked. Yesterday, he washed. Yesterday, he dropped. Yesterday, he watched the TV.

Oral Imitation Test

Yesterday, Peter open his eyes. Yesterday Peter brushed his teeth. Yesterday Peter kissed his girlfriend. Yesterday Peter listened his radio. Yesterday, Peter played his guitar. Yesterday, Peter cooked spaghetti. Yesterday Peter watched TV. Yesterday, Peter dropped his cup. Yesterday, Peter watched TV.

Student 11**Retell Picture 1**

Student: Yesterday, two boys visited the candy store. They saw a burglar broke the window. They chased the burglar and then attack...

Teacher: Attacked.

Student: Attacked the burglar. The director saw and kept laughing. He pointed at them and said to stay where you are, but the people kept watching.

Retell Picture 2

Student: Yesterday, Peter opened his eyes to turn the alarm off. Yesterday Peter woked up, went to the bathroom, and brush his teeth.

Teacher: Brushed.

Student: Brushed his teeth. After that, he went on a date with his girlfriend and kissed his girlfriend. When he came home, he listened to the radio. After that, he played a guitar and cooked chicken. After he cooked, he washed the dishes and he dropped his coffee cup. After that, he watched the TV.

Oral Imitation Test

Yesterday opened his eyes to turn the alarm off. Then he went to the bathroom to brushed...to brush his teeth. When his girlfriend came home, he kissed her. Then, he went downstairs to listen to some music. After that, he was playing guitar. Then, he went to the kitchen and cooked some chicken. He washed his dishes. He dropped his coffee cake after he finished washing his dishes. Then, he watched TV for a little while.

APPENDIX E
CONSENT LETTER

May 5, 2009

Dear Parent or Guardian:

I am completing a master's degree in ESL at the University of Hamline. To complete this degree, I must write a capstone (thesis) and plan to conduct research in the spring of 2009. I am writing this letter to ask your permission for your child to take part in my research. After I complete the final product, my capstone will be a printed and shelved at Hamline's Bush Library. I may publish my findings elsewhere in the future.

My research will be based on 7th and 8th grade writing and oral samples from a grammar lesson in my ESL classes. All students in my classes will take a writing and oral pretest, immediate posttest, and posttest two weeks after I gather the samples. I want to find out which type of corrective feedback is most effective with my students.

These tests will be incorporated into a past tense *-ed* grammar unit that I teach to all my students. I will do a detailed analysis of these exams and the participants' data may be in my final paper. Please know that if your child's work is selected, their identity will remain confidential. In other words, no real names will be used. Participation is voluntary. Your child can choose to stop being a part of the study at any time without any negative impact on the relationship with the school. It is also important you know that these tests will NOT be a part of the students' grades. This eliminates risks for your child. Students participating in the study will receive extensive review in simple past grammar and will contribute to finding the benefits, if any, of immediate corrective feedback.

I have received permission from our principals, Joe Epping and Dennis Lambert and from the director of testing and assessment, Kamarrie Davis Gooding. I have also received permission from the Hamline Graduate School of Education.

Please return the form on the next page by _____ to give your child permission to participate in this study. If you have questions, you can call my work number at (952) 975-2536 or Ann Mabbott of Hamline University Second Language Teaching and Learning at (651) 523-2446. Thanks for your cooperation. Please return the signed copy to me and retain the second copy for your records.

Sincerely,

Ben Fawbush
ESL Teacher
Central Middle School

Dear Mr. Fawbush

I have received your letter and I am giving permission for my child,
_____, to participate in the classroom study for your capstone at
Hamline University.

I understand the purpose of your research is to study which type of corrective feedback is more effective with your middle school ESL students. I understand that all results will be confidential and the exams taking place during this study will not affect my child's grade.

Signed,

_____ Parent or Guardian

Date: _____