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# EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AND THE CORRECT USE OF PREPOSITIONS

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**Abstract**
This study investigates the effectiveness of explicit and implicit written corrective feedback on increasing the correct use of prepositions. To this end, sixty Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners were randomly assigned to two experimental groups, receiving explicit and implicit feedback, respectively; and one control group receiving no feedback. Each group included twenty participants. The homogeneity test of KET preceded the treatment. Prior to the treatment, a pre-test was administered to gain insight into the participants' current command of English prepositions. After the treatment, the same set of tests was administered as post-test to assess the probable increase in the correct use of prepositions for the experimental groups compared to the control group. Analysis of the results through a one-way ANOVA revealed that the experimental groups who received explicit and implicit corrective feedback significantly outperformed the control group in terms of the correct use of prepositions. The comparison of the experimental groups reported no statistically significant relationship. The results of this study indicate that language learners benefit from teacher-provided feedback in improving their grammatical accuracy in writing. Furthermore, more research is merited as there is a lot to investigate in this field.

**Keywords**: Corrective feedback, explicit, implicit, Noticing Hypothesis.

## INTRODUCTION

According to Erel and Bulut (2007), "Research on foreign and second language writing has mostly been based on why and how to respond to student writing" (p. 2). Most EFL and ESL teachers are of the opinion that responding to students' writing through appropriate corrective feedback (CF) is an inseparable part of any writing course and students require teacher feedback on their errors (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Feedback in writing is also considered as an important aspect to the development of students' language perception so that they can perform effectively in producing the language.

With regard to the ever-increasing interest in the teacher-provided CF and its pedagogical benefits, a growing body of research has investigated the potential efficacy of written CF (WCF) and the way student errors are treated in language learning environments. This error treatment, according to Chaudron (1988: 150) can be viewed as "any teacher behavior following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error" . Lightbown and Spada (1999: 1717-172) define feedback as "Any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect; this includes various responses that the learners receive" . This feedback encompasses the gap between what the learner has learned and his/her competence and the attempts made to bridge these gaps (Furnborough & Truman, 2009).

The effectiveness of feedback has been controversial regarding whether error correction is beneficial to the learning process or not. On the one hand, CF has proved to be effective in promoting language learning (Sheen, 2007; Lee, 1997); yet on the other hand, as Truscott (1996: 328) claimed, it could be obstructive or even detrimental to learning. In an extreme view on CF, Truscott argued that the application of CF on learners' writing should be totally avoided as it hinders and harms writing development. According to Truscott, "grammar correction has no place in writing courses and should be abandoned" . In line with Truscott, Kepner (1991) also found that feedback is not effective for developing accuracy in writing.

More recent studies support the positive contributions of CF to language learning and in particular to writing skills (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Sheen, 2007). Gass (1997) stated that CF enables learners to notice the 'gap' between their interlanguage and the target language resulting in more focused and accurate learning. Additionally, in accordance with general research on language learning, CF studies have specifically focused on the ways CF can alter and promote "learning processes" and "linguistic competence" (Sheen, 2010b, p. 204). Soori and Abd. Samad (2011) also cite Yates and Kenkel (2002) and mention that the main concern nowadays is not to whether provide CF for the learners but rather "when and how to provide feedback on the students' errors" (p. 349). As cited in Rezaei, Mozaffari, and Hatef (2011), Schmidt's (1990, 1995, 2001: 22) Noticing Hypothesis suggests that "noticing is a prerequisite of learning, continuing that conscious attention must be paid to input in order for L2 learning to proceed." ; thus, CF provides learners with clues indicating what is wrong and draws their attention to erroneous forms.

Grammar accuracy and writing improvement have also been shown to benefit from feedback. CF on learners' writing will help them avoid the possibility of future errors and promote accuracy of their writing with more focus on meaning (Ashwell, 2000). According to Ferris (2010: 188), "the studies on written CF … examine whether written CF facilitates long-term acquisition of particular linguistic features and if so, how". Soori and Abd. Samad also refer to Russell and Spada (2006: 350) and state that they "investigated the impacts of corrective feedback on second language grammar learning. The outcomes of this study revealed that corrective feedback was helpful for L2 learning.".

Furthermore, Erel and Bulut (2007) refer to various studies (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001: 398) for "motivating" and "encouraging" effects of WCF on learners and state that, "it is believed ... that if a teacher indicates a written grammatical error on a student's paper and provides the correct form in one or another way, the student will realize the error and will not repeat it in his/her future writings"; consequently, "the ability of writing accurately will be improved". Additionally, Ferris and Roberts's (2001) experiment with different types of WCF substantiated the efficacy of CF on improving learners' structural accuracy. As stated by Erel and Bulut, numerous studies (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Leki, 1991; Chandler, 2003: 398) show the effectiveness of CF in promoting learners' writing skills as well as grammatical accuracy:
Teachers believe that correcting the grammar of student writers' work will help them improve the accuracy of subsequent writing. Research evidence on error correction in L2 writing classes shows that students who receive error feedback from teachers improve in accuracy over time. There is also research evidence which proves that students want error feedback and think that it helps them improve their writing skill in the target language.

Similarly, Leki (1991) and Zhang (1995) in their studies found out that the learners themselves greatly appreciate teacher-provided CF; this clearly shows that "L2 students have positive attitudes towards written feedback" (Kaweera & Usaha, 2008: 86). Ferris (1997) also found that CF provided by teachers led to the development of learners' writing skills. It is also noteworthy that, "many scholars and researchers agree that feedback is essential and has a positive effect on students' writing. Thus, feedback on writing can be selected as a means of helping students to make revision and can help students improve their writing skills" (Kaweera & Usaha, 2008:85).

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), different types of CF have been identified including explicit, metalinguistic, elicitation, repetition, recast, translation, and clarification requests (see Appendix A for brief definitions and examples of CF strategies proposed by Lyster and Ranta, 1997, cited in Sauro, 2009, p. 99). According to Rezaei et al. (2011:22), "all of these techniques are placed in an explicit-implicit continuum" .

**Findings on Written Corrective Feedback**

In order to further explore the issue of CF in writing development, numerous researchers have focused on the effectiveness of different types of CF in dealing with learners' errors (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Chandler, 2003; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Bitchener, 2008). These studies have focused on the continuum ranging from explicit (direct) to implicit (indirect) CF. Ferris (2002: 19) defined explicit feedback as one "when an instructor provides the correct linguistic form for students (word, morpheme, phrase, rewritten sentence, deleted word[s] or morpheme[s]". ıimplicit feedback, on the other hand, "occurs when the teacher indicates that an error has been made but leaves it to the student writer to solve the problem and correct the error". Sheen, Wright, Moldawa (2009:567) support direct and indirect CF and their contributions to writing improvement by stating that "…CF may enhance learning by helping learners to (1) notice their errors in their written work, (2) engage in hypotheses testing in a systematic way and (3) monitor the accuracy of their writing by tapping into their existing … grammatical knowledge" .

According to Ellis's (2008) and Bitchener's (2008) findings, explicit CF provides learners with direct information as to what has gone wrong especially if learners are not proficient enough to come up with a solution to the problem. Explicit CF has also proved to enhance the acquisition of certain grammatical structures (Sheen, 2007). As opposed to explicit CF, indirect CF does not provide learners with overt indicators to erroneous parts, nor does it provide the corrected structures; instead, some clues or hints attract their attention to the problematic areas (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). It has also been argued that explicit CF, by nature, does not involve learners in deep internal processing as it is the case in implicit CF; therefore, indirect CF is more probable to result in long-term learning than direct CF (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Ferris (2002) argues that direct CF is more preferable over indirect CF when dealing with lower-level learners as they have not yet acquired enough grammatical knowledge to self-correct their errors.

Recent studies on CF also support the positive contribution of feedback to writing improvement (e.g., Chandler, 2003; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener, 2008). In an earlier study, Lalande (1982) showed that indirect CF had better results than direct CF in language learning. As opposed to Lalande's (1982) findings, Chandler (2003) investigated different types of WCF, including direct and indirect types; she concluded that, direct CF had significant effects on the improvement of learners' writing grammar accuracy. Liang (2008) conducted an experiment with different groups of participants receiving different types of WCF as well. Results of this study showed that both direct and indirect CF helped learners to promote certain aspects of their writing.

As stated by Campillo (2003), Lightbown and Spada (1990: 210) examined and "analysed the effect of explicit corrective feedback in an intensive communicative classroom. … Their results corroborated the hypothesis that the teaching of formal aspects … contribute to the learners' linguistic accuracy". Spada and Lightbown (1993) later conducted another study similar to their previous study demonstrating that "explicit corrective feedback increased linguistic accuracy" (Campillo, 2003,: 211). Another study was undertaken by White, Spada, Lightbown, and Ranta (1991) comparing the performance of learners who received feedback with those who didn't receive any feedback; the groups exposed to explicit teaching and feedback showed a higher level of linguistic accuracy than the control group. Likewise, alongside with explicit CF, "implicit corrective feedback has also been widely investigated and can be implemented in different ways" (Campillo, 2003,:211).

Kim and Mathes (2001) examined the effectiveness of explicit and implicit CF; their findings revealed that the both types were quite effective in diminishing the chances of error repetition in the future. In a survey conducted by Ancker (2000), it was concluded that most of the surveyed learners supported the teacher-provided CF. Nabel and Swain (2002) also investigated the degree of learners' awareness towards CF provided by the teacher.

Numerous studies (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) have revealed that recasts are the most frequently used type of CF. Lyster and Ranta (1997) also conclude that recasts are beneficial as they reduce the possibility of interruption in the flow of communication of meaning.

Campillo (1993: 212) also argues that, "nevertheless, not all corrective feedback techniques have been regarded as equally effective". He also refers to some recent studies (e.g., Lyster, 1998) and states the need "to explore the effect of combinations of corrective feedback, as opposed to isolated techniques" in a way that learners "can benefit from different ways of providing corrective focus on form" (Guenette, 2007:47).

In conclusion, the literature on WCF indicates some inconsistencies in the research and studies so far. Zamel (1985:84) refers to Hendrikson in the early 1980s and says that "current research tells us very little about ESL teachers' responses to student writing. We know that teachers respond imprecisely and inconsistently to errors". Later on, Ferris (2004: 49) emphasizes the little progress in this field and states that "we are virtually at Square One, as the existing research base is incomplete and inconsistent, and it would certainly be premature to formulate any conclusions about this topic" .

The present brief survey of the related literature reveals that, as stated by Kim and Mathes (2001), Loewen (2002), and Lyster (2004), most investigation in this field have so far primarily dealt with the impact of recasts and meta-linguistic types of corrective feedback in ESL contexts. In addition, Dabaghi Varnosfadrani (2006) refers to various studies (e.g., Havranek & Cesnik, 2003; Muranoi, 2000:35) and states that not enough studies "have investigated the effectiveness of error correction in EFL contexts" . Therefore, the aim of the present study is to investigate the extent to which explicit and repetition implicit CF might be effective in promoting Iranian EFL learners' correct use of prepositions and the following research question was proposed:
Q1. Does written corrective feedback have any significant effect on increasing Iranian EFL learners' correct use of prepositions?

One of the main reasons why this study focused on prepositions is the fact that, according to Kassim and Ng (2014), "a good number of studies have focused on articles in written work and it has been suggested that examining CF efficacy on other linguistic forms could provide insights on the role of corrective feedback in language learning". Additionally, Ferris (2006:120) regarded prepositions as 'untreatable' errors and idiosyncratic; thus, this study embarked upon finding whether CF is effective in improving the correct use of prepositions as there are no systematic rules on which learners can depend to correct their errors.

## METHOD

### Participants

The participants of this study consisted of adult pre-intermediate EFL learners from Iran Language Institute (ILI) in Tehran aged between 16 and 24 whose mean age was 22. The reason for selecting pre-intermediate learners was that it was assumed that since they were post beginners, they were already familiar with the basics of EFL syntax. In order to make sure of the learners' homogeneity, Key English Test (KET, 2009) developed by Cambridge University was administered prior to the treatment. Out of the subject pool, sixty participants (N=60) were randomly identified as two experimental groups and one control group. Each group consisted of twenty participants (N=20). The experimental group 1 received explicit CF, the experimental group 2 received implicit repetition CF, and the control group received placebo feedback.

### Instruments

The participants of this study were presented with their regular course books developed by the ILI. The pre-intermediate course books at the ILI comprise of eight units and each unit is further divided into two sections and every section is covered in one session lasting for an hour and forty-five minutes. Session one covers conversation, grammar, and vocabulary. Session two covers reading, grammar, and listening. Classes are held twice weekly. The total of twenty-one sessions covers the whole term for each of the three pre-intermediate levels at the ILI. Prior to the treatment, the participants received the pre-test of prepositions. Then, they received the written treatment. At the

end of the treatment, the same set of tests was administered as post-test. Pre-test and post-test items were as follows:
1. Prepositions:
1.1. Seventeen independent sentences containing 28 gaps (Neylor & Murphy, 1996; Murphy, Altman, & Rutherford, 1989).
1.2. Nine independent sentences each including three possible choices (Galbarczyk & Szmerdt, 2001).
1.3. Nine independent sentences each containing a gap to be filled with appropriate prepositions (Walker & Elsworth, 2000; Murphy, Altman, & Rutherford, 1989).

**Procedure**
Prior to the treatment, the participants were presented with the pre-test to provide the researcher with a clear picture of their current level of proficiency on prepositions. Then, they were told that they were supposed to write at least one paragraph or maximum two consisting of 150 to 200 words at the beginning of each session. From the second session on, they were required to write on a topic in line with their regular course book contents provided by the researcher in the classroom. All the participants in the three groups received the same topic every session. The total of twenty writing topics was provided for the participants during the experiment. The experimental group 1 received explicit CF, i.e., the instructor indicated that an error had been made, identified the error and provided the correction, to which repetition was required by the participants as modified output.

The experimental group 2 received implicit repetition CF, i.e. the instructor utilized emphatic stress by underlining the erroneous part(s), to which reformulation by the participants was required as modified output. It is noteworthy that the role of the emphatic stress was thoroughly explained to the participants as it required the participants to grammatically correct the underlined parts by adding, deleting, changing, and modifying the surrounding or within words. It was also emphasized that the underlined words had nothing to do with spelling mistakes.

In order to make sure of noticing the teacher-provided CF, the participants of the experimental groups were obliged to provide their modified output as an independent piece of writing after having written on the next topic

The control group received placebo feedback, i.e., "topic relevant response that does not contain the target form in the same context", for example: "student: In Sweden the global warming is a problem. Native speaker: Many people believe it's a problem everywhere" (Sauro, 2009:104) to which no modified output was required.

The teacher-provided CF for the experimental groups mainly focused on the correct use of prepositions. Other grammatical deviations were not brought to their attention. At the end of the treatment, the participants of the three groups were presented with the same sets of tests as the post-test assessing the extent to which the treatment was successful in enhancing the experimental groups' ability over the control group's to correctly apply prepositions. This study was conducted within the period of 10 weeks in the summer semester of 1393(2014) at the ILI in Tehran.

## RESULTS

In order to investigate the effectiveness of the treatment in increasing the learners' correct use of prepositions, two one-way ANOVAs were run on the scores of the pre-test and post-test, respectively. Differences among the experimental and control groups' means were considered significant at the $p$=.05 level of significance.

### Analysis of the Results on the Pre-Test of Prepositions
In order to investigate the relationship among the participants' scores on the pre-test of prepositions prior to the treatment, a one-way ANOVA was run. The results of the one-way ANOVA showed no

statistically significant difference at the $p$=.05 level of significance for the three groups: F (2, 57) =.748, $p$=.478. The descriptive statistics on prepositions are shown in the following table.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics on Prepositions

| Groups | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | Minimum score | Maximum score |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Experimental 1 (Explicit) | 20 | 32.80 | 2.726 | .610 | 28 | 38 |
| Experimental 2 (Implicit) | 20 | 32.50 | 2.351 | .526 | 28 | 39 |
| Control | 20 | 33.50 | 2.856 | .639 | 30 | 39 |

The differences between the groups' mean scores on prepositions prior to the treatment are presented in the following figure.

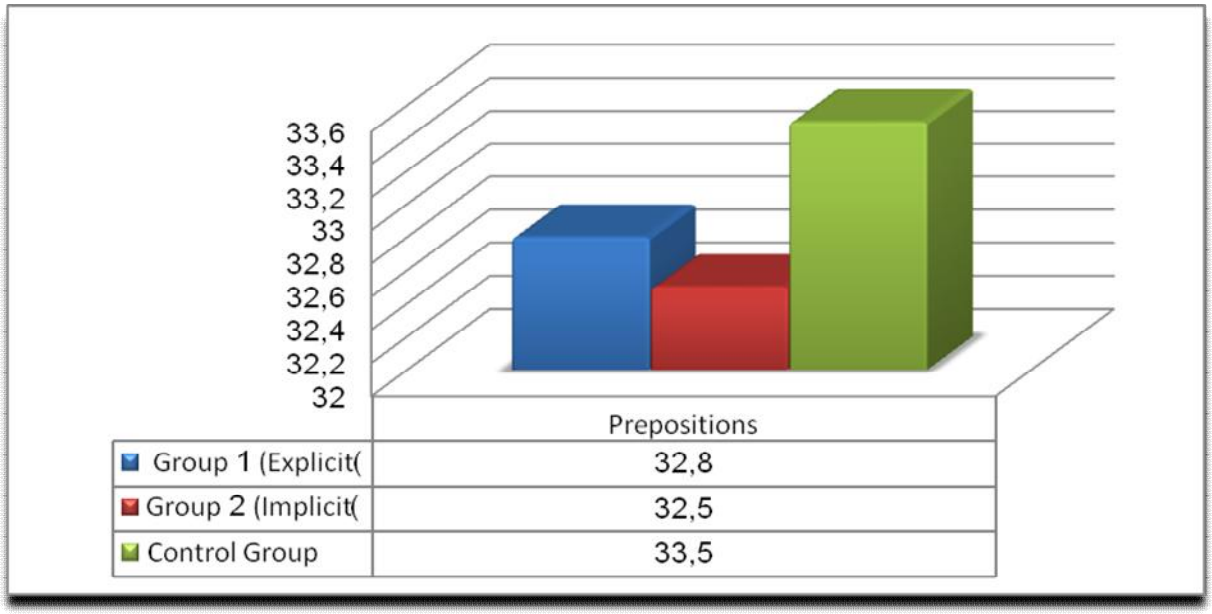


Fig 1: Group means on prepositions

With regard to the analysis of the results, it became apparent that there was no statistically significant difference among the participants of the three groups in terms of their current proficiency in the correct use prepositions prior to the treatment; therefore, their homogeneity was guaranteed.

**Analysis of the Results on the Post-Test of Prepositions**

In order to investigate the relationship among the participants' scores on the post-test of prepositions after the treatment, another one-way ANOVA was run. The results of the one-way ANOVA showed that there was a statistically significant difference among the three groups in terms of the correct use of prepositions at the $p$=.05 level of significance: F (2, 57) =12.078, $p$ = .000. The descriptive statistics on prepositions are shown in the following table.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics on Prepositions

| Groups | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | Minimum score | Maximum score |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Experimental 1 (Explicit) | 20 | 35.85 | 1.531 | .342 | 33 | 39 |
| Experimental 2 (Implicit) | 20 | 37.35 | 2.084 | .466 | 33 | 40 |
| Control | 20 | 34.25 | 2.291 | .512 | 31 | 39 |

Additionally, to find out where the difference(s) lie regarding the mean scores of the three groups, post-hoc comparisons through the Tukey HSD tests were also carried out. The following table summarizes the results of the post-hoc tests.

Table 3: Post-hoc Tests Results on Prepositions

| Groups | Groups | Mean Difference | Std. Error | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Experimental 1 (Explicit) | Experimental 2 (Implicit) | -1.500 | .631 | .053 |
| | Control | 1.600* | .631 | .037 |
| Experimental 2 (Implicit) | Experimental 1 (Explicit) | 1.500 | .631 | .053 |
| | Control | 3.100* | .631 | .000 |
| Control | Experimental 1 (Explicit) | -1.600* | .631 | .037 |
| | Experimental 2 (Implicit) | -3.100* | .631 | .000 |

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 3 shows that the mean differences between the experimental group 1 (M=35.85, SD=1.531) and the control group (M=34.25, SD=2.291), and the experimental group 2 (M=37.35, SD=2.084) and the control group were statistically significant. There was no statistically significant difference between the experimental groups since the level of significance was .053 > .05. The differences between the groups' mean scores on prepositions are presented in the following figure.

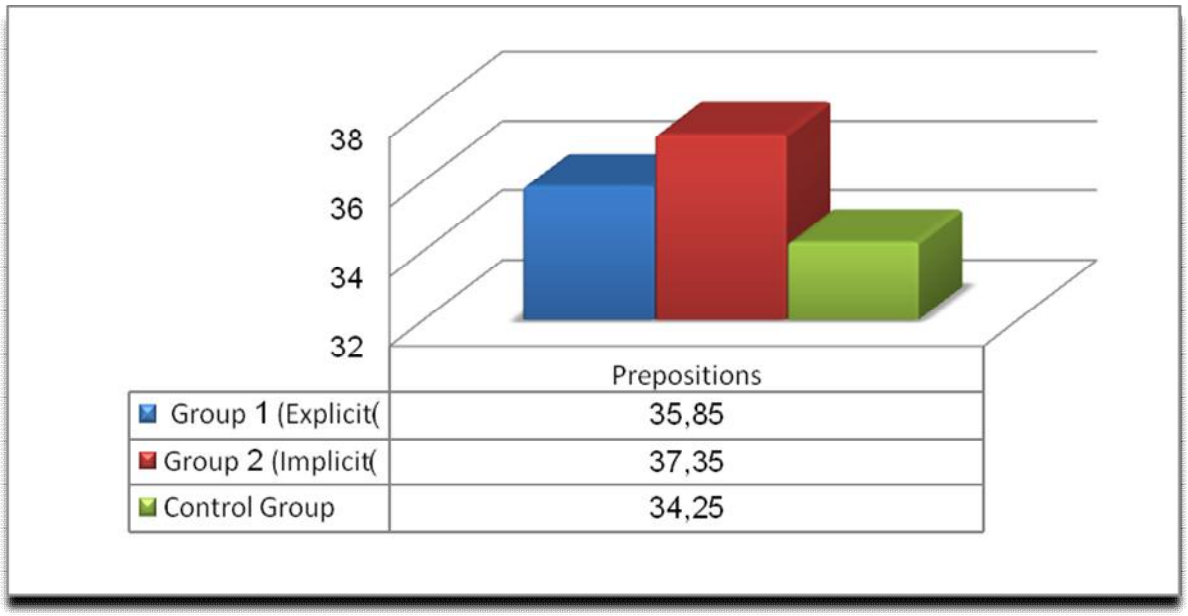


Fig 2: Group means on prepositions

## DISCUSSION

Given the limited range of studies, the present study sought to expand the base by investigating the effect of different types of CF on the accuracy of the targeted linguistic error categories in learners' pieces of writing. The results of the study revealed that both the experimental groups who had received corrective feedback, i.e., explicit and repetition implicit, significantly outperformed the control group in terms of the correct use of prepositions after the treatment. The present findings are in contrast with the claims made by Truscott (1996) regarding the ineffectiveness of teacher-provided feedback. The results also confirm the outcomes of numerous other studies supporting the

effectiveness of CF in helping learners to improve their accuracy (Chandler, 2003; Ellis et al., 2008; Ferris, 2006).

Explicit CF showed significant results. As stated by Kassim and Ng (2014), explicitly requiring learners to correct their errors "will provide 'rich evidence' for the learners to be aware of the errors committed and that a more focused attention to that particular error may lead to a more enhanced learning" (p.121). In line with earlier studies (e.g., Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996), Ellis (2010) supports the role of explicit instructions in language learning which contribute to the development of learner's knowledge. Vyatkina's (2010) study also indicated that explicit CF led the learners towards making more successful revision. In another study conducted by Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005), it became apparent that providing learners with explicit CF resulted in improved accuracy in prepositions, past simple tense, and definite article. Bitchener and Knoch (2010b) revealed clear evidence of the greater effectiveness of explicit forms of written CF. Additionally, Sheen, Wright, and Moldawa (2009) corroborated the superiority of explicit CF in increasing the accuracy of learners' writing.

Furthermore, Sampson's (2012) study revealed that implicit CF is effective in increasing the cognitive engagement and social interaction. Erel and Bulut (2007) also showed that employing implicit CF resulted in making fewer errors. Lalande (1982) explained that indirect feedback requires learners to engage in guided learning and problem solving and; therefore, promotes the type of reflection that is more likely to foster long-term acquisition. But as SLA researchers of language production have found, learners must first 'notice' (Schmidt, 1990) that an error has been made. Once the error has been noted, indirect feedback has the potential to push learners to engage in hypothesis testing—a process which Ferris (2002) has suggested that may induce deeper internal processing and promote the internalization of correct forms and structures. Ellis (2006) also found that implicit CF is effective in terms of L2 acquisition.

Researchers have also investigated the issue of efficacy in terms of both direct and indirect feedback. As stated earlier, direct feedback provides learners with the correct structures whereas indirect feedback informs learners of the errors without providing the correct form. Storch and Wigglesworth (2010a) maintain that indirect CF may be more effective than direct CF in facilitating learners' uptake and retention of linguistic structures. According to Ferris and Roberts (2001), direct CF is appropriate for learners with lower proficiency levels and it is unlikely to lead to long term acquisition. It is also suggested that indirect CF is more likely to help learners to improve their structural accuracy due to deeper processing of the CF (e.g., Ferris, 2006; Lalande, 1982).

## CONCLUSION

In this study, the impact of written corrective feedback on increasing the correct use of prepositions was investigated. On the basis of the results, it became evident that explicit and implicit CF was effective in increasing the correct use of prepositions.

As stated by Ellis (2008:355), "the effectiveness of direct and indirect feedback is likely to depend on the current state of the learners' grammatical knowledge". Therefore, in order to benefit from the most suitable forms of corrective feedback based on learners' grammatical competence, researchers have long since sought to provide evidence and plausible answers to the questions proposed by Hendrickson (1978) but so far, have not been successful in drawing a clear picture of different aspects of CF. These five questions on CF have been the basis for most of the ongoing studies in this field. According to Hendrickson (1978:389), CF generally should aim at answering the following questions:

"1. Should learner errors be corrected?
2. If so, when should learner errors be corrected?
3. Which learner errors should be corrected?
4. How should learner errors be corrected?

5. Who should correct learner errors?".

The findings of the present study also provide further implications as to the positive contributions of written CF to second and foreign language learning. In conclusion, it is believed that the findings of this study are motivating since the way teachers react to learners' language production errors play a vital role in their future learning. Interested researchers are also encouraged to experiment on different aspects of the language using various or combinations of feedback techniques as there is still plenty of room for further research in this field.

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## Appendix A

Characteristics of Lyster & Ranta's (1997) categories of corrective feedback

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Repetitions** | Repetition of all or part of the utterance containing the error, often accompanied by a change in intonation | Yesterday we visit my aunt. | Sometimes | No | None or repetition |
| **Recasts** | Implicit reformulation of all or part of the learner's utterance | Yesterday we visited my aunt.<br>I visited my aunt last week. | Yes<br>Yes | Reformulation provided<br>Reformulation provided | Repetition<br>Repetition |
| **Translations** | Target language translation of unsolicited use of the L1. | *** | Yes | Reformulation provided | Repetition |
| **Clarification Requests** | An utterance indicating a problem in comprehension, accuracy or both. | Pardon? | No | No | Repetition, reformulation, or meaning elaboration |

| Corrective Feedback Type | Definition | Example(s) | Nature of Error Indicated | Target-like Reformulation Provided | Elicited Output |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Explicit Error Correction** | Explicit provision of the target-like reformulation | You should say visited. | Yes | Provided directly | None or repetition |
| **Metalinguistic Feedback** | Comments, information or questions (that may or may not contain metalanguage but do not include the reformulation) related to the ill-formedness of the utterance | There's a mistake.<br>It's past tense.<br>Did you use the past tense? | No<br>Yes<br>Yes | No<br>Provided indirectly through metalinguistic hint at correct reformulation<br>Provided indirectly through metalinguistic question concerning rule governing reformulation | Identification of error and/or reformulation<br>Reformulation<br>Metalinguistic response, yes/no response, or reformulation |
| **Elicitations** | A prompt for the learner to reformulate | Try that again.<br>How do we say that in the past tense?<br>Yesterday we ... | No<br>Yes<br>Sometimes | No<br>No<br>No | Reformulation<br>Reformulation<br>Reformulation |
| **Repetitions** | Repetition of all or part of the utterance containing the error, often accompanied by a change in intonation | Yesterday we visit my aunt. | Sometimes | No | None or repetition |
| **Recasts** | Implicit reformulation of all or part of the learner's utterance | Yesterday we visited my aunt.<br>I visited my aunt last week. | Yes<br>Yes | Reformulation provided<br>Reformulation provided | Repetition<br>Repetition |
| **Translations** | Target language translation of unsolicited use of the L1. | *** | Yes | Reformulation provided | Repetition |
| **Clarification Requests** | An utterance indicating a problem in comprehension, accuracy or both. | Pardon? | No | No | Repetition, reformulation, or meaning elaboration |