FOCUS-ON-FORM, RECASTS AND OUTPUT
AS CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK FOR THE LEARNERS
SỬA LỖI GIAO TIẾP CHO HỌC VIÊN THÔNG QUA VIỆC
CHÚ TRỌNG VÀO CẤU TRÚC, NHẮC LẠI VÀ TẠO MÔI TRƯỜNG GIAO TIẾP

PHẠM NGỌC THẠCH*

Tóm tắt bài viết

Nội dung chính của bài viết là về tác động của những phương thức sửa lỗi thông dụng khi học viên mắc lỗi giao tiếp. Đây là vấn đề còn gây nhiều tranh cãi trong giới nghiên cứu và giảng dạy ngoại ngữ. Một câu hỏi rất nhiều người đặt ra là việc sửa lỗi của giáo viên hỗ trợ cho việc học ngoại ngữ như thế nào? Mặc dù theo phương pháp giao tiếp, giáo viên không sửa từng lỗi nhỏ cho học viên, nhưng làm thế nào giáo viên có thể cho một học viên biết được đã mắc lỗi khi giao tiếp bằng ngoại ngữ, đồng thời không làm ảnh hưởng đến mong muốn giao tiếp của bản thân học viên đó. Làm thế nào giáo viên biết được là việc sửa lỗi có tác động tích cực đến quá trình học ngoại ngữ của học viên. Bài viết mở đầu với các phần trình bày về quy trình học (learning) và cảm thụ (acquisition) ngoại ngữ nói chung, được thể hiện thông qua một số sơ đồ đơn giản, dễ hiểu miêu tả các bước và yếu tố quan trọng trong quy trình này. Tiếp theo là phần trình bày ba phương thức thường được sử dụng khi sửa lỗi cho học viên. Phương thức thứ nhất là ***chú trọng vào cấu trúc*** (focus-on-form) trong đó việc sửa các lỗi như ngữ pháp, cấu trúc câu được lồng ghép trong các bối cảnh giao tiếp cụ thể, có ý nghĩa. Phương thức thứ hai là ***nhắc lại*** (recast) - tức là giáo viên nhắc lại câu nói (sai) của học viên, sửa chỗ sai về cấu trúc, ngữ pháp, v.v., mà không thay đổi ý của câu nói. Theo một nghiên cứu của Han (2002b) thì đây là một trong những phương thức hữu hiệu được giáo viên dùng nhiều. Phương thức thứ ba là tạo ***môi trường điều kiện*** (output) cho học viên sử dụng tiếng - qua đó họ mắc lỗi và tự sửa lỗi; không chỉ các lỗi ngữ pháp, cấu trúc mà còn các lỗi về tính thích hợp của một phát ngôn, văn hóa, v.v. Bài viết cũng nêu tầm quan trọng của việc áp dụng các phương thức sửa lỗi khác đối với từng đối tượng học viên, ở các trình độ khác nhau. Bài viết cũng gợi ý cần phải có các nghiên cứu sâu hơn về điểm mạnh và điểm yếu của từng phương thức sửa lỗi, và tập hợp thành một cuốn cẩm nang về sửa lỗi cho giáo viên ngoại ngữ.

_____

* Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ Hà Nội

1. Introduction

People have been learning a language other than their mother tongue for thousands of years, but the study into how they do this is fairly a recent phenomenon (Rod Ellis, 1997:3). From the second half of the twentieth century, there has been numerous research on different aspects of Second Language (L2), some of which focus on the L2 acquisition process, some on the significance of learners' errors and acquisitions orders. Some hypotheses and models of L2 acquisition have also been developed. However, it is in recent years that the questions about the role of corrective feedback in L2 have received a lot of attention from both language teachers and researchers. A lot of theories as well as empirical studies have been conducted. Despite all these, the claims regarding the impact of corrective feedback on L2 have not been fully investigated. This paper aims to review a number of studies done with regards to three specific issues: general discussions on L2 and L2 acquisition; secondly, the issue of input and L2 acquisition; thirdly, focus on form recasts and output as corrective feedback. At the end of the paper, there will be some recommendations for future studies on the issue of impacts of corrective feedback on L2 acquisition.

2. Second Language Acquisition

In fact, it is very difficult to define what a language is, and what language learning is. A lot of studies have been done on these, but there has been no conclusive theory which can give a satisfactory answer to the question. In their studies, different researchers have different ways of defining L2 acquisition. However, this concept is still not very clear in countries where English, French or Russian, etc. is considered as a foreign language, not a second one. The term foreign language learning is used more often because many, if not most people learn a foreign language in a formal situation. That is why it is worth making a clear distinction between *L2 learning* (learning L2 in a classroom) and *L2 acquisition* (learn a language inside or outside a classroom). Acquisition is slow and subtle, while learning is often fast and obvious (Krashen, 1980: 177)

Different people have different purposes for learning L2: some for a pleasing pastime, some for entertainment, but most for educational or employment purposes. In this context, there is a need for studies into how L2 is learnt or acquired: what the process of L2 acquisition is, which elements have positive or negative feedback on L2, what the role of the teachers and of the learners is in the learning process, etc.

The indications of positive or negative impacts can be conveyed *implicitly* or *explicitly*. Explicit corrective feedback gives learners a meta-linguistic explanation or helps with error correction. Implicit corrective feedbacks indirectly and incidentally informs learners of their non-target-like use of certain linguistic features. Because the correction is unobtrusively provided so as not to interrupt the process of communication, it is expected that there will be some ungrammatical aspects. Confirmation checks, clarification requests and recasts repetitions can all constitute implicit corrective feedback (Long, 1996).

In teaching situations, some teachers take it for granted that their learners acquire all that is taught to them. It is true that their inputs are important in the acquisition process, but it is the learner who chooses what to prioritize in the input (Skehan, 1998: 49). This assumption seems irrelevant in the Asian teaching and learning context in which learners are supposed, or even forced, to acquire what is transferred from their teachers.

Let us imagine a formal language learning situation in which a learner makes an error or a mistake of form during their utterances. How should a teacher deal with this situation and what is the effect of the teacher's feedback, if any, on the learner's progress? What are the rationales for the teacher's decision to do something, or not to do anything about the learner's problems. In order to give an answer to these questions, let us look at the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) process.

3. Second language acquisition process

What are the steps or stages in which L2 is acquired? This is a difficult question. When we look into the way something is done in a certain order, we often think of consecutive stages, or steps in which that thing is done. This is true for many sciences, and might be true for L2. The shortest computational model of L2 acquisition is expressed by Ellis as shown in the figure below
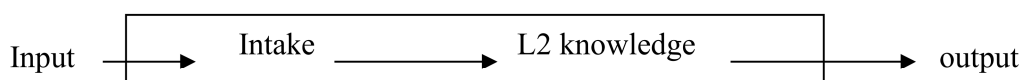
Input → Intake → L2 knowledge → output

Figure 1: A computational model of L2 Acquisition (Ellis, 1997: 35)

The above model is too simple if we compare it with the multi-dimensional model of L2 proposed by Jurgen, Harald and Manfred Pienemann, which deals not only with linguistic but also socio-psychological factors of language acquisition; and a learner has to undergo, and revisit different stages again and again before being able to produce a native-like target language utterance.

Skehan (1998) presented another model to show the path from input to output.
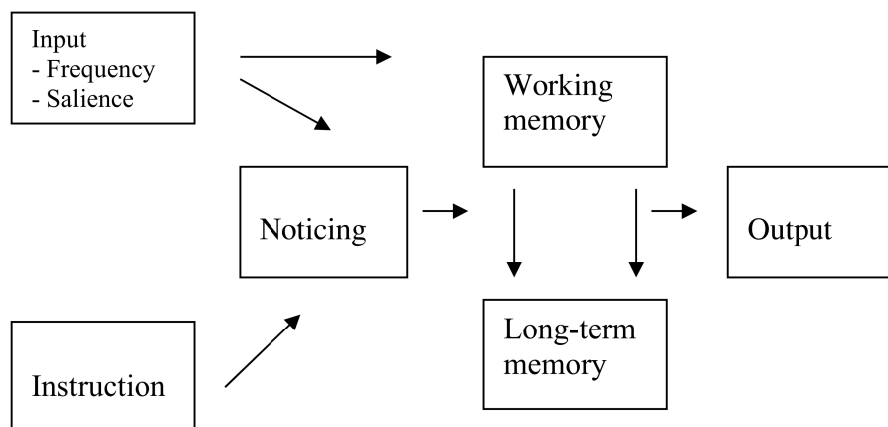

Figure 2: influences upon noticing (Skehan, 1998:49)

While there are still a number of arguments on the validity of models of L2, it seems that there is an agreement among researchers on the **order** of L2 acquisition **process**. In their summary of various studies to answer the question "Is there an acquisition process for certain English structures which is characteristic of L2 learners", Marina K. Burt and Heidi C. Dulay write "An L2 acquisition order has been discovered which is characteristic of both children and adults, and which, for as yet unknown reasons, holds for both oral and written modes. (Burt, et la,1980: 325). Ellis (1997) echoed this by saying that "researchers have shown that there is a definite acquisition order and that this remains more or less the same irrespective of the learners' mother tongue, their age, and whether or not they have received formal language instruction (p. 22)

Ellis (1997) suggested that acquisition follows a U-shape course of development; and the kind of verb also influences the kind of errors learners make. Results from studies of Burt et al (1980) on acquisition orders seem to be in line with this argument, despite the fact that they follow different research methodologies. Another common feature of all these studies is that they all recognize the importance of learner variability. In his conclusion, Ellis says variability plays an integrative part of the overall pattern of development, with learners moving through a series of stages that reflect different kinds of variability. However, we need more empirical studies to prove this and it is important to take into account cultural and socio-psychological factors which determine learners' orientation, attitudes and motivation in learning a second language.

Krashen (1980) also developed the Input Hypothesis and this is one of many attempts to describe how language is acquired. One of the most interesting points about the Input Hypothesis is the concept of "caretaker speech" which, to some extent, does not have problems of foreigner talk or teacher talk. "In the case of teacher talk, the constraint imposed even by the best classrooms will place limits on how much can be acquired". (Krashen 1980: 174) In other words, classroom teachers are not often conscious of how much their learners can grasp from their corrections. In the past, repeating a word tens of times was one of the ways that teachers used in Asian classes. In this case, the effect of the teacher's input is questionable. However, before going into the details of effects of input, we need to classify input in one way or another.

4. Inputs and second language acquisition

First of all, it should be made clear that the input learners get in the acquisition and learning process is different. It is often understood that in L2 acquisition, learners absorb what they hear unconsciously and implicitly, yet they still acquire certain grammatical structures, syntax, etc. In L2 acquisition, the role of **foreigner talk**, "...a register of simplified speech .... used by speakers of a language to outsiders who are felt to have very limited command of the language or no knowledge of it at all" (Long 1981: 259) has a very important role to play. Hatch (1983: 66-67) gives a detailed specification of foreigner talk, including features of rate, vocabulary, syntax, discourse, speech setting, etc. Foreigner talk can be considered as a kind of simplified input for L2 acquirers. However, how much the acquirers can get

from these foreigner talks is still an open question.

In a classroom situation, or in a learning process, **teacher talk**, a kind of modified speech with the explicit and clear aim of teaching the learner certain grammatical structures, syntax, etc. also has a role to play. Learners may get a lot of knowledge from books and tapes, but it is the input from the teachers that have some effects on their learning, whether they are negative or positive effects.

There are many types of input in L2, which can roughly be divided into positive and negative evidence. These can be further subdivided into various kinds like modified, implicit, explicit, etc. In other words, any reaction from the teacher to a learner's utterance can have various impacts on his or her learning process. The following figure gives a comprehensive picture of input in L2.
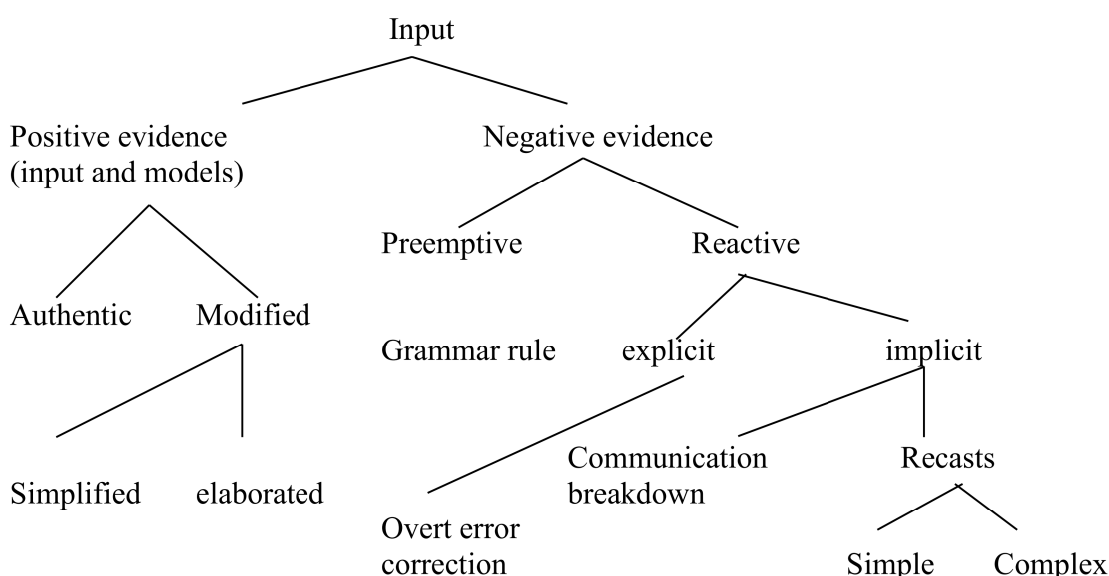

Figure 3: Types of input for L2, From "Focus on Form: Theory, Research and Practice," by M. Long and P. Robinson, in Focus on form in Classroom L2 , pp 15-41, by Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.) 1998, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

As mentioned above, the Input Hypothesis is Krashen's attempt to explain how the learner acquires a L2. In other words, this hypothesis is Krashen's explanation of how Second Language Acquisition (SLA) takes place. So, the Input hypothesis is only concerned with 'acquisition', not 'learning'. According to this hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the 'natural order' when he/she receives L2 'input'; that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at a stage 'i', then acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to 'Comprehensible Input' that belongs to level 'i + 1'. Since not all of the learners can be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that *natural communicative input* is the key to

designing a syllabus, ensuring in this way that each learner will receive some 'i + 1' input that is appropriate for his/her current stage of linguistic competence.

It is inevitable that whenever there is an input from the teacher, certain effects (either negative or positive) should be felt in the learners' learning process. In other words, we may say that whenever the teacher throws an input, the learner "throws his net". However, it is not clear whether the learner's net is able to catch some, or all, inputs thrown by the teacher or not. Neither has it been made clear whether a teacher's input is useful to the learner or not, and in order to make a distinction between useful and useless input, some researchers have suggested that we should make a distinction between **input** and **intake.** If the learner "casts a net" into the input, the result is supposedly an intake (Hatch, 1983: 78)

Coming back to the question I mentioned earlier, i.e. *to what extent does correction of errors assist L2 learning*. On the one hand, some teachers argue that if the learner is not corrected, s/he would think that a non-target-like utterance was accurate. These teachers would then spend much of their time correcting every single mistake (of form and content) made by the learner. On the other hand, some teachers rarely correct their learners' mistakes, arguing that learners should be able to correct mistakes all by themselves. So the above question is a difficult one. Research on error correction has shown different types of corrections, and yet their confusing effect on learners' progress remains. There is one agreement among researchers on error correction, and that is "correction must bring students' attention to their own errors, and it must do so in meaningful, communicative context." (Pica 1994: 12)

What are the known methods of correcting a learner's error? Generally, there are conventional ways such as repetition (with or without correction), clarification of request, etc. The rates of repair and uptake (uptake = repairs + need-repair) for the six feedback types presented by Lyster and Ranta (1997) were as follows:

	Repair	uptake = repairs + need-repair
Elicitation	46%	100%
Meta-linguistic clues	45%	86%
Clarification request	28%	88%
Repetition of error (in isolation)	31%	87%
Explicit correction	37%	50%
Recast	18%	31%

Table 1: The rate of repair and uptake Lyster (1998: 14)

Lyster (1998b) has the following definitions for the above types of corrective feedback.

Elicitation: Teacher directly elicits a reformulation from students by asking questions such as "How do we say that in French?" or by pausing to allow students to complete teacher's utterance, or by

asking students to reformulate their utterance.

Meta-linguistic clues: Teacher provides comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, such as "C'est masculin."

Clarification questions: Teacher uses phrases such as "Pardon?" and "I don't understand."

Repetition: Teacher repeats the student's ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the errors.

The table shows that almost all types of feedback are on form. Most, if not all, of these feedbacks share the same purpose of making the learner be aware of or draw their attention to certain linguistic problems in their production. All these types of feedback serve as external means to make learners pay attention, by highlighting selected input form (e.g. **bolding**, Capitalizing or <u>underlining</u> or large words on board). However, according to Izumi (2002) the learners themselves decide what they find problematic in their production and what they pay attention to (p.543). This is something that teachers do not have control of, but should be aware of in order to select appropriate methods of providing input. For example, in Asian language classes, learners often expect input of all kinds from their teachers without knowing that they may forget the input only minutes afterwards. In the study by Izumi on effects of visual input enhancement on the noticing and acquisition of grammatical form by adult L2 learners, she argues that in contrast to the positive effect of output, visual input enhancement failed to show any measurable effect on learning (p.565)

5. Focus-on-form as corrective feedback

Many researchers of L2 have looked into the role of focus-on- form, which is different from grammar being taught in isolation, as a type of corrective feedback. In this focus-on-form, the attention is on grammatical forms in the context of meaningful activities such as telling a story that happened to learners themselves in the last week, or predicting what will happen in their cities in 10 years' time. These meaningful activities are of great help in triggering learners' linguistic errors or problems with comprehension or production. Various types of feedback can then be provided either by teachers or their peers.

There is a question that most teachers of languages have in their mind relating to the order of correcting learners' errors of accuracy and fluency at different stages of language acquisition. It is sometimes misunderstood by some teachers and those who follow a communicative language teaching approach that fluency now plays the most important role in the communication process. Although fluency without accuracy is the outcome of communicative language teaching that excludes form-focused instruction altogether, there is, at present, little comparative research evidence to support the claim that early emphasis on grammar and accuracy is essential if fossilization is to be presented (Lightbown and Spada, 1990: 432). What is more important, in my view, is the balance. We need to find a balance between accuracy and fluency right from the beginning of the instruction. At the same time, teachers should also be aware of the issue of timing. Lightbown and Spada also cited findings from studies by Romasello and Herron, saying that

"timing may thus be important both in terms of determining whether learners are at an appropriate stage in their language learning to benefit from correction ..." (p. 433)

In countries where English is taught as a second or foreign language, this timing is often determined in accordance with levels of learning, i.e. elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, advanced. Some teachers also tend to match focus-on-form and accuracy with the elementary level. Their instruction at this level often includes activities like choral repetition, memorization, substitution drills, etc. At the later stages the focus would move more towards building learners' fluency and correction of form tends to be dropped altogether at the advanced level. There is, however, confusion from the teachers' part on the duration of time that should be allocated to each sub-skill. In fact it is difficult to come up with a certain percentage for this, but the findings from studies carried out by Lightbown and Spada (1990) might serve as an answer to this. Their findings "...suggest that accuracy, fluency and overall communication skills are probably best developed through instruction that is primarily meaning-based, but in which guidance is provided through timely form-focus activities and correction of form (p. 443)

The above discussions have mainly been on explicit feedback provided directly by instructors in the classroom context. Whereas explicit corrective feedback can prompt learners to notice the gap by directly and overtly drawing their attention to the incorrect form they have made, implicit corrective feedback (e.g.,

confirmation checks, clarification requests, and recasts as presented in the table above) aims at inducing learners to detect the disparity between their inter-language and the target language. For implicit corrective feedback, one fundamental question arises: How do such indirect signals help learners recognize problems? Two hypotheses have been developed to answer this question: (1) implicit feedback offers *contrastive evidence* for learners and (2) the *output* driven by the feedback can stimulate learners to notice the gap. The first hypothesis proposes that providing the opportunity to identify contrasts between correct forms (i.e., models) and incorrect forms through implicit corrective feedback (i.e., recasts) may promote learners to notice the gap between their inter-language and the target language. Implicit corrective feedback can be further classified into two types depending on whether or not the correct form is conveyed by interlocutors. Recasts, by definition, provide the correct form immediately after learner errors. On the other hand, other types of implicit corrective feedback (e.g., clarification requests, elicitations) do not provide target-like forms. Instead, they promote learners to repair their errors by themselves by providing a chance to reformulate their previous ill-formed utterances. Which type of implicit corrective feedback can be the most beneficial to learners has been argued in L2 literature. The following parts will focus more on recasts and output as types of corrective feedback respectively.

6. Recasts as corrective feedback

Following comprehensive development of recasts in children's L1 development, a lot of studies have been made on the role of

recasts in L2 acquisition by adult learners. One of the explanations for the apparent effectiveness of recasts in some L1 studies has been the observation that parents are more likely to recast their children's ill-formed utterances than the correct ones (Nicholas et al, 2001: 751). The discovery of the effectiveness of this kind of implicit teaching has a very important role to play and has laid foundation for a number of studies on recasts in L2.

As mentioned earlier, based on results of studies on recasts as corrective feedback in L1 acquisition, many researchers have carried out studies on effectiveness of recasts as feedback for adults learning a L2. We all know that there are both similarities and differences between these two process of learning languages. In their study on derivational complexity and order of acquisition in child speech, Nicholas (2001) cited an observation of Brown and Halon which said that parents hardly ever said things like "No, that's wrong" or "Yes, that's right" in response to the form of children's utterance (Howard, et al, 2001: 723).

Researchers have been using different definitions for recasts, but they all share a common view on seeing recasts as utterances that repeat a learner's incorrect utterance, making only changes necessary to produce a correct utterance, without changing the meaning. One of the studies on recasts carried out by Han (2002b) shows that recasts have decisive and positive implications on L2 development, especially when these recasts were accompanied by consistency and intensity. In her study, Han tried to seek the role of recasts both in boosting the improvement of linguistic forms or in having a

consistency in using a certain linguistic competence, tense, for example and in raising learners' awareness on the importance of having correct form when using target language. The findings of her study showed that if recasts are used with high frequency in the L2 learning process, linguistic achievements can be seen very obviously. Moreover, this high frequency of recasts also helps learners in self correction of tense use. Han explains that "[t]his focus may have facilitated the learners' awareness of the intent of the pedagogical instruction and may have in turn propelled them to align their output with the target as signaled by the researcher" (p. 568). There have also some attempts to classify recasts into different types. Lyster (1998) for example grouped recasts into four types of isolated declarative, isolated interrogative, incorporated declarative and incorporated interrogative (p.58, 59)

Recasts reformulate the ill-formed utterances. They also expand the utterance in some way. The central meaning of the utterance is retained, and the recasts follow the ill-formed utterance (Mackey and Philips, 1998: 341). For example:

NS: What does your father do?
NNS: He do work in a factory.

In the example above the purpose of the teacher's paraphrasing the student's utterance is on form. First he corrects the structure of the answer, and then 's' is added to the verb for agreement with the third person singular subject "he". The central meaning of the original answer is retained. However, as some researchers have pointed out, the learner may not necessarily grasp this intention

accordingly. Nicholas (2001) also has his arguments by saying that "... A teacher's recast may not be perceived by the learner as a feedback on the form of utterance (Nicholas et al., 2001: 721)) The learner may thing that the teacher's recast is the confirmation of content (in a factory) rather than the correction of form, and still makes mistakes in the reconfirmation reply:

NS: So he works in a factory.
NNS: Yes, he work in a factory

At this stage, in foreigner talk, the conversation will continue with other topics, or other questions. But in the classroom situation, some teachers would stop and give reinforced explanation about the use of present simple tense, first person singular. They (these teachers) would argue that it is crucial to make learners be aware of the importance of accuracy. This is in line with the result of some research by Long (1996) on recasts to compare correction provided by recast with preemptive teaching in the classroom.

Despite the fact that there is a potential ambiguity of recasts, the short term effects of recasts have been reflected in a number of studies. Nicholas, et al (2001) noted that in the context of communicative and content based approach to language teaching, there has been a considerable interest in the potential value of recasts for providing corrective feedback in L2 (p.732). However, Nicholas also noted that to date most experimental studies of the effects of recasts on L2 have been set in a laboratory context and have involved dyadic interaction.

If we look back at figure 3 above, we can see that recasts are assumed as negative evidence. Long and Robinson (1998) also placed recasts in the categories of negative evidence. However, there is a problem with their assumption. First of all, unlike focus-on-form procedures, recasts are not explicit corrective feedback in which teachers tell their learners what is wrong with their utterance, and also provide correct patterns as treatment. Secondly, recasts, besides the above mentioned functions, help with confirmation of additional information about content. Although most recasts are on form, by repeating the learners' utterance in a corrective manner, and expanding to other linguistic and contextual aspects, recasts facilitate conversations naturally. By not allowing for negotiation of form, recasts also allow active involvement of learners in the communication process naturally. This is one of the reasons why recasts are preferred to other explicit corrective feedback. Thirdly, although recasts do not convey to learners what is unacceptable in their utterance (unlike focus-on-form), the true value of recasts can still be seen by learners. This way of feedback is of great help in increasing learners' awareness in trying to produce correct utterances, self correction, etc.

7. Output as corrective feedback

Generally, it is assumed that language output is the product of instruction, teaching, acquisition, etc. If we look again at Ellis' computational model on L2, it shows that the above assumption is valid and output does not have any particular role to play; there is not an arrow connecting the output with the input.
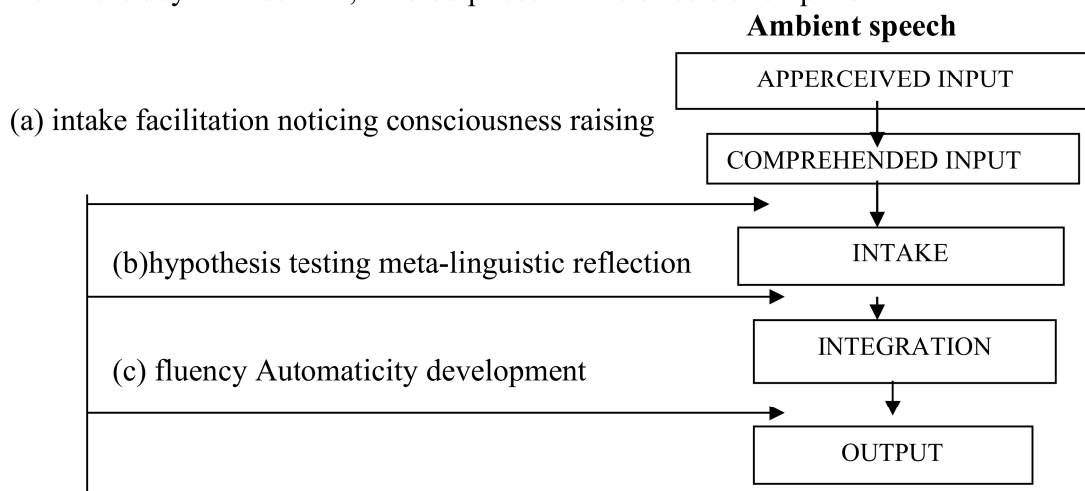
input ———→ [Intake ———→ L2 knowledge]——→ output

All these perceptions changed with the establishment of the Output Hypothesis developed by Swan (1985), who argued that producing the target language may serve as "the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her intended meaning (p. 249)

It is true that if one does not have opportunities to practise what they have gained through input, then no matter how much they have had, that knowledge of the input will always remain (silently) in their head. This is the claim that most learners of languages in the countries where the language taught is a foreign one have. They do not have opportunities to practise what has been learnt, and they either forget it, or lose most of it.

By trying out what has been learnt from books, teachers, etc. learners have a good opportunity to learn something else new as input. A Vietnamese English student, who went to study in Australia, was surprised when, in replying to her greeting "how do you do?", an Australian lady said "Hi, how are you?". This is a new input for her when trying out a taught input (output). She then learnt that in reality, the phrase *"How are you?"* can also be used when people meet for the first time. Similarly, a Chinese student in England, when using the word *"landlord"* to address his host, was shocked at the reply from the Englishman *"You call me a landlord? That sounds too bad. I am not exploiting you."* The inputs that these students got from books, teachers, instructors, were tested (as output) and they got other input in return.

Izumi (2003) argued that "pushed output can induce the learners to process the input effectively for their greater IL development (p. 566). By trying out what has been acquired, learners have chances to test, and also expand their IL knowledge. The following figure developed by Izumi (2002) reflects clearly the effects of output on L2 .

Ambient speech

(a) intake facilitation noticing consciousness raising

APPERCEIVED INPUT

COMPREHENDED INPUT

(b)hypothesis testing meta-linguistic reflection

INTAKE

(c) fluency Automaticity development

INTEGRATION

OUTPUT

The effects of output on L2 have also been proved through many other studies. Findings from these studies have significant implications on the delivery of language instruction. Acknowledging this, teachers, besides providing opportunities for their students to practise using learnt structures, grammatical points in the classroom context, they would then encourage their students to seek opportunities to test their linguistic knowledge by talking to foreigner, visiting other countries, etc.

We all know the importance of creating situations for learners in the course of L2 . These situations should boost the production of self-initiated comprehensible output. These situations, either inside or outside the classroom context, will help to give learners more opportunities to use the target language. It is worth noting that in the monolingual classroom, there is the possibility that students, while doing their created interactions and repair work, might resort to their shared mother tongue to complete the task or the activity required.

8. Conclusion and recommendation for further studies

It is not easy to say from the above mentioned parts which input is the best type of corrective feedback to learners in the process of L2. It is also difficult to "see" what happens in between the following integrative path of the process and how the reversed arrow (the dotted one) can be established.
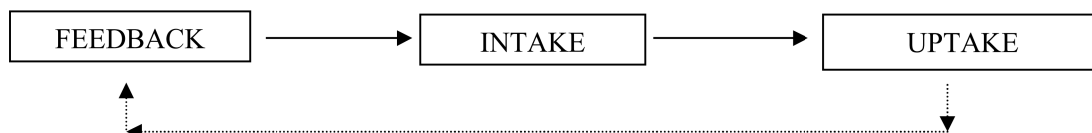
However, with the development of studies on different types of inputs, language teachers are more aware of the fact that not all of what they provide the learners with can be absorbed. They also know that it is necessary to vary corrective feedback in order to meet the need of different types of learners, and at different stages of learning. The study by Mackey (1998) suggests that it is important to take into account the developmental level of the learner. The concept of "accuracy-then-fluency" can and should be modified, and in fact it has been in communicative language teaching approach.

Nicholas et al (2001: 702) also point out that future research is needed to explore the exact conditions under which recasts, and other types of feedback, are likely to be effective in L2. There is a strong need to have research with a matrix reflecting advantages and disadvantages of different types of corrective feedback mentioned in this paper, together with other less known types of input. Such a table will certainly help teachers "see" and "apply" various feedback types in their teaching profession effectively.

REFERENCES

Burt, M.K and Dulay. H.C. (1980) On Acquisition Order. In Felix, S. (Ed). **Second language Development" trends and issues**. Tubingen" Gunter Narr: pp 265-327

Ellis. R. (1997) Second language acquisition, Oxford University Press. **Oxford Introduction to Language Study**

Hatch, E. (1983) Simplified input and second language acquisition. **In R. Andersen (Ed.) Pidgenization and Creolization as language acquisition.** Rowley, MA, Newbury House: pp 149-161

Han, Z-H. (2002b). A study of the impact of recasts on tense consistency in second language acquisition output. *TESOL*

Quarterly, 36, 543-572.

Lightbown, P.M and N. Spada. (1990) Focus-on-Form and Corrective Feedback in Communicative Teaching, **Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12**: 429-488

Long, M. (1981) Input interaction and second language acquisition. In H. Winitz (Ed) **Annals of the New York Academic of Science, Volume 379**: pp, 259-278

Long, M. (1996) The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W.C. Ritchie & T.K. Bhatia (Eds.), **Handbook of Language Acquisition**: Vol. 2: second language acquisition (pp: 413-468), New York: Academic.

Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997) Corrective feedback & learner's uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. **Studies in second language acquisition,** 19: 37-66

Lyster, R. (1998) Recasts, Repetition and Ambiguity in L2 Classroom Discourse. In **Studies in second language acquisition 20** pp: 51-58

Lyster, R. (1998b) Negotiation of Form, recasts and Explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repairs in immersion classrooms. **Language Learning**, 48, 1983-218

Meisel, J., Clahsen, H. and Pienemann, M (1981). On determining developmental sequences in natural L2 . In **Studies in second language acquisition 3** (2): 109-135

Nicholas, H. et al (2001) Recasts as Corrective Feedback to Language Learners. **Language learning 51,** December 2001, pp: 719-758

Pica, T. (1994) Questions from the language classroom: Research Perspectives. **TESOL Quarterly 28** (1)

Swan, M. (1985) Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and communicative output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden)Eds.) **input in Second language acquisition** (pp: 235-253) Rowley, MA. Newbury House.