Stressed Intonation on Recasts: Differential Effects in Comparison with Prompts

Nobuaki Takahashi*

Abstract

This study investigates the differential effects perceptual saliency of recasts in comparison with prompts in the Japanese-as-a-foreign-language (JFL) classrooms in terms of learners' immediate uptake. Motivated by cognitive aspect of language acquisition, it is hypothesized that one crucial factor to determine the effectiveness of recasts is perceptual saliency (e.g., stressed intonation). From 20 hours of first- and second-year level JFL classrooms, two types of recasts (nonsalient recasts vs. salient recasts with stressed intonation and/or facial expression) and prompts were examined on their impacts upon learners' immediate uptake. The results provide a clear picture of differential effects of each feedback, indicating that perceptual saliency adds power to the effectiveness of recasts in triggering learners' noticing and self-correction, while prompts were not affected by perceptual saliency to the similar extent. Perceptual saliency on negotiation moves made clear on their errors but learners further needed positive evidence for self correction.

Keywords: Form-focused instruction, corrective feedback, recasts, prompts, interaction

1. Introduction

In the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), many scholars claim that language development should be encouraged within a realistic and meaningful communication (Long, 1996). However, motivated by Focus on Form (FonF) framework or Interactionist perspective, learners' attention should be directed not only to meaning but also to linguistic forms as necessary (Doughty & Williams, 1998a, 1998b; Long, 1996).

One way to draw learners' attention on linguistic forms during the meaningful communication is to provide corrective feedback on learners' erroneous productions. Whether an error correction works or not depends on various factors such as types of feedback, types of errors, types of task, to name a few. Indeed, despite an intensive investigation on error correction, many scholars have still been attempting to capture how corrective feedback contributes to SLA. This study, by focusing on particular types of corrective feedback (prompts and recasts), attempts to incorporate the notion of 'explicitness' to better explain the effectiveness of recasts in a Japanese-as-a-foreign-language (JFL) classroom setting.

* Elizabethtown College, Pennsylvania, USA, Email: takahashin@etown.edu

2. Literature review

Among a variety of corrective techniques, implicit feedback such as recasts and prompts (e.g., elicitation, clarification requests) has been focused extensively due to its theoretical advantages—drawing learners' attention to forms while maintaining meaningful communication. Indeed, it has been claimed that recasts are the most frequently used feedback in various language instructional settings (Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Despite an intensive investigation, while prompts have been reported beneficial, the results on the effects of recasts have been mixed, especially depending on the instructional settings.

2.1. Laboratory-Based Studies

In general, many studies on corrective feedback in laboratory settings report positive effects of recasts (e.g., Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998). For example, Mackey and Philp (1998) compared three groups (three groups (negotiation group, recast group, and no feedback group) between two proficiency levels—one side was proficiently 'ready' for the target structure (question formation) while the other was proficiently 'unready.' The results show that the opportunity for interaction and intensive recast were beneficial for the groups of learners who were proficient enough to learn the target structure. Braidi (2002) examined the interaction between native speakers and nonnative speakers of English by having them engage in communicative tasks (matching figures, picture drawing, story completion, and conversation about the tasks). The findings show that the recasts impacted positively upon learners' grammaticality, at least in the short term.

In the Japanese language context, Iwashita (2003) compared the effect of negative evidence (prompts and recasts) as compared to positive evidence (completion models) on locative construction and *te*-form of verbs, using pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests. Similarly, Ishida (2004) focuses on recasts provided on the Japanese aspectual form (*-te i-*(*ru*) form of verbs) during weekly conversation sessions. Both studies report positive effects of recasts on the posttest scores or the accuracy of the target structures.

Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) focused exclusively on the explicitness of corrective feedback. In their experimental design, two types of corrective feedback—implicit feedback in a form of recast and explicit feedback in a form of metalinguistic explanation—were compared in terms of low-intermediate ESL learners' acquisition of past tense *–ed*. Three types of tests (oral imitation test, grammaticality judgment test, and metalinguistic knowledge test) were administered to examine learners' implicit and explicit knowledge. The results show that metalinguistic explanation was more effective than implicit feedback (recasts) both for learners' implicit and explicit knowledge development.

In terms of learners' accuracy and fluency, Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) examined the effectiveness of recasts and prompts within the dyadic interaction on the grammatical gender in French. Upon the completion of two weeks of form-focused instructional treatment and interactional opportunities outside class, the results from the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test show that both prompts and recasts positively impacted upon the accuracy as well as the fluency of the targeted structure, partly due to the exposure to the positive exemplars achieved by recasts.

Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) argue that such positive results of recasts in laboratory settings are, due to the fact that 'variables can more easily be controlled,' 'allowing for feedback to be delivered intensively in consistent ways on specific linguistic targets,' (p. 458) which makes recasts more noticeable to learners.

2.2. Classroom-Based Studies

Despite the positive results with regard to corrective feedback, especially recasts in laboratory settings, classroom-based studies show a different trend. This might be attributed to the fact that

classroom interaction is not as controlled as in the experimental settings in terms of the types of errors, types of tasks, types of target linguistic items, and so on.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) is one of the milestones for investigation on the effectiveness of corrective feedback. They examined how various corrective feedback impacted upon the learners' immediate uptake within French immersion classroom interaction and reported that prompts tended to be more effective than recasts to invite learners' self correction. Lyster and Ranta (1997) triggered similar studies in other languages—Oskoz and Liskin-Gasparro (2002), and Morris (2002) in Spanish, Moroishi (2001) in Japanese, Lochtman (2005) in German, and Sheen (2004) in various ESL settings. These studies in various language contexts generally report that recasting was not as effective as prompts to invite learners' successful repair.

Lyster (2004) further investigated the effects of corrective feedback on grammatical gender uses in immersion classrooms. After 5 week-week quasi-experimental treatment using recasts, prompts, or no feedback during regular subject-matter instruction, immediate-posttest and delayed-posttest were administered. The results indicate that, for rule-based L2 development such as grammatical gender in French, form-focused instruction is beneficial, with prompts being more effective than recasts.

Loewen and Philp (2006) examined adult ESL learners on their immediate uptake following the provision of corrective feedback (recasts, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback) as well as the posttest. The results indicate that prompts were more effective than recasts, while recognizing the reason why instructors utilize recasts—less time-consuming, less threatening, and less intrusive for meaningful communication.

In terms of the relationship between corrective feedback and noticing, Mackey (2006) investigated adult ESL learners' erroneous productions on questions, plurals, and past tense forms. The video-taped interaction, on-line journals, retrospective comments, and questionnaire responses revealed that both recasts and negotiation are beneficial to trigger learners' noticing, although they may impact differently on L2 development. Mackey claims that more negotiation may trigger more noticing, rather than single-turn recasting. In addition, it is reported that certain grammatical forms, such as question formations, were likely to be negotiated whereas other forms such as plurals and past tense likely received recasts in the database.

Similar results were reported by Ellis (2007) investigated adult ESL learners' development of past tense *–ed* and comparative *–er*. Based on the oral imitation test, untimed grammaticality judgment test, and metalinguistic knowledge test among three groups (recasts, metalinguistic explanation, and control group), he concluded that metalinguistic explanation, especially on comparative form, were more beneficial than recasts. Sheen (2007) also agrees with this trend. By comparing recasts and metalinguistic correction (provision of correct form followed by metalinguistic explanation) on the use of articles by adult ESL learners, the researcher found that although no significant difference was detected between the recast group and the control group, the metalinguistic correction group outperformed the other two groups.

In a context of English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) in China, Yang and Lyster (2010) examined learners' use of regular and irregular past tense. The participants were randomly assigned to prompt, recast, or control group where they engaged in form-focused production activities. The results show superior effects of prompts over the other groups on regular past tense. However, for irregular past tense, no significant difference was identified between prompts and recasts. This may be attributed to the fact that irregular past tense is similar to item-based learning while regular past tense is more rule-based.

In sum, the studies have shown that prompts are usually effective regardless of the instructional setting whereas recasts are not as quite efficacious in classroom settings. One possible explanation of such ineffectiveness of recasts is the ambiguity of its corrective force (e.g., Oskoz & Liskin-Gasparro, 2002). More specifically, learners often recognize the corrective recast as 'noncorrective repetition,' which is provided as a conversational backchannel after the correct utterances (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000), making recasts equivocal as corrective moves. Laboratory settings, on the other

hand, alleviate the effectiveness of recasts because they are made 'planned recasts' (Ellis & Sheen, 2006) due to the highly controlled environment.

Nevertheless, given the fact that recasts are mainly used in incidental FonF contexts such as classroom settings, it is more beneficial and practical to investigate how unplanned recasts (Ellis & Sheen, 2006) can be made more beneficial for L2 development. In such uncontrolled settings, the explicitness of recasts plays an essential role (Nassaji, 2009).

2.3. Explicitness of Recasts

It is generally agreed upon that both prompts and recasts are both categorized under 'implicit negative evidence' as defined by Long and Robinson (1998). The notion of explicitness of corrective feedback in the field of SLA has been almost exclusively following what Carroll and Swain (1993) define as explicit and implicit correction—explicit correction is a type of correction that 'verbalizes' learners that they are incorrect while implicit correction is done without verbalizing such.

However, the notion of explicitness on corrective feedback has recently been rethought and it has been argued that both recasts and prompts can be provided explicitly. That is, prompts, while being linguistically implicit (i.e., correct form is not verbalized), can be provided in an explicit manner in terms of 'illocutionary force' (i.e., demanding interlocutor's reaction) (Ortega, 2009). Recasts can be provided through input enhancement (Sharwood-Smith, 1993) by making its positive evidence aspect more noticeable (e.g., stressed intonation). Adding such element does not change the fact that the error correction is 'implicit' in Carroll and Swain's (1993) sense, however, made 'explicit' in terms of perceptual saliency (Richards, Platt., & Platt, 1992).

Leeman (2003), while comparing recasts and a negative evidence type of error correction ("but you said" followed by the repetition of the erroneous utterance). The results show that the recast group was the only one outperforming the control group, Leeman claimed that the positive evidence feature of recasts plays more crucial role than the negative evidence feature of it. Adding perceptual saliency may be one of the techniques in order to enhance the positive evidence aspect of recast.

The notion of perceptual saliency has recently been incorporated into the investigation of recasts. For example, stressed intonation on recasts is reported effective in ESL setting (Loewen & Philp, 2006; Nassaji, 2009; Sheen, 2004) and in Japanese (Egi, 2004; Takahashi, 2007). Other techniques include making recasts short, focusing on the reformulated element rather than providing the original erroneous utterances (Egi, 2004; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Philp, 2003; Sheen, 2006), and controlling the discourse function of the recast declarative rather than interrogative or confirmative (Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2006; Takahashi, 2007). Generally, positive results have been reported in terms of eliciting learners' successful uptake.

One of the investigations that is the most relevant to the present study is Nassaji (2009). In this study, Nassaji examined 42 adult ESL learners during task-based interaction with teachers. based on the taxonomy of recasts and prompts moves in Nassaji (2007), recasts and elicitations were categorized differently depending on its explicitness—six subtypes of reformulation (isolated recast-prompt, isolated recast+prompt, embedded recast-prompt, embedded recast+prompt, recast+enhanced prompt, and recast+expansion) and five subtypes of elicitation (unmarked elicitation, marked elicitation, marked elicitation+prompt, marked elicitation+enhanced prompt). Nassaji concluded that explicitness plays a crucial role in both recasts and elicitation. More specifically, both types of corrective feedback impacted on learners' postinteraction correction positively when they were provided in a more explicit manner. In addition, recasts were more benefitted from the effects of explicitness than elicitation.

Yet, a positive remark is also reported in Afshari (2012), claiming that provision of implicit corrective technique—clarification request and recast—resulted in demonstrating the outperformance against post task explicit focus on form in an experimental setting in Iranian EFL context. It should be noted, however, that the 'implicit' focus-on-form technique in this study is almost exclusively in a form of combination of clarification request and recast, whose explicitness level may be elevated as compared to a single clarification request or recast move.

In sum, the above studies share similar results that (a) recasts were made perceptually salient but verbally implicit at the same time, (b) perceptually salient recasts effectively drew learners' noticing and invited successful uptake more frequently than nonsalient recasts, and (c) perceptually salient recasts can still maintain meaningful communication.

Nonetheless, much research in explicit recasts or prompts is laboratory-based and it is inconclusive whether the positive results were due to the perceptual saliency or the laboratory setting itself. Thus, it is essential to probe how perceptual saliency contributes to the effectiveness of corrective feedback in uncontrolled classroom settings.

Research Questions

As discussed above, one possible way to make the recasts more effective and noticeable in uncontrolled interactional settings is to add perceptual saliency. Perceptually salient recasts should, regardless of instructional settings, be more effective than nonsalient as well as prompts, due to its possession of positive evidence. Motivated by this assumption, the following research questions have been formulated for the present study.

RQ 1: Do the effectiveness of perceptually salient recasts and nonsalient recasts differ in terms of the learners' immediate successful uptake rate in the first- and second-year JFL classrooms?

RQ2: Do the effectiveness of perceptually salient recasts and nonsalient recasts differ in terms of the learners' immediate successful uptake rate as compared to prompts in the first- and second-year JFL classrooms?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

Participants in this study are 29 university level first-(n=11) and second-year (n=18) JFL students and 4 JFL teachers. Two teachers teach the first-year course while the other two teach the second-year course. The teachers are all female native speakers of Japanese. The 11 students in the first-year course include 4 males and 7 females, who are between 18 and 22-years-old. The 18 second-year students are 10 males and 8 females, ranging from 18- to 36-years-old. The participants' language backgrounds are English, Chinese, and Korean.

3.2. Database

The database consists of videotaped teacher-student interaction in the JFL classrooms. More specifically, five classroom instructions were videotaped per teacher, resulting in a total of twenty classes of videotaped classroom data.

Each classroom interaction was transcribed and coded based on the type of corrective feedback, namely, prompts, nonsalient recasts, and salient recasts as well as on learners' uptake immediately following the provision of teachers' corrective feedback.

3.3. Procedures and analysis

First, each teacher and student was asked to fill out the consent form upon agreeing to participate in this study. The consent form consists of the information required by the institution. It should be mentioned that the consent form indicates that this particular study investigates the effectiveness of corrective feedback, albeit not specifying the particular error correction technique being focused in this study.

Upon completion of the consent form, the researcher visited the first- and second-year Japanese classes taught by the participating instructors five times and videotaped the classroom interaction. The classes to be videotaped were selected somewhat randomly. The only condition for videotaping was the amount of teacher-student interaction. Therefore, by asking the instructors about the content of a given class beforehand and classes that were exclusively focusing on reading and writing with minimum oral interaction were avoided.

Each videotaped classroom interaction was transcribed with nonverbal elements, following DuBois, Schuetze-Cobum, Cumming, & Paolino (1993) such as stressed intonation, facial expression, tone of voice. (See Appendix). From the transcribed data, each erroneous production by the students was identified and the teacher's reaction was checked. The Initiation-Response-Follow up (IRF) routines (Ohta, 1999) were extracted from the data. More specifically, initiation stage consists of learners' formal errors on the target language, response phase is a provision of corrective feedback by the teacher, and the follow up stage is learners' reactions to the teacher feedback. As this study focuses on how prompts and recasts impact on learners' immediate uptake, error episode with no teacher feedback or with other types of corrective feedback (e.g., repetition, metalinguistic feedback) was not included.

Each transcribed classroom interaction, then, was coded in terms of (a) the type of corrective feedback, and (b) the accuracy of the learner's uptake in comparison with their original erroneous utterance. If a response immediately following the provision of one of the three types of corrective feedback consisted of a repaired form of the original error, one point was given. If no successful repair was recognized, zero point was given. Using the scores, the successful repair rates were calculated depending on the three types of corrective feedback.

It should also be noted that approximately 25% of the transcribed and coded data were shared and discussed in person with two native speakers of Japanese until the interrater reliability reached to 100%.

4. Results

Overall, the data consists of 150 error episodes that received one of the three types of corrective feedback that were the focus in this study. Of the 150 episodes, 73 cases were identified in the first-year level while 77 cases were from the second-year level classrooms. Organizing by the proficiency levels and the types of corrective feedback, the results are shown in the Table 1 below:

Table 1. The frequency of error episodes depending on the proficiency levels and types of corrective feedback

|	Prompts (PRO)	Nonsalient recasts (NSR)	Salient recasts (SR)
First-year (n=73)	57	5	11
Second-year (n=77)	43	17	17

Of 73 error episodes in the first-year level classrooms, 57, or 78.08% of the learner errors invited prompts from the instructors. Nonsalient recasts (NSR) were provided in 5 cases (6.85%) while salient recasts (SR) were provided in 11 cases (15.07%). In the second-year level classrooms, of 77 error episodes, prompts (PRO) were selected for error correction by the teachers 43 cases (55.84%), followed by recasts, both of which occurred in 17 cases (22.08%).

Table 2. The successful repair rates depending on the proficiency levels and types of corrective feedback

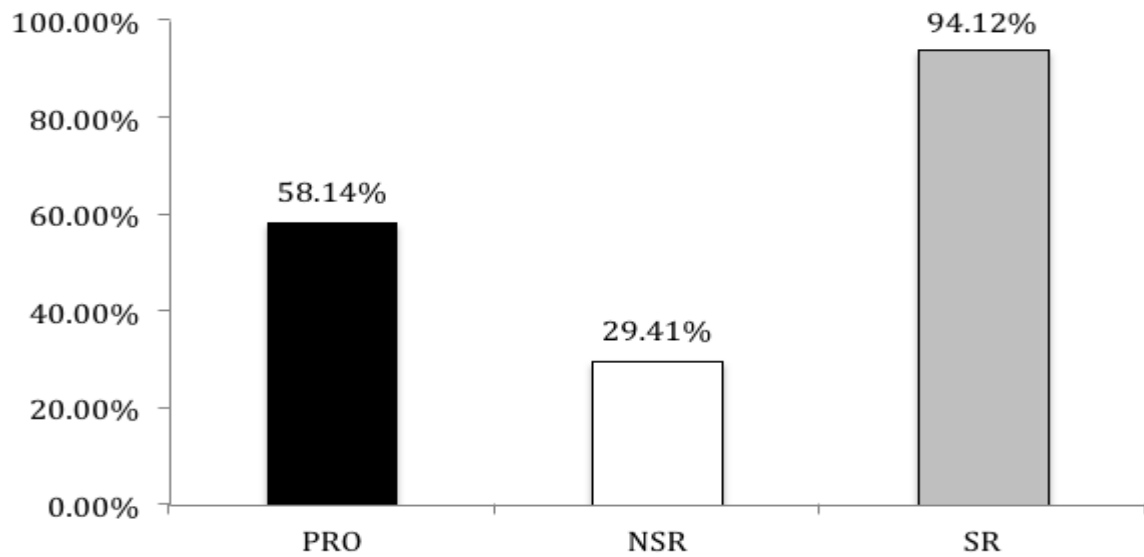|	Prompts (PRO)	Nonsalient recasts (NSR)	Salient recasts (SR)
First-year (n=73)	35/57 (61.40%)	2/5 (40.00%)	11/11 (100%)
Second-year (n=77)	25/43 (58.14%)	5/17 (29.41%)	16/17 (94.12%)

Table 2 shows the successful repair rate for each corrective feedback. In the first-year level classrooms, SR was the most effective method of error correction in terms of triggering the learners' self-correction (11/11, or 100%), followed by PRO (35/57, or 61.40%). The least effective feedback was NSR, which led to learners' self-correction in 2 cases (40.00%). These results are also shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Successful repair rates depending on the types of corrective feedback in the first-year Japanese classrooms
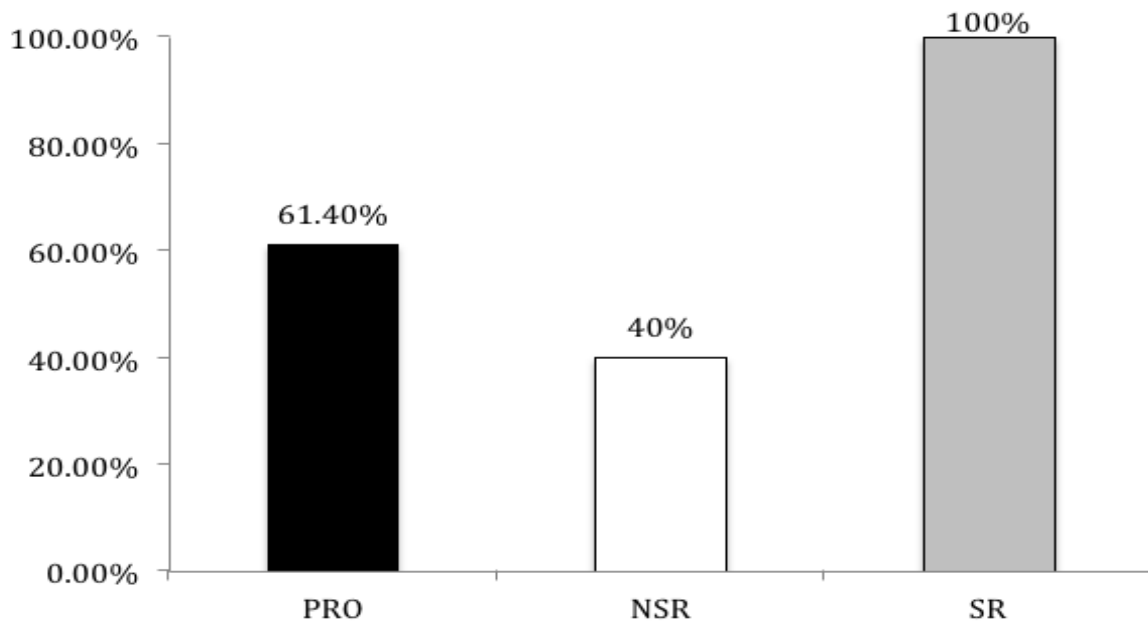
In the second-year level classrooms, although the successful repair rates were generally lower than the ones observed in the first-year level classrooms, a similar tendency was identified. More specifically, again, SR was the most effective in attracting learner repair (16/17, or 94.12%), followed by PRO (25/43, or 58.14%). As was the case in the first-year level, the least effective feedback was NSR, resulting in learners' self-repair in 5 cases out of 17 episodes (19.41%). These results are also presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Successful repair rates depending on the types of corrective feedback in the second-year Japanese classrooms

In sum, the results show that, in both the first- and second-year level Japanese classrooms, salient recasts triggered the learners' successful uptake at the highest rates. Prompts were also effective, given the fact that more than half of the errors were repaired by the provision of either elicitation or clarification request. Although there are cases that nonsalient recasts led to learner repair, it was the least effective corrective feedback in comparison with the other two types of feedback in this particular study.

5. Discussion

This study partly confirmed the previous findings in that prompts were more beneficial in terms of triggering learners' successful uptake as compared to recasts, when provided in a truly implicit manner without any perceptual saliency added. However, it is essential to investigate the reason for the results by examining what happened when an error correction did not successfully trigger learners' self-correction both in cases of nonsalient recasts and prompts. Furthermore, the overwhelming power to draw learners' self-correction observed in this study should be considered with caution. Thus, possible problematic issues for each error correction technique will be discussed.

5.1. Issues on nonsalient recasts

By examining the cases that nonsalient recasts did not invite learners' repair, the data show that, in most cases (all cases in the first-year level, and 10 times out of 12 cases in the second-year level), learners' reaction to the recast was '*hai'* (Yes).

As mentioned above, one of the issues of recast is that, due to the similar (if not identical) surface structure with noncorrective repetition. As a result, it may cause ambiguity when it is not clear to the learners whether the recast intends to correct the errors or to function as a discourse backchannel (e.g., confirmation, asking for agreement) in a form of noncorrective repetition.

The conclusion must be confirmed by tapping into what the participants were actually thinking at the time of interaction by utilizing further investigation such as a stimulated recall protocol. However, it can safely be assumed that responding to a teacher recast with '*hai'* (Yes) is most likely the result of perceiving the recast as noncorrective repetition and, in this study, almost all nonsalient recasts were perceived as such by the participants.

Moreover, there are two cases in the second-year level classroom interaction that the participants did not respond with '*hai*' but repeated the same erroneous utterances. This may be because the participants, while recognizing their own errors, failed to catch what was reformulated in teacher recasts due to the fact that the second-year level errors were linguistically and cognitively more complicated than the ones in the first-year level classrooms.

5.2. Issues on prompts

Although prompts can be considered effective to successfully trigger learner's self-correction, the repair rates, in both proficiency levels, were in the vicinity of 60%. Although it is one aspect in this study to find how prompts contribute to learners' immediate uptake, it is equally essential to examine the episodes that did not lead to successful uptake.

Of 22 cases in 57 error episodes in the first-year level, and 18 cases in 43 error episodes in the second-year level, in which prompts were provided, the learners' responses to the teacher feedback was divided into three patterns—repetition of the original erroneous form, reformulation of an item that was not the focus of the error correction, or unsuccessful reformulation on the targeted item.

The results are very similar to Takahashi (2007) in which learners' cognitive process at the time of interaction was sought via stimulated recall sessions. Three patterns were observed when prompts did not trigger learners' successful repair: (a) learners thought their interlocutors did not hear the original utterance, (b) learners recognized the error correction, but prompts were not specific enough in terms of the location of the error in the original utterance, and (c) learners simply did not know the correct form of a given item.

Considering the three patterns of the unsuccessful cases in the prompts episodes, (a) above may case repetition of the original errors. As learners simply thought what they have said was not heard by their interlocutors, they most likely repeat the original sentence without any modification. In case of (b), it likely invites reformulation of untargeted item or unsuccessful reformulation. Clarification requests usually ask learners to repeat or tell learners that s/he did not understand them, it is often ambiguous as to the specific location of the error. As a result, learners are forced to second guess themselves in terms of what item to be reformulated, which may or may not be the target of the error correction. Elicitation, on the other hand, tends to be unambiguous as the original utterance is repeated to the point where an error exists. In this case, learners may be clear on what feature to repair, it may or may not be repaired depending on the learners' knowledge and skills on the particular feature. In other words, if learners do not know the correct form of the given item, solely pointing out that they are incorrect does not necessarily solve the problem, which is the case of (c) and learners, while recognizing something problematic in their utterances, can only repeat the original utterance again or change a part of the utterance to the best of their ability.

It should also be noted that, although perceptual saliency can be added to prompts, it only has a marginal effect, which is similar to Nassaji (2009)—recasts are more benefited from explicitness than elicitation moves. Adding stressed intonation or facial expression on elicitation likely minimizes (a) above (learners think they were not acoustically heard). However, in classroom instruction, prompts are usually perceived as corrective feedback by the students and issues such as (a) occur in certain circumstances (e.g., road construction is going on outside of the building). In many cases, learners fail to repair because they cannot solve the linguistic problem by themselves.

Therefore, prompts may be a powerful and beneficial tool for the errors that learners can repair by themselves by providing the opportunity for repair. However, negative evidence may not be sufficient when learners need to be provided an answer. In such case, positive evidence, such as recasts, may be more beneficial for using the limited classroom instruction time effectively as well as for learners' affective factors (rather than keep asking them to repeat until a correct form is produced).

5.3. Issues on salient recasts

One of the most significant findings in this study is the overwhelming force of salient recasts to trigger learners' successful repair. Despite caution must be taken to interpret the result due to the small number of recasts compared to prompts, the corrective force of salient recasts was found much more robust than nonsalient recasts or prompts.

However, it is not desirable to overuse this particular error correction. One possible issue is that learners may be overpowered by its strong corrective force. Although salient recasts in this study did not interfere with the flow of communication, learners may be intimidated or embarrassed by such overt manner of correction, depending on their personality (this may apply to any corrective feedback in this regard).

The second issue is that the corrective intent of salient recasts may overshadow learners' noticing on their own errors. In Takahashi (2007), participants' self-correction rates were higher than noticing rates, which means that there were cases that learners correct themselves by repeating what the teachers say without realizing that they have made an error. As learners' perception on the corrective feedback was not investigated in this study, the extent to which the salient recasts led to learners' repairs with their noticing on erroneous item is inconclusive. However, the importance of 'noticing' has been claimed by many researchers (Philp, 2003; Schmidt, 1990, 1995, 2001). In addition, Swain (1985) claims that it is crucial for learners to monitor and analyze their own utterances (metalinguistic analysis) in second/foreign language acquisition. Therefore, the salient recasts should be provided in a way to trigger the learners' self-monitoring or metalinguistic analysis (whether learners notice the error and the corrective intent of the feedback) rather than simply focusing on the surface structure (whether the error was repaired immediately following the corrective feedback).

6. Conclusion

This study attempts to investigate the effect of perceptual saliency added to recasts as compared to nonsalient recasts and prompts in more meaning-oriented classroom settings (as compared to more form-focused laboratory settings). The results show a notable difference in the corrective force and impact of salient recasts toward the learners' immediate utterances. However, it should also be noted that salient recast is not a panacea for all errors and various types of error correction techniques should be selected depending on a situation.

Prompts can be a very beneficial form of error correction when learners are proficient enough to repair their own errors. In this case, rather than providing a correct form in a form of positive evidence, learners should be pushed and challenged to solve the problem by themselves by providing a negative evidence such as elicitation and clarification requests. Yet, there are cases in which learners cannot retrieve the correct answer from their knowledge. In this case, provision of positive evidence is essential. In so doing, nonsalient recasts may be too implicit for learners to notice their own errors the corrective intent of recasts. In such case, adding one (or more) perceptual saliency element, such as facial expression, gestures, stressed intonation, may make the recasts more explicit or noticeable as corrective feedback. Nevertheless, salient recasts, among other types of error correction techniques, should be used effectively so that learners' metalinguistic analysis is encouraged within the meaningful communication.

As in all studies, there are notable limitations in this study. First, the sample size and limited proficiency levels should be mentioned. Future studies should involve more teachers, more classroom interactions, and more proficiency levels such as advanced level Japanese classes. Second, given the fact that this study was based on classroom settings, it is essential to recognize that a variety of factors may have contributed to the results. More specifically, in addition to the effect of corrective feedback, other factors such as task types (e.g., grammar practice, discussion), error types (e.g., lexical, morphosyntactic, phonological), individual learners' motivation, sociocultural factors (relationship between teacher and students) on a given interactional opportunity. Third, although this study only

measures the effectiveness of corrective feedback based on the participants immediate uptake, issues such as noticing and perception should also be examined by tapping into learners' cognitive processes by means of techniques such as stimulated recall. In addition, long-term effect must also be explored by post- and delayed-post test design. Fourth, this study only considered the repair rates to claim the superior effectiveness of salient recasts. However, further statistical analyses are due for identifying the significance, if any, among these three types of corrective feedback. Lastly, the present study investigates a line of single error episode. Nevertheless, especially when an error correction does not work in a classroom instruction, it may be common that an instructor keeps correcting until learners' self-repair is achieved. In such case, there may be a pattern in terms of the explicitness of error correction (e.g., starting from a more implicit to more explicit manner). Further investigation at a more profound level on cases in which an error correction does not work is as important as examining how corrective feedback successfully triggers learners' self-repair.

In conclusion, it is my suggestion, albeit highly ambitious, that classroom teachers recognize that there is no one panacea to correct learners' errors and that a best possible error correction should be selected and provided on a given occasion based on a variety of factors such as error types, task types, target linguistic items. As a final note, I hope this study contributes to explain at least one of the numerous aspects of recasts and its effectiveness.

Biodata:

Nobuaki Takahashi is an Assistant Professor of Japanese and Asian Studies at Elizabethtown College. He received his BA in English from Kanda University of International Studies, MA in Asian Civilization and PhD in SLA from the University of Iowa. His research interests include SLA in Japanese and form-focused instruction.

References

Afshari, S. (2012). Reexamining the role of implicit and explicit focus on form: Iranian EFL context. *International Journal of Linguistics, 4*, 306-322.

Braidi, S. (2002). Reexamining the role of recasts in native-speaker/non-native speaker interactions. *Language Learning, 52*, 1-42.

Carroll, S., & Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback. An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15*, 357-386.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998a). Issues and terminology. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 1-11). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998b). Pedagogical choices in focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 197-262). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

DuBois, J., Schuetze-Coburn, S., Cumming, S., & Paolino, D. (1993). Outline of discourse transcription. In J. Edwards & M. D. Lambert (Eds.), *Talking data: Transcription and coding in discourse research* (pp. 45-90). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.

Egi, T. (2004). *Recasts, perceptions, and l2 development.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Georgetown University, Washington, DC.

Ellis, R. (2007). The differential effects of corrective feedback on two grammatical structures. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studi*es (pp. 407-452). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*, 339-369.

Ellis, R. & Sheen, Y. (2006). Re-examining the role of recasts in L2 acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*, 575-600.

Ishida, M. (2004). Effects of recasts on the acquisition of the aspectual form *-te i-(ru)* by learners of Japanese as a foreign language. *Language Learning, 54*, 311-394.

Iwashita, N. (2003). Negative feedback and positive evidence in task-based interaction: Differential effects on L2 development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 25*, 1-36.

Leeman, J. (2003). Recasts and second language development: Beyond negative evidence. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 25*, 37-63.

Lochtman, K. (2005). Negative feedback and learner uptake in analytic foreign language teaching. In A. Housen & M. Pierrard (Eds.), *Investigations in instructed second language acquisition* (pp. 307-326). New York, NY: Mouton de Gruyter.

Loewen, S., & Philp, J. (2006). Recasts in the adult English L2 classroom: Characteristics, explicitness, and effectiveness. *Modern Language Journal, 90*, 536-556.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Long, M. H., Inagaki, S., & Ortega, L. (1998). The role of negative feedback in SLA: Models and recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *Modern Language Journal, 82*, 537-371.

Long, M. H., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 15-41). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 26*, 399-432.

Lyster, R., & Izquierdo, J. (2009). Prompts versus recasts in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning, 59*, 453-498

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*, 37-66.

Mackey, A. (2006). Feedback, noticing, and second language development: An empirical study of L2 classroom interaction. *Applied Linguistics, 27*, 405-430.

Mackey, A., Gass, S. M., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*, 471-497.

Mackey, A., & Philp, J. (1998). Conversational interaction and second language development: Recast responses, and red herring? *Modern Language Journal, 82*, 338-356.

Moroishi, M. (2001). Nihongo kyooshi no iinaoshi no shiyoo no koosatsu (Consideration of the use of recasts by Japanese language teachers). *Gengogaku to Nihongo Kyooiku II (Linguistics and Japanese Language Education II),* 237-252.

Morris, F. A. (2002). Negotiation and recasts in relation to error types and learner repair. *Foreign Language Annals, 35*, 395-404.

Nassaji, H. (2007). Elicitation and reformulation and their relationship with learner repair in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning, 57*, 511-548.

Nassaji, H. (2009). Effects of recasts and elicitations in dyadic interaction and the role of feedback explicitness. *Language Learning, 59*, 411-452.

Ohta, A. S. (1999). Interactional routines and the socialization of interactional style in adult learners of Japanese. *Journal of Pragmatics, 31*, 1493-1512.

Ortega, L. (2009). *Understanding second language acquisition.* London: Hodder Education.

Oskoz, A., & Liskin-Gasparro, J. (2002). Corrective feedback, learner uptake, and teacher's beliefs: A pilot study. In X. Bonch-Bruevich, W. J. Crawford, J. Hellermann, C. Higgins & H. Nguyen (Eds.), *The past, present and future of second language research selected proceedings of the 2000 second language research forum* (pp. 209-228). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press.

Philp, J. (2003). Constraints on 'noticing the gap': Nonnative speakers' noticing of recasts in NS-NNS interaction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 25*, 99-126.

Richards, J., Platt, J., & Platt, H. (1992). *Longman dictionary of applied linguistics* (2nd. ed.). London: Longman Group Ltd.

Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*, 129-158.

Schmidt, R. W. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 1-63). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i.

Schmidt, R. W. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3-32). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Sharwood-Smith, M. (1993). Input enhancement in instructed SLA: Theoretical bases. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15*, 165-179.

Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research, 8*, 263-300.

Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research, 10*, 361-392.

Sheen, Y. (2007). The effects of corrective feedback, language aptitude and learner attitudes on the acquisition of English articles. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 301-322). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

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

Takahashi, N. (2007). *The differential effects of perceptual saliency on recasts in L2 Japanese: Learners' noticing, interpretation, detection, and subsequent oral production.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA.

Yang, Y., & Lyster, R. (2010). Effects of form-focused practice and feedback on Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*, 235-263.

APPENDIX

Symbols for discourse transcription

Table A-1. Symbols for discourse transcription

Units		Vocal Noises	
Intonation unit	{carriage return}	Vocal noises	( )
Truncated intonation unit	--	Inhalation	(H)
Word	{space}	Exhalation	(Hx)
Truncated word	-	Laughter	@
Speaker identity/turn start	:		
Speech overlap	[ ]	Quality	
		Laugh	<@ @>
Transitional Continuity		Rhythmic	<RH RH>
Final	.	Whispered	<WH WH>
Continuing	,	Yawning	<YWN YWN>
Appeal	?	Loud (forte)	<F F>
		Soft (piano)	<P P>
Terminal Pitch Direction and Lengthening		Rapid (allegro)	<A A>
Fall	↓	Slow (lento)	<L L>
Rise	/	Emphasized	<MRC MRC>
Level	_		
Lengthening	=	Transcriber's Perspective	
		Researcher's comment	(( ))
Pause		Uncertain hearing	<X X>
Long	…(N)	Indecipherable syllable	X
Medium	…		
Short	..	Specialized Notations	
Latching	(0)	Code switching	<L1 L1>

Source: DuBois, Schuetze-Cobum, Cumming, & Paolino. (1993). Outline of discourse transcription. In Edwards & Lambert (Eds), *Talking data: Transcription and coding in discourse research* (p. 45-90). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.