

The Use of Corrective Feedback in the Japanese Communicative Learning Environment

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Abstract

This study was based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) research questions and coding methodology, which sought to identify the distribution of feedback, uptake and repair in communicative classroom environments. During this exploratory research project, 10 Japanese students from 4 different Oral Communications III classes at Komazawa were recorded for a total of 3 hours over a 5-week period in order to establish a Corrective Feedback framework for Time-Pair Practice (TPP). All Oral Communications classes use the Tasked-Based TPP methodology at Komazawa, where students are asked to research, create and discuss topics. There are preparation days and test days with the latter being the focus of the research into Corrective Feedback. On test days, students are asked to speak in random pairs in front of the class and have a thoughtful discussion related to the topic practiced in the prior class. If students make a mistake, they or their partner must correct the error or the teacher ends the conversation with implicit or explicit Corrective Feedback. The results from the research showed that explicit feedback was used most by the researcher, and although it led to the most amount of "uptake", it also led to the highest number of "no uptake". Furthermore, less explicit forms of correction, such as elicitation, clarification requests and recasts, were more successful in creating opportunities for learner uptake and repair. Student-generated Corrective Feedback reaffirmed the findings, as clarification requests were the most practical for promoting repair amongst peers.

Key words: Corrective Feedback (CF), repair, uptake, implicit feedback, explicit feedback, time-paired practice, and Task-Based Learning

1. INTRODUCTION

The Department of Global Media Studies at Komazawa University adapted Time-Paired Practice (TPP) in 2004 to develop authentic oral exchanges, language awareness and reflective learning (Moe, 2005). TPP is a Task-Based Learning approach that incorporates random impromptu interactions and Corrective Feedback (hereafter CF) to help students identify and repair their errors. Rather than teaching English grammatically, TPP expects that students have an established understanding of English as it attempts to access their prior learning through discourse (Moe, 2005). If students make mistakes during random interactions, CF is given to resolve impeding errors and promote repair. "Leaving the learners' errors unnoticed might result in the fossilization of erroneous structures; thus they should not be neglected at any cost" (Abdollahzadeh, 2011, p. 64).

At Komazawa, we believe that students are able to move to higher levels of self-regulation without assistance by using CF, "negotiation of language", and Task-Based Learning (Ellis, 2012, p. 136). Task-based researchers believe that EFL students have an instinctive ability

to absorb grammar rules implicitly and that input is more memorable through social contexts (Zhang, 2009); therefore, students should be given chances to experiment with language in order to discover and learn from their mistakes. Different forms of CF are used on TPP test days in order to increase students' awareness, such as explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition.

Unfortunately, as Ellis (2012) states, the appropriate CF has yet to be successfully documented empirically for teaching approaches. Moreover, researchers have found that uptake and repair are bound to the context and "socio-affective behaviors" of the classroom (p. 137). The EFL learning environment is a very dynamic environment and social variations make CF a complex phenomenon. Instead of trying to solve issues from a global standpoint, we must reflect on the individual teaching setting in order to determine which CF leads to repair and uptake. Hence, in order to select the suitable CF techniques for teaching environments, teachers must take into account the learners' characteristics and the sociocultural aspects of the classroom in order to assist students in repairing inaccuracies (Abdollahzadeh, 2011). "Therefore, it seems what matters more is not the question 'to correct or not to correct', but rather how to correct" (p. 63).

2. LITERARY REVIEW

CF has been the center of a number of investigations into classroom education "with the earliest studies in the 70's, which were concerned with descriptive findings of teachers' error treatment in a variety of classroom settings" (Sheen, 2004, p. 265). Hendrickson (as cited in Ellis, 2012, p. 136) was one of the first researchers to analyze CF from a sociocultural perspective, and he proposed that there are a number of questions that have plagued linguists for ages:

- Should students be corrected?
- When should students be corrected?
- Which errors should be corrected?
- How should errors be corrected?
- Who should do the correcting?

Theorists have attempted to answer these questions with varying results, but one of the most influential studies was the research conducted by Lyster and Ranta in 1997. They recorded and analyzed 18.3 hours of CF in four Canadian French immersion classes in an attempt to

answer Hendrickson's (1978) fourth question: "How should students be corrected?" They defined CF as any indication that a student's "utterance" contains an error or is incomprehensible to the listener (p. 45). The largest accomplishment of the study was the formation of the six categories of CF that are still used by linguists today: recast, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback and repetition. Additionally, Lyster and Ranta defined two other terms to explain students' responses following CF called "no uptake and uptake" (Ellis, 2012, p. 135). "No uptake" was an instance where students could not comprehend or disregarded CF. "Uptake was a student's utterance that immediately followed the Corrective Feedback and constituted a reaction in some way to the initiators' intention to draw the learner's attention to some aspect of the initial utterance" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). In other terms, it was a student's attempt to correct themselves after CF had been applied. Lyster and Ranta (1997) divided the students' responses of CF into two categories called "repair" and "needs repair" (p. 50). "Repair" signified that students had successfully used the feedback and were able to fix the original mistake through repetition, incorporation, self-repair or peer-repair. "Needs repair" was a situation where students unsuccessfully corrected errors by means of acknowledgement, same errors, different errors, off target errors, hesitation, and partial repair. In this study, Lyster and Ranta statistically established that "uptake and repair were valid forms of measurement that could be used to gauge students' L2 learning" (Russell, 2009, p. 25). Alas, many researchers to this day have avidly debated the findings of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) research and advocate that uptake does not necessarily determine future recall of linguistic information.

Although the findings in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) research were very insightful for the sociocultural function of CF, many aspects of their findings have been challenged (Loewen, 2003; Long, 2006; Sheen, 2004), especially concerning the effectiveness of recasts in different teaching contexts and the validity of uptake constituting L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2012). Lyster and Ranta (as cited in Russell, 2009, p. 22) found that "recasts appeared to be the most general error correction move employed by teachers, but they were the least effective in terms of uptake and repair with nearly 70% of recasts going unnoticed by the students". In a later study, Panova and Lyster (2002) also discovered that L2 learners did not understand or notice recasts (Kim, 2005; Suzuki, 2005). "In 2004, Lyster compared recasts to prompts, which included elicitations, metalinguistic cues, clarification requests, and repetitions. He found that prompts were more effective than recasts for learners' acquisition" (Russell, 2009, p. 23). Ohta and Nakane (2004) argued the findings stating that recasts were more beneficial than any other form of CF (Russell

& Spada, 2006). Long (2006) also asserted that foreign and second language teachers should not reject the use of recasts only because they have been found to be ambiguous in some immersion classroom settings (Russell, 2009). Additionally, many dispute that Lyster's work looked at CF and uptake in a Canadian ESL classrooms, "but it seems that the classrooms they observed were unlike many ESL classrooms in North American contexts and more similar to EFL contexts where students shared a common language" (Suzuki, 2005, p. 5). "A number of other researchers (Ayoum, 2001; Braidi, 2002; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Han, 2002; Havranek, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Oliver & Mackey, 2003) have also established that the context plays an important role in determining if recasts are successful" (Russell, 2009, p. 23). Furthermore, Sheen (2004) found that the conditions of the language acquisition determined if recasts were effective; he also noticed that uptake and repair were different depending on the teaching context. Yoshida (2008) found that teachers used different types of CF in response to the context of their teaching environment and "whether or not they felt that particular forms of CF would benefit their students" (Ellis, 2012, p. 141). Secondly, a large debate over the validity of uptake has been a central focal point for CF researchers. According to some, uptake and repair do not justify that students have learned anything, but they are "merely a discourse phenomenon, which may or may not be related to the psycholinguistic processes involved in language acquisition" (Sheen, 2004, p. 266). The main issue was that Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study was only concerned with "single moves" of CF, uptake and repair that only existed in one single turn rather than in later conversations (p. 42-45). This meant that no long-term effect was observed to affirm that CF was promoting L2 acquisition over time. To avoid similar criticism, later authors used pre-tests, post-tests, delayed post-tests, surveys and laboratory-based research in lieu of uptake and repair. They believed that deeper insights into student vs. teachers' preferences, short vs. long-term effects, and implicit vs. explicit CF could be properly documented (Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011). Although, many researchers are still debating many aspects of CF, the topologies that have been defined by prior researchers have allowed others to investigate the strategies related to CF in different teaching approaches.

Task-Based Learning emerged as a teaching approach in the late 80's, gaining momentum with researchers like Nunan (1989) advocating the approach for fluency driven communication (Ellis, 2012). According to Ellis (as cited in Abdollahzadeh, 2011, p. 54) typically, "a task-based lesson consists of three phases or stages: a pre-task phase, a during-task phase and a post-task phase." Task-Based Learning is not a "dichotomous methodology", rather

it is based on a few guiding principles with the first belief being that language should be treated as discourse where students are the initiators (Ellis, 2012). Additionally, the negotiation of meaning is mutual, and grammar is a secondary goal with “less focus being placed on form and accuracy” (p. 196-197). The tasks should be appropriate for the students’ level and require them to rely on linguistic skills in order to complete the activities. Task-Based Learning is often associated with Focus-on-Form since CF is often used to draw students’ attention to errors rather than using pre-teaching content. “Ellis (2003) introduced three types of tasks, namely: structure-based production tasks, comprehension tasks, and consciousness-raising tasks” (as cited in Abdollahzadeh, 2011, p. 54). Each task has a responsibility and affects the context of the language classroom differently with the purpose of using “natural language” to draw students’ attention to form in a “focused” or “unfocused” manner (Ellis, 2012, p. 197). Many textbooks have been published about Task-Based Learning over the past decade, with the popularity amongst researchers in the field of CF growing simultaneously. Abdollahzadeh (2011) researched the effects of recasts in a Task-Based Learning environment and established that “different ages in the study revealed that recasts were more beneficial for adults than adolescents” (p. 65). A study at another Iranian university by Yousefi and Biria (2011) found that in a task-based environment students had the highest amount of uptake and repair using recasts. In contrast, Razaei and Derakhshan (2011) concluded that metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recasts in the Iranian teaching environment because learners often expect more explicit CF. In a Japanese Task-Based Learning research project, Iwashita (as cited in Russell & Spada, 2006) found that using metalinguistic and elicitation helped more advanced students master grammatical targets at a higher frequency, but lower-level students required more implicit feedback. Even with all of the differences surrounding the findings of CF in Task-Based Learning, researchers are in agreement about one main point; “students are less inhibited to make mistakes and give correction when they are conducting exercises that promote CF” (Russell & Spada, 2006).

The purpose of TPP (Time-Paired Practice) at Komazawa is to raise students’ awareness of errors with Ellis’s (2011) CF correction sequence of self, peer, class and then teacher. There are four sections of Oral Communications using TPP, each with its own set of objectives and goals (Moe, 2005). Oral Communication III (OCIII) attempts to utilize a Task-Based Learning model by using two different teaching days, which are called “TPP practice days” and “TPP test days” (Moe, 2005, p. 199). Students complete the pre-task phase outside of class and create

authentic works to answer the questions posed by the instructor. The practice days allow teachers to introduce the topic and sets goals for discussions at the beginning of the lesson. Students work in pairs and groups during the production tasks to develop speaking fluency skills without being inhibited by CF. Additionally, the teacher requires students to assist each other when errors arise during consciousness-raising tasks (Moe, 2005). Students are often asked to summarize what they have talked about with their partners or groups orally and contribute to a class brainstorm during the reporting stage. In the final task, students undergo more structure-based tasks while reflecting on their mistakes through pair conversation. TPP test days are used as the post-task phase, and the students focus on the meaning of the language with the aim of improving their spontaneous conversational ability while drawing attention to language form through CF (Moe, 2005). The TPP system selects two student pairings at random, and they then debate the topic in a fishbowl discussion¹. Finally, students individually speak directly to the teacher in front of the class two or three more times. After each lesson, all of the data is recorded into the students' database, which can be viewed by students at any time to reflect on their skills and weaknesses².

Teachers design and execute their own Task-Based Learning curriculum at Komazawa University in the Department of Global Media Studies, but there is no suggested procedure for giving CF during TPP test days. Over the spring semester of 2011, ten students (Figure 1) were recorded over a 5-week period in four Oral Communication III classes at Komazawa University in hopes of uncovering a successful topology for giving CF within the TPP context.

Theoretically, the optimization of CF could increase the chances of uptake and L2 learning. Therefore during this exploratory research project, different variations of CF, uptake and repair were observed using the same research structure and coding methodology as Lyster and Ranta (1997) in hopes of answering the following questions:

1. What is the distribution of CF in TPP?
2. Which types of CF are the most and least successful for uptake and repair in TPP?

3. METHOD

3.1 Participants

¹ A video sample of a TPP test day can be found at <http://youtu.be/oSKgld9eLPY> .

² Komazawa University uses a Learning Management System called Study Suite, which can be found at <http://www.study-suite.com/>

All of the participants in the study were third and fourth year students studying OCIII in the department Global Media Studies (GMS) at Komazawa University during the spring semester of 2011. As illustrated in Figure 1, ten students were chosen from four different sections of OCIII based on a number of criteria with the aim of observing the most average learners in the program. Students who were older than twenty-two, had studied abroad, studied English for more than ten years or gained higher than five-hundred on the TOEIC were excluded from the study. The researcher further excluded participants by analyzing grades and homework assignments, excluding all students who did not fall within +/-2 of the mean score.

Figure 1. Participants selected for the Corrective Feedback research project

Student	Age	Sex	OCIII Class	Studied Abroad	English Study	TOEIC Score	OCIII Score	Homework Completed
S1	20	male	1	No	8	n/a	71	8
S2	21	male	1	No	9	500	74	9
S3	19	female	3	No	8	n/a	71	9
S4	19	female	3	No	8	n/a	72	9
S5	19	male	3	No	8	n/a	73	9
S6	19	male	3	No	8	n/a	75	9
S7	19	female	3	No	8	n/a	75	9
S8	19	male	4	No	7	n/a	75	9
S9	19	male	5	No	10	400	71	9
S10	19	male	5	No	7	370	74	9

3.2 Materials

At the beginning of the semester, students were asked to choose topics and social issues that they were interested in researching, discussing and solving (Appendix A). After which, they were given an explanation sheet and waiver written in both English and Japanese making them aware of the researcher's intentions and the potential changes to the learning atmosphere. As required by the ethics research board at Komazawa University, all of the participants signed the waiver and those who wished to withdraw from the project had a choice to do so by emailing the researcher. After the first class, a survey was given to the students online using the school's Moodle system, which was used to select the members who were appropriate for the study (Figure 1). The researcher attempted to replicate the structure of the study conducted by Lyster and Ranta (1997) with two exceptions. First, only one instructor, rather than four, was giving CF to four different classes. Next, the researcher only observed ten students instead of four full

discussion topics (Appendix A). This research project was only concerned with data collected from TPP test days due to the limitations of the teaching environment and recording devices. The error treatment sequence (Figure 2) for TPP test days was very similar to Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) study with only one exception: All TPP conversation on test days were ended when students or peers could not repair errors after CF was given (Moe, 2005, p. 197).

3.4 Classification of Corrective Feedback

Since the study by Lyster and Ranta in 1997, many researchers have attempted to classify and categorize CF. Ellis (2012) was the most successful in creating a chart (Figure 3) that was able to display CF as both a means of resolving meaning and negotiating form (p. 139). Implicit and explicit feedback were separated in order to explain the varying assertiveness of the CF event. He then broke the categories down further to explain how input-providing CF provides the correct form and output-providing requires the learners to negotiate language.

Figure 3. Taxonomy of Corrective Feedback (Ellis, 2012)

	<i>Implicit Feedback</i>	<i>Explicit Feedback</i>
Input-Providing	Recasts	Explicit/Direct
Output-Providing	Repetition	Metalinguistic
	Clarification Request	Elicitation

3.5 Explicit correction

Explicit or Direct Feedback is any type of outright correction given by the teacher to indicate that the learner had made a mistake with the correct form being supplied in its entirety. “In explicit correction, the teacher provides both positive and negative evidence by clearly saying that what the learner has produced is erroneous” (Rezaei & Hatef, 2011, p. 23). This can include phrases like, “No, you should say, ...”, “That’s not right, ...”, “In English we say...” (Suzuki, 2005, p. 9). Ellis (2012) classified explicit correction as the most direct and heavily input-providing (Figure 3) form of CF, as the name most undoubtedly insinuates.

Example 1 (Suzuki, 2005, p. 9)

S: So we write pacific [paʃifik] (Error – phonological)

T: Say [pasifik], not [paʃifik] (Feedback – explicit)

3.6 Recasts

A Recast is another form of input-providing feedback. They are seen by many as being more implicit than explicit in providing feedback (Figure 3), since the learner is not directly supplied with the correct form (Ellis, 2012). Recasts can often be carried out in conversation and include phrases like, “You mean ...” or “Are you trying to say....” (Suzuki, 2005, p. 9). “However, some recasts are more salient than others in that they may focus on one word only, whereas others incorporate the grammatical or lexical modification into a sustained piece of discourse” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). Additionally, Lyster and Ranta (1997) feel that translations are recasts because they serve the same purpose.

Example 2 (Sheen, 2004, p. 278)

S: Any person who is very great poet, I would be. (Error – grammatical)

T: Oh, okay. All right. A great poet? You would be a great poet? (Feedback – recast)

3.7 Clarification Requests

Clarification Requests are very simple linguistic phrases that cause learners to reiterate their flawed utterances. Intonation in the phrases and body gestures are often used as cues to convey misunderstanding. Clarification Requests are viewed as being highly implicit as they do not indicate the type of error that has been committed (Figure 3). They include phrases like “Pardon?”, “Could you say that again?”, “What do you mean?”, and as Suzuki (2005) points out, they can also be used to indicate that an “utterance is incoherent” or the listener themselves have a “comprehension problem” (p. 10).

Example 3 (Suzuki, 2005, p. 9)

S: result [result] of something (Error – phonological)

T: What did you say? (Feedback – clarification)

3.8 Metalinguistic Feedback

Metalinguistic Feedback is done without providing the correct form directly; instead the teacher poses questions or provides comments using linguistic terms about stress or verb tense. “This kind of corrective feedback makes the learner analyze his/her utterance linguistically, not quite in a meaning-oriented manner” (Suzuki, 2005, p. 10); thus Ellis (2012) views it as a highly explicit but output-providing CF form, as can be seen in Figure 3.

Example 4 (Suzuki, 2005, p. 10)

S: She without. (Error – grammatical)

T: without... what is the verb? (Feedback – metalinguistic)

3.9 Elicitation

Elicitation is when the teacher directly elicits the correct form from the student by asking questions or pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher’s utterance. “Teachers can also use questions to elicit correct forms, such as, how can we say X in English?” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 48). Elicitation is often made without giving the answer; thus, this method is seen as being the least explicit output-providing CF form as it forces students to attempt self-correction (Figure 3). Rezaei, Mozaffari and Derakhshan (2011) agree with this classification and feel that elicitation rests somewhere between explicit and implicit correction as it is the least intrusive to conversation.

Example 5 (Suzuki, 2005, p. 10)

S: Because I enjoy city life [laip] (Error – phonological)

T: City... (Feedback – elicitation)

3.10 Repetition

Repetition is when the teacher repeats the student’s error and adjusts intonation to draw attention to the mistake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Teachers usually tend to try and isolate the error and give students the best chance of repairing the mistake. It is different from elicitation and recasts in the fact that the teacher only repeats what the student said. Ellis (2012) views this as a very implicit kind of correction, but output-providing because no form is supplied to the learner (Figure 3).

Example 6 (Sheen, 2004, p. 279)

S: Oh my God, it is too expensive, I pay only 10 dollars. (Error – grammatical)

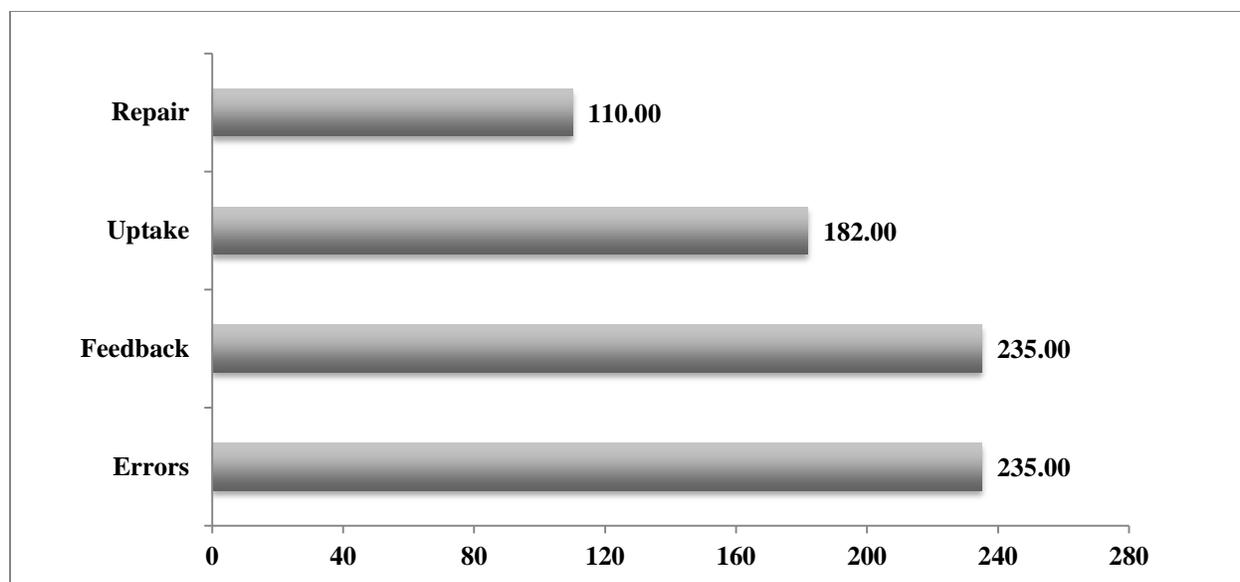
T: I pay? (Feedback – repetition)

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 What is the distribution of CF in TPP?

After the data was sorted in the database (Appendix B) the researcher first looked at the total number of errors, feedback, uptake and repair that was present in the study. 235 instances of errors were documented with the number of CF being equal (Figure 4). Uptake was documented in 182 or 77.4% of all CF turns and repair in 110 or 46.8%. This was much higher than the study conducted by Lyster and Ranta (1997), who documented 1400 errors with CF spanning 686 or about 50% of the occurrences (p. 52). Since each turn in TPP ends in CF, it appears that the opportunity for CF is more than 25% higher. In Lyster and Ranta's study, uptake was observed around 400 times, constituting about 35% of the events with the total number of repairs at 184 episodes or 12%. This was also very different from the findings in this study, with uptake being documented more than twice as often (77.4%), and repair being recorded at in 46.8% of all CF turns, which was almost four-fold that of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings. The researcher believes this is related to the suggested error correct sequence followed for TPP: self, peer and then teacher (Ellis, 2012), which creates multiple chances for error correction in one turn. If the participants could not repair an error; their partner or peers in the classroom often attempted to assist them with some form of CF. Moe (2005) believes that the nature of TPP causes students to be more interested in the correct form as they will have to produce it later in the lesson, because "learners make efforts to generate comprehensible output, which in turn can become a source of input for other participants" (Zhang, 2009, p. 92). This input acts as a model for the other students who will speak in later conversations; thus their chances for uptake and repair are ultimately higher.

Figure 4. Total turns with error, feedback, uptake and repair



The distribution of CF types in Table 1 showed that explicit feedback (45%) was the most widely used form of CF by the researcher during this study. This means that 85 of the 195 instances of the total feedback given by the teacher during the study were explicit in nature. If student-generated explicit feedback is included in this calculation, it still remains the highest employed form of CF in the study at 38% or 87 of the 235 instances. Clarification requests were employed at the highest ratio in student-generated CF at 55%. In the Komazawa Research project, metalinguistic feedback (6%) and recasts (4%) were the least used techniques by the researcher in the study. Additionally, students did not utilize metalinguistic feedback at any point of the study nor did they use elicitations. This was quite surprising as previous researchers (Lyster, 1998; Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011; Rezaei & Hatef, 2011; Sheen, 2004; Yousefi & Biria, 2011) stated that recasts were used most often in both communicative and Task-Based Learning environments. In Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, they reported that recasts made up 55% of teacher feedback, with repetition being the lowest at 5% or n=36. The difference in the distributions may have been due to the teacher's experience with the students at Komazawa University. Japanese students tend to expect explicit correction, similar to the studies done by Razaei and Derakhshan (2011) with students in Iran; consequently the teacher did not use recasts as often for input-providing feedback. Also, efforts are made to maximize the students' opportunities to speak on TPP test days. This causes the environment to be fast-paced and dynamic in the sense that students spend as much of the lesson time speaking and/or observing others' conversations as possible (Moe, 2005). The teacher was often affected by time

constraints, so it is understandable that explicit feedback was the most often used CF. This is similar to the claim by Ellis (2012) about Yoshida’s (2008) study, where the researcher favored a certain CF to maximize speaking opportunities.

Table 1. Distribution of feedback types

Types of feedback	All Feedback	Teacher Feedback	Student-Generated Feedback
Explicit	89 (38%)	87 (45%)	2 (5%)
Clarification Request	50 (21%)	28 (14%)	22 (55%)
Elicitation	35 (15%)	35 (18%)	0 (0%)
Repetition	31 (13%)	27 (14%)	4 (10%)
Recast	19 (8%)	7 (4%)	12 (30%)
Metalinguistic	11 (5%)	11 (6%)	0 (0%)

4.2 Which types of CF are the most and least successful for uptake and repair in TPP?

In Table 2, we can see the breakdown of correction types for the teacher-generated feedback, which were analyzed to determine which CF was the most efficient in promoting uptake (Appendix B). In descending order, the total percentages of uptake were: recasts 100% (n=7), clarification requests 93% (n=28), elicitation 89% (n=35), repetition 86% (n=27), metalinguistic feedback 82% (n=11), and explicit feedback 74% (n=87). In other terms, recasts and elicitations were the most successful forms of CF in promoting uptake. Moreover, recasts had the lowest number of “no uptake” turns at 0% (n=7) with clarification requests closely following at 7% (n=28) and elicitation at 11% (n=35). Yousefi and Biria (2011) also discovered that recasts were more effective in “form-focused” or task-based classrooms, where students were asked to communicate meaning during tasks. “The greatest proportion of uptake followed recasts in both tasks (57% and 67% for simple and complex task respectively)” (Yousefi & Biria, 2011, pp.13-15). Additionally, it was no surprise that clarification requests were highly successful, because of students’ familiarity with the simple prompting phrases. Controversially, the rate of repair for clarification requests is much lower at 32% than other CF types (Table 2).

This means that although students are able to identify clarification requests, they often struggle to move to higher levels of efficiency due to their reduced linguistic abilities. Finally, in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) investigation, 100% of learner utterances following elicitation involved uptake, with repair and needs-repair being almost evenly distributed at 46% for repair and 54% for needs repair. Similar to these findings, the researcher found that errors being repaired by elicitation were 69%, and needs repair at 20%, thus advocating high levels of uptake at 89%. The reason for these high percentages is partly due to the engaging qualities of elicitation as it compels the students to fill in the gap, which in turn creates an opportunity to negotiate language.

The least successful forms of CF in TPP were metalinguistic and explicit feedback. Both had the highest amount of no uptake at 27% and 26% respectively (Table 2). In Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, they found that metalinguistic feedback was very successful in their teaching environment with uptake at 86% and "no uptake" at 8%, but this was not the case at Komazawa. I think this was due to students' knowledge of forms in the English language. If the teacher used linguistic terminology, it only made the situation more confusing. Next, the data in Table 2 shows that the most successful and most used form of CF is explicit correction, but this was a double-edged sword yielding one of the highest occurrences of no uptake (26%). This may be because students felt overwhelmed or embarrassed by direct correction in front of their peers. Lyster and Ranta (1997) found a similar issue with a different CF in their study, where recasts were the most dominant but only 31% of the recast moves led to uptake. They concluded that the lower-level students overlooked or disregarded the recasts because they were ambiguous. Similar to this aspect, it may have been possible that the teacher was using terminology and vocabulary above the students' comprehension level.

Table 2. Uptake following teacher feedback

Correction Type	Repaired	Needs Repair	No Uptake
Explicit (n=87)	40 (46%)	24 (28%)	23 (26%)
Elicitation (n=35)	24 (69%)	7 (20%)	4 (11%)
Clarification Request (n=28)	9 (32%)	17 (61%)	2 (7%)
Repetition (n=27)	18 (67%)	5 (19%)	4 (15%)

Metalinguistic (n=11)	5 (45%)	3 (27%)	3 (27%)
Recast (n=7)	2 (29%)	5 (71%)	0 (0%)

The teacher-generated instances of repair were documented separately from student-generated events (Table 3), as was done in the research by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Of all the cases (n=98), the researcher found that explicit correction at 41% and elicitation at 24% led to the greatest number of repairs. Lyster and Ranta (1997) found recasts accounted for the highest percentage at 36%, but they also accounted for the highest amount of “no repair”. Other researchers, such as Sheen (2004) and Long (2006), have claimed that the sheer number of instances in Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) study was what statistically influenced the outcome. In other words, the CF technique most used led to the most number of repairs. Hence, it is hard to say that explicit correction is the best method for giving feedback in TPP. Elicitation seemed to be a much better candidate as it led to 0% of “no uptake” (Table 1) and 24% of repair (Table 3), which was similar to Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) findings with elicitation in second place at 23% for repair and 100% for uptake. The researcher advocates that this kind of CF is the most effective for TPP and Task-Based Learning environments as it initiates negotiation of form without supplying the students with the correct usage. Also, supporting the findings above, elicitation was responsible for 43% of all student-generated repairs in Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) research, making it the best correction method in their study overall. In contrast, student-generated repair (n=12) in the research project at Komazawa had different findings. Clarification requests created the best opportunities for repair at 58% (Table 3). The researcher feels that clarification requests were the most efficient method for peer repair as they are the easiest for students to exploit. Moreover, students in Japan tend to be timid when correcting each other; therefore clarification requests allow them to more implicitly help peers without causing embarrassment.

Table 3. Number and percentage of repairs attributed to each feedback type

	Explicit	Elicitation	Clarification Request	Repetition	Meta-linguistic	Recast
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All repairs (n=98)	40 (41%)	24 (24%)	9 (9%)	18 (18%)	5 (5%)	2 (2%)
Student- generated repairs (n=12)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)	7 (58%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (33%)

6. CONCLUSION

The findings from this investigation were extremely beneficial in building a practical CF framework for TPP at Komazawa. Furthermore, the data allows the researcher to make general avocations for educators in Japan utilizing Task-Based Learning in the classroom. Instructors should adhere to the advice given by Ellis (2012) and allow students a chance to correct themselves, followed by peer correction and finally Corrective Feedback by the instructor. In this way, the possibility for uptake and repair will become higher. During conversations, less impeding forms of implicit correction, such as recasts and clarification requests, should be used to increase more self-generated and peer-generated correction. Recasts should be used with higher-level students, who have the linguistic capabilities to reformulate their utterances since this kind of CF can be confusing for lower-level students. After conversations are ended by unnoticed or uncorrected errors, teachers should try to use elicitation as much as possible to promote repair. Elicitations allow students to negotiate form and are necessary to use even when time is limited. Finally, the teacher should not give explicit feedback until all of these options have been exhausted since the chance for direct feedback to be disregarded is more probable.

Although the findings in this research project were quite useful in providing a structure for error correction in TPP and Task-Based Learning, there are some issues that need to be addressed and considered for future studies. First, the incidents of all CF types were not equally distributed. Explicit feedback accounted for an extreme amount of the CF instances (n=87) and recasts accounted for too little (n=7). These imbalances may have skewed the findings, and need to be rectified in the next research project. One type of feedback will be used exclusively in each class to normalize the data sets and decide which types of CF are best for particular error types. Furthermore, in the following research projects, more data needs to be gathered similar to Lyster and Ranta (1997), who utilized 18 hours of class recordings. Second, the number of student-generated repair was insignificant (n=12), and the researcher needs to give students a better

chance to correct themselves and their peers. Additionally, students need to be more competent in using various types of CF (i.e. elicitation, repetition or metalinguistic feedback) during TPP test days as they did not use any them during the study. Finally, as argued by many researchers, uptake and repair alone are not enough to justify learning, and so in future investigations the researcher will employ pre-test and post-tests along with surveys to compare more qualitative data juxtaposed to uptake and repair.

Author Biography

Jesse R. Elam is an EFL lecturer of Oral Communications at both Komazawa and Meiji Gakuin University. His research is related to the use of eLearning and Instructional Design to extend EFL classrooms. He also has a strong interest in the application of Task-Based Learning utilizing Corrective Feedback and Focus on Form to enhance students' L2 acquisition in the classroom.

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APPENDIX A: Research Schedule

	OCII Mon. / Thurs. 1	OCIII Mon. / Thurs. 3
Week 1	London Olympics	Recent News
Week 2	Studying Abroad	Studying Abroad
Week 3	What makes a good company?	Comparing Culture
Week 4	Golden Week	Golden Week
Week 5	The music Industry	Future Dreams
Week 6	Future Dreams	Environmental Problems
Week 7	Birth Rate Problem in Japan	Problems at Komazawa
Week 8	Problems at Komazawa	Birth Rate Problem in Japan
Week 9	Fears	Recent Fashion
Week 10	Recent Fashion	Fears
Week 11	World Drinks	Disney
Week 12	Natural Disasters	Social Networks
Week 13	Disney	Stereotypes
Week 14	What are you doing for vacation?	What are you doing for vacation?
	OCIII Mon. / Thurs. 4	OCIII Mon. / Thurs. 5
Week 1	London Olympics	London Olympics

Week 2	Studying Abroad	Studying Abroad
Week 3	Comparing Culture	Comparing Culture
Week 4	Golden Week	Golden Week
Week 5	Future Dreams	Future Dreams
Week 6	Environmental Problems	Last Year's Earthquake
Week 7	Problems at Komazawa	World Music
Week 8	Birth Rate Problem in Japan	Problems at Komazawa
Week 9	Stereotypes	Fears
Week 10	Fears	Disney
Week 11	Disney	Natural Disasters
Week 12	Social Networks	You Favorite Book
Week 13	Natural Disasters	Old / New Fashion
Week 14	What are you doing for vacation?	What are you doing for vacation?

APPENDIX B: Databases of Corrective Feedback

Correction Type	Peer	Correction Type	Teacher
Direct	2	Direct	87
Metalinguistic	0	Metalinguistic	11
Repetition	4	Repetition	27
Clarification Request	22	Clarification Request	28
Elicitation	0	Elicitation	35
Recast	12	Recast	7
	40		195

Peer-Generated	Repaired	Needs Repair	No Uptake	Teacher	Repaired	Needs Repair	No Uptake
Direct	1	1	0	Direct	40	24	23
Metalinguistic	0	0	0	Metalinguistic	5	3	3
Repetition	0	2	2	Repetition	18	5	4
Clarification Request	7	13	2	Clarification Request	9	17	2
Elicitation	0	0	0	Elicitation	24	7	4
Recast	4	5	3	Recast	2	5	0
	12	21	7		98	61	36

Distribution of Errors	Total	Feedback	Uptake	Repair
	235	235	182	110

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