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ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

THE EFFECT OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON THE ARTICLE ERRORS IN L3 ENGLISH: PROMPTS VS. RECASTS

THESIS

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(Y1412.020040)

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İSTANBUL AYDIN ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

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Öğretim Üyesi Adı Soyadı	İmzası
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2) Jüri Üyesi : Yrd. Doç. Dr. Enisa MEDE	.....
3) Jüri Üyesi : Yrd. Doç. Dr. Necmiye KARATAŞ	.....

Not: Öğrencinin Tez savunmasında **Başarılı** olması halinde bu form **imzalanacaktır**. Aksi halde geçersizdir.

To my parents and my husband,

FOREWORD

This thesis has obtained advice, ideas, and support from some respected influences. First, I am very thankful to my supervisor Filiz Cele, who has been a constant source of guidance, knowledge, repair, and inspiration during the time of working on this research, giving crucial comments on academic, standardizing, and experimental themes of my study. I was very privileged to have such an available and supportive supervisor.

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July 2017 **PAWAN MUHAJIR ABDULHADI**

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ABBREVIATIONS

ACP : Article Choice Parameter
ANOVA : Analysis of Variances
ART : Article
CF : Corrective Feedback
DEF : Definite
DNONS : Definite Nonspecific
DP : Determiner Phrase
DS : Definite Specific
EFL : English as Foreign Language
ESL : English as Second Language
FCET : Forced Choice Elicitation Task
FFI : Form-Focused Instruction
FH : Fluctuation Hypothesis
FL : Foreign Language
IDNONS : Indefinite Nonspecific
IDS : Indefinite Specific
L1 : First Language
L2 : Second Language
L3 : Third Language
NNS : Non-Native Speaker
NP : Noun Phrase
NS : Native Speaker
OMI : Omission
OPT : Oxford Proficiency Test
PD : Possessive Determiner
PLR : Plural
PST : Past
SLA : Second Language Acquisition
SLL : Second Language Learning
SUB : Substitution
TLA : Target Language Acquisition
UG : Universal Grammar

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ÜÇÜNCÜ DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENİMİ SIRASINDA GERİBİLDİRİMDE SÖZLÜ DÜZELTMENİN TANIMLIK HATALARI ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ: YÖNLENDİRMELER VE YENİDEN BİÇİMLENDİRMELER

ÖZET

Bu çalışmada anadili Kürtçe ve Arapça olan yetişkinlerin, üçüncü dil olarak İngilizceyi öğrenirken, yaptıkları tanımlık hatalarını düzeltirken kullanılan iki geri bildirim yöntemini: yönlendirme (prompts) ve yeniden biçimlendirme (recasts) karşılaştırılmıştır. Bu amaçla, anadili Kürtçe-Arapça olan ve üçüncü dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen 39 A2 seviyesi yetişkin üzerinde, tanımlıkları içeren bir test, ön test, ardıl test ve gecikmeli ardıl test olarak üç defa uygulanmıştır. Bu testlerde üçüncü dilin (İngilizce) tanımlıkları dört bağlamda incelenmiştir: [+belirli, + özgül], [+belirli, -özgül], [-belirli, +özgül], [-belirli, -özgül]. Katılımcılar üç ayrı gruba bölünmüştür: (1) hataları yönlendirilerek düzeltilen grup (Prompt) (n=15), (2) hataları yeniden biçimlendirilerek düzeltilen grup (Recast) (n=14), (3) geribildirim yapılmayan grup (n=10). Bu testte, her bir grup 28 karşılıklı konuşmadan oluşan, seçenekler arasında tanımlıkların yer aldığı çoktan seçmeli soruları (forced choice elicitation task) tamamlamıştır. Ön test ve ardıl test arasındaki süreçte ise her üç gruba da içinde tanımlıkların öğretildiği bir eğitim verilmiştir. Bu eğitim süresince uygulanan yaklaşımda öğretici, birinci grubun hatalarını sadece yönlendirmeler yaparak düzeltirken, ikinci grubun hatalarını sadece yeniden biçimlendirerek düzeltmiştir, üçüncü gruba ise hiçbir geri bildirim verilmemiştir. Bu eğitimin amacı, üçüncü dil olarak İngilizce öğrenirken yapılan tanımlık hatalarını düzeltirken ortaya çıkan farklılıkları karşılaştırmaktır.

Çoktan seçmeli ardıl testin sonucunda, hem yönlendirmelerle hataları düzeltilen grupta hem de yeniden biçimlendirmelerle hataları düzeltilen grupta ilerleme kaydedildiği tespit edilmiştir. Buna rağmen uzun süreçte (gecikmeli ardıl test sonucunda), yönlendirmelerle hataları düzeltilen grup ve yeniden biçimlendirmelerle hataları düzeltilen grup kıyaslandığında, yönlendirmelerle hataları düzeltilen grup çok daha fazla ilerleme kaydetmiştir. Gecikmeli ardıl testte, yeniden biçimlendirilerek hataları düzeltilen grup ve geribildirim yapılmayan grup aynı performansı sergilemiştir. Doğruluk verilerinin çift yönlü Varyans analizi (ANOVA) sonucunda, ardıl test ve gecikmeli teste tabi tutulan üç grup arasında belirgin bir fark olmadığı anlaşılmıştır. Buna rağmen uzun süreçte (gecikmeli ardıl ters sonucunda), hataları yönlendirmelerle düzeltilen grubun, hataları biçimlendirilerek düzeltilen grup ve geribildirim verilmeyen gruptan çok daha üstün bir performans sergilediği anlaşılmaktadır. Yapılan

hataların veri tabanı analiz edildiğinde, öğrencilerin çoğunlukla tüm anlam bilimsel bağlamlarda- özellikle [-belirli, +özgül] bağlamda- doğru tanımlığı seçme hususunda kararsız kaldığı gözlemlenmiştir. Dalgalanma Hipotezine (Fluctuation Hypothesis) bakılırsa, anadilinde tanımlıklar bulunmayan dilleri konuşanlar, [+belirli] ya da [+ özgül] özelliklerini kapsayan yeni bir dil öğrenirken ya belirlilik (definiteness) ve özgüllük (specificity) arasında gidip gelmektedir ya da hedef dildeki uygun değeri seçmektedir (Ionin, 2003, s.23). Buna rağmen, belirli tanımlık (the) bakımından hem Kürtçe hem de Arapça [+tanımlık] dillerdir. Araştırmaların sonucu gösteriyor ki, anadili belirli tanımlık (the) içeren bir dil olmasına rağmen, yeni bir dil ediminde özgüllük temelli seçimler gerçekleşebilir. Özetle, hataları yeniden biçimlendirmelerle düzeltilen ve geribildirim verilmeyen gruplarla kıyasla, hataları yönlendirmelerle düzeltilen grup çok daha az hata yapmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: *geribildirimde sözlü düzeltme, yönlendirmeler, yeniden biçimlendirmeler, tanımlıklar, üçüncü dil edinimi, Kürtçe, Arapça, İngilizce.*

THE EFFECT OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON THE ARTICLE ERRORS IN L3 ENGLISH: PROMPTS VS. RECASTS

ABSTRACT

This study examines the effect of prompts and recasts in providing CF for the article errors by Kurdish-Arabic bilingual adolescents who learn English as a third language. For this purpose, 39 lower-intermediate Kurdish-Arabic bilingual adolescent learners of L3 English were tested on three tests: pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests involving articles in four contexts; [+def, +spec], [+def, -spec], [-def, +spec], [-def, -spec], in L3 English. The participants were randomly put into three groups: (1) prompt group (n =15), (2) recast group (n = 14), and (3) no feedback group (n = 10). Each group completed 28 dialogues, which included articles in a forced choice elicitation task as a pre-test. The same test was given to the three groups as post- and delayed posttests. Between the pre-test and the post-test, the prompt group and the recast group took a treatment. The treatment involved an interactional activity (dialogue build) which aimed the FCET, eliciting the students to make dialogues in which the former took CF in the form of prompts, and the latter took it as recasts for their article errors in L3 English during the activity.

Results of the FCET showed that both prompt and recast groups developed on the posttest. Whilst, prompt group significantly outperformed recast group on the long term, recast and no feedback performed equally at delayed posttest. A two-way ANOVA of the accuracy data showed that there were no significant differences among the three groups in the pretest and posttest. However, there were very significant differences between the prompt and the other two groups in the long term in which the prompt group outperformed the other two groups. Analysis of the error data revealed that the errors mostly fell in substitution, which indicated that the students were fluctuating between choosing the correct article to use in all the semantic contexts especially in [-def, +spec] context. Given the Fluctuation Hypothesis, L1 speakers of non-article languages will either fluctuate between definiteness and specificity when learning a language that encodes the features [+definite] or [+specific] or will select the appropriate value for the target language (Ionin, 2003, p. 23). However, L1 Kurdish and Arabic both are [+article] languages based on definiteness. Our results suggest that a specificity-based choice of articles can occur even when the L1 is an article-based language which is based on definiteness. Prompt group significantly made fewer errors than the recast and the no feedback groups in the long term.

Keywords: *oral corrective feedback, prompts, recasts, articles, TLA, Kurdish, Arabic, English.*

1. INTRODUCTION

The role of corrective feedback (CF) in second language (L2) learning has attracted considerable attention from the L2 researchers who have been interested in the question of whether and/or how learners' errors are useful in improving L2 learning. The current theories of the L2 acquisition have different assumptions about the role of CF. The Generativist framework takes the view that positive evidence is sufficient for triggering parameter resetting in the L2 acquisition, therefore, CF has limited theoretical interest and usefulness to learners (Schwartz, 1993). However, Interaction Hypothesis of the cognitivist suggests that feedback in meaningful L2 interaction provides negative evidence, which therefore, is useful in L2 learning (Long, 1996). Long claims that feedback-involving reformulation of learner's own intended utterances can help the noticing of gaps between the learner's own L2 production and L2 target forms and can prevent first language (L1) influence. According to some cognitive approaches, feedback contributes to the establishment and proceduralisation of declarative knowledge (Ranta & Lyster, 2007)

Empirical studies that investigated CF in L2 learning have provided mixed conclusions. Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that recasts are the most common and preferred technique employed by foreign language teachers in spite of the fact that they are the least effective feedback technique (in comparison with the four types of prompts that they identified) and called them the negotiation of form. This is the sort of CF where the teacher withholds the correct form and pushes the students to try to repair their erroneous utterances. They were elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition which led students to repair their own errors to achieve grammatical accuracy successfully. Moreover, Lyster and Ranta conclude that student-generated corrections or self-repairs are important in language learning since they show effective immersion in the process of students' language learning, and this effective immersion arises when there is the negotiation of form. Russell and Spada (2006) in their meta-analysis review of 15 studies relating to the effectiveness of CF concluded that there was a very large effect for CF generally in L2 grammar learning and suggested that the benefits of CF are durable. However, when they compared the effects of implicit CF (i.e. recasts) to no CF, they found medium to large effects for

recast. They also calculated an effect size for one study (Carroll & Swain, 1993) that compared implicit with explicit CF types, and they found a large effect size for explicit CF. Ammar and Spada (2006) compared the effectiveness of recasts and prompts on different proficiency level francophone learners of English which focused on third person possessive determiners. They found that prompts and recasts have an equal effect on high proficiency learners while prompts are significantly more effective than recasts for low-proficiency learners. Ammar (2008) in a quasi-experimental study compared the impact of recasts with prompts and no CF on francophone learners' acquisition of English third person possessive determiners. She found that prompts were more effective than recasts with no CF in facilitating the learners' development in possessive determiner and she further underlined the higher effect of prompts by the reaction time data which proved that prompts made learners to save possessive determiner knowledge faster than recasts. Lyster and Saito (2010) in a meta-analysis review of 15 classroom-based studies examined the effectiveness of several types of CF in the classroom. They found significant and durable effects for CF on the development of target language and larger effects for prompts than recasts, while similar effects for explicit correction in compare with prompts and recasts.

The present study aims to contribute to the field of L3 research on CF with new empirical data on the comparison of prompts or recasts in providing feedback for article errors made by Kurdish-Arabic bilingual adolescent learners of L3 English. Kurdish is a (+article) language, the choice of articles is based on definiteness that has two main dialects, Sorani and Kurmanji. The article system in both dialects are different. In Sorani dialect, the definiteness article (*yaka*) is added to the NPs which end in a vowel and (*aka*) is added to the NPs which end in a consonant. Both are the equivalent definiteness marker "*the*" in English. The indefiniteness article (*yèk*) is added to the NPs which end in a vowel and is the same indefinite marker *'an'* in English. The article (*èk*) is added to the NPs which end in a consonant which is the same indefiniteness marker 'a' in English. However, in Kurmanji dialect, definite articles are *ê* (for singular female), *i* (for singular male), *an* (for both female and male plural) which are the same definiteness marker *'the'* in English, but their position in the sentence changes according to the tense of the sentence. The indefinite article (*ek*) is the equivalent indefiniteness marker *'a'* and (*yek*) the same indefiniteness marker *'an'* in English. The main difference between Kurdish and English language article

systems is the position of the articles. In Kurdish, the articles are added to the end of the NPs, while in English they come before the NPs.

Arabic, on the other hand, is a (±article) language, the choice of articles is also based on definiteness rather than specificity which only has the definite article (*al*) which is the equivalent of the definiteness marker *'the'* in English and does not have indefinite articles. It is possible to state that the only difference between Arabic and English language article system is the lack of indefiniteness in Arabic compared to English language. English overtly marks definiteness rather than specificity; it encodes this semantic knowledge in its article system. The English article '*the*' indicates (+definite) whereas the article *'a*' points to (-definite) thus in a definite context speech the hearer believes that there is a unique individual under discussion. This study focuses on whether prompts or recasts are more effective in correcting article errors produced by Kurdish-Arabic learners of L3 English. The study expects that findings of the present study will have valuable implications for instructed L3 learning with respect to the effective type of CF.

This study is organized as follows. Chapter II presents a theoretical background of the CF in L2 acquisition/learning. In Chapter III, findings of the current studies in the L2 and L3 on CF are discussed. Chapter IV introduces the linguistic background of the study, which involves a brief description of the article system in English, Kurdish, and Arabic. Chapter V illustrates how the current study makes use of research questions, predictions, treatment, materials, instruments, and procedure. The results of the study are given in Chapter VI. Discussion is provided in Chapter VII and conclusion in Chapter VIII, followed by the educational implications and limitations in Chapter IX.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: CF IN THE SLA.

2.1. Introduction

Second language acquisition (SLA) is the academic arena of investigation that examines the human competence to acquire languages (apart from the first language) at some age stages and after they have learned their first language. It involves the learning of realistic and instructed L2, L3, and foreign language learning settings. It searches for comprehending worldwide, specific and community influences that affect what is learned, how rapidly, and how correctly by different individuals in diverse education environments (Ortega, 2013). As the acquisition of a second language is generally a complicated process, it is worthwhile explaining the process of internalizing new information by the learners, the procedures and methods undertaken. CF in SLA represents the teachers' reactions to learners' incorrect L2 output; it has been classified into diverse types. For example, Lyster (2002; 2004) classifies CF into three categories: explicit corrections, recast, and prompt. Explicit corrections and recast provide the learners with objective reformulations of their non-target utterance. With explicit corrections, the teacher provides the exact form and obviously shows that what the learner uttered was erroneous, the below example is from (Brown, 2007, p. 278).

S: when I have 12 years old

T: no not have. You mean, "When I was 12 years old…" → ***(explicit correction)***

Recast is defined as a CF that rephrases an utterance 'by modifying one or more of the sentence elements (subject, object, or verb) while still indicating to its basic meaning (Long, 1996, p. 436).

NNS: And in the er kitchen er cupboard no on shef
NS: On the shelf. I have it on the shelf. → ***(recast)***
NNS: In the shelf, yes ok.
(Mackey, et al., 2003, p. 37)

In contrast, Prompts include a variety of indications other than substitute reformulations - that driving students to self-repair (Lyster, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998). In prompts, one speaker, the more knowledgeable one tries to "push" the other to produce a more target-like speech. This suggests that both speakers actively manage a problem and that the learner is encouraged to self-correct (Van den Branden, 1997, p. 592). Learners repair their incorrect utterances rather than being corrected by the instructor (Lyster, 2007, p. 108). Repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation are grouped under prompt.

NNS: Here and then the left.
NS: Sorry? → ***(prompt)***
NNS: Ah here and one ah where one of them on the left.
NS: Yeah one's behind the table and then the others on the left of the table.
(Mackey, 2006, p. 405).

Prompts imply a variety of feedback models that include several types such as the following:

***Elicitation*:** wherein the instructor straight elicits a reformulation from the learner by directing inquiries for example, “How do we say that in English?” or by pausing to let the learner finish the instructor's speech, or by requesting the learner to reformulate his or her sentence.

S: Well there’s a stream of perfume that doesn’t smell very nice…”
T: “So a stream of perfume, we’ll call that a...?” → (***Elicitation)***
(Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 272).

Metalinguistic clue: wherein the instructor gives explanations or queries about the form of the learner's sentence for example, “We don’t say it like that in English”.

S: “A car.”
T: “(It)’s not a car.” → (***Metalinguistic clue)***
(Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 272).

Clarification request: following student errors the instructor utilizes expressions like "Pardon?" and "I don't understand" to indicate that learners' utterance is ungrammatical somehow and that a correction is needed.

S: "On the wagon."

T: "What?" → (***Clarification request)***

(Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 272).

Repetition: wherein the instructor repeats the learner's incorrect utterance, regulating intonation to emphasize on the error.

S: La guimauve, la chocolat. (Gender error)

"Marshmallow, chocolate (fem.)."

T: **LA** chocolat? → (***Repetition)***

"Chocolat (fem.)?"

(Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 272).

Adding to the previous six types of feedback, there is a seventh type named "multiple feedback", includes a mix of more than one method of feedback by an instructor. Analysis of introductory information presented in Lyster and Ranta (1995) showed that a small number of instructors (around 15%) used multiple feedbacks. Repetition certainly happened with all other feedback models with the exception of recasts: In clarification requests ("What do you mean by X?"), in metalinguistic feedback ("No, not X. We don't say X in French."), in elicitation ("How do we say X in French?") and in explicit correction ("We don't say X in French; we say Y"). Lyster (2004) and Ammar & Spada (2006) stated that the types of CF that keep the correct form (e.g., clarification requests, elicitation) are expected to provide the best progression by encouraging students to develop their interlanguage.

Researchers have suggested some theories that describe the procedures of learning; the theories are presented in the subsequent sections of this paper.

2.2. CF in Generativist Framework

The Generativist framework takes the view that positive evidence is sufficient for triggering parameter resetting in the L2 acquisition, therefore, CF is of limited theoretical interest and usefulness to learners (Schwartz, 1993). White (1991) in a study on parametric differences between French and English argued that form-focused

classroom teaching with negative evidence is more effective than positive input in L2 acquisition. She found that the learners who received positive and negative evidence developed in their knowledge about adverb placement, however, she also found that this learning did not continue in the delayed posttest. Recasts have been assumed to generate great openings for learners to see the mismatch between their language structures and linguistic correction (Long, 1996; 2007). Long (1996) claimed that implicit feedback are useful for L2 improvement since they give learners a main basis of negative evidence. He claimed that as recasts keep up the learners' flow of conversation, they open mental resources that would then be employed for semantic processing. Therefore, with maintaining the meaning, recasts have the ability to allow learners to concentrate on form and to realize errors in their language output.

2.3. CF in Cognitivist Approaches: Skill Acquisition

According to some cognitive approaches, feedback contributes to the establishment and proceduralisation of declarative knowledge (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Along with the negative evidence they give to learners, the efficacy of prompts can be described within skill acquisition theory that explains second language learning like a steady transformation in knowledge from declarative to procedural cognitive knowledge (DeKeyser, 1998; 2001). The change of declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge includes a change from regulated processing (needs a great concentration and usage of short-term memory) to unconscious processing (works on automatized processes saved in long-term memory) (Shiffrin & Schneider, 1977). Creating exercise activities that are both interactional in aim and regulated in involving the usage of particular target structures is however, demanding in any educational setting, and this is where shows the importance of prompts (Lyster, 2007). Knowing that the prompts goal is to push learners to self-correct their output, they support opportunities for practice in the interactional setting. Together with other types of practice, prompts aim to have an impact on previously stored structures in memory by giving chances for encouraged production. Swain (1985; 1988) theorized that prompts provoke language development forwards, through helping learners in the conversion from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge (DeBot, 1996; DeKeyser, 1998). De Bot claimed that L2 learners' language improves more by encouraging the repair of target language structures rather than by only receiving the structures in the mind since the repair and the resulting output encourages the advancement of communications in memory. The

results of a psychology study on the "generation effect" also expects prompts to be more useful than recasts. The study has discovered that when learners participate themselves in producing the information, they remember it better, instead of instead of when receiving information from an external source (DeWinstanley & Bjork, 2004; Clark, 1995).

Humans are surrounded by stimuli from all around, and they are conscious of these stimuli, which occur constantly. However, a sudden change in surroundings will draw their attention and will increase awareness to that specific external stimulus. A person will turn their attention to the stimulus and will process it and choose how to respond to it. In this way, when concentrating their attention on a specific stimulus, people become more aware of it. Noticing, therefore, is the conscious awareness of a stimulus. In the context of SLA, the learner will focus his attention on a linguistic item, as a method of input, which is the process for noticing, and accordingly, a process for intake. Whether the learning process is conscious or unconscious is a debatable subject for the SLL researchers. The investigation of cognitive procedures in SLL has been very significant in SLA research (Schmidt & Frota., 1986; Ellis, 1996; Ellis & Sinclair, 1996; Ellis & Schmidt, 1997; Swain & Lapkin, 2002; Mackey, 2002; Leow, 1997). Especially "attention" and "awareness" which have been known as two cognitive procedures that facilitate input in interaction. Noticing is considerably regarded as a crucial factor that affects L2 input and interaction learning (Gass & Varonis, 1994; Robinson, 1995; 2001; 2003; Philp, 2003; Mackey, et al., 2000; Gass, 1997; Long, 1996). Long (1996) states that selective attention facilitates the SLA process, in this regard negotiated interaction is claimed to be particularly beneficial, since the interactional feedback can lead the learner's attention to a difference between the target input and the learner's language structure 'noticing the gap' Schmidt and Frota (1986). In addition, this simultaneously gives the learners the chance to produce correct utterance (Swain, 1995; 1998; 2005). As (Gass & Varonis, 1994) explained that negotiated interaction may significantly direct the learners' attention towards the problematic elements of the speech. Attention makes learners notice a mismatch between their output and the output of the target language speakers. The awareness of a difference or gap can produce grammar reformation (Gass & Varonis, 1994, p. 299). Gass and Mackey (2006) mentioned that the interaction may also direct learners'

attention towards new vocabulary items or syntactic structure and subsequently help the L2 development.

These statements on attention and noticing are considered essential for SLA. Schmidt (1995; 2001) and Robinson (1995; 2001; 2003) state that input must be noticed consciously so as to become intake. Schmidt (1990; 1995) was the first researcher who brought together the results of brain research with the SLA studies. He states that input becomes intake only if it is noticed and he defined noticing as "the accessibility for the oral report". According to Schmidt, attention controls access to awareness and is responsible for noticing, which is necessary for the change from input to an intake. He furthermore proposes that unattended input "receiving input without attention" cannot be stored in short-term memory and, consequently, is not obtainable for further processing. This statement is normally mentioned as the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990; 1993; 1995) which has been examined in many experimental studies such as (Leow, 1997; 2000; 2002; Izumi, 2002; Adams, 2003; Gass, et al., 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2002). Behind the interactional study, experimental studies which are interested in the connection between noticing and learning are obviously necessary in order to show that the interaction hypothesis argues that normal interaction performs with learners' inner aspects, like noticing (Long, 1996). Along with the fact that a small number of studies have directly researched the connection between noticing and SLL, interest has also increased in SLA literature about collecting and analyzing noticing data (Schmidt, 2001; Truscott, 1998). Several researchers have made use of journals, uptake sheets, and surveys to deliver introspective data on learners' noticing and learning measures (Slimani, 1989; Schmidt & Frota., 1986; Warden, et al., 1995). Tomlin and Villa (1994) emphasize that descriptions of noticing may only link examples of noticing to the occurrences that provoked them. As (Tomlin & Villa, 1994, p. 185) stated cognitive process of input happens in quite short periods of time 'seconds or even fractions of seconds'. In comparison, uptake sheets and surveys might cross an hour, a day, or several days. Oral descriptions such as think-aloud procedures and stimulated recall procedures have been applied to record information of noticing in a better time-based setting (Adams, 2003; Leow, 1997; Mackey, et al., 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 2002). Though, these, also, have been criticized for oral descriptions, mainly live descriptions such as think-aloud procedures may push learners to describe their cognitive procedures under time-based and conversational pressure and perhaps

results in them failing to fully describe their mental process. To an extent that measuring every self-report data is incomplete, it might be preferable to use the three techniques of collecting noticing data to get as complete a description as possible of learners' noticing process (Mackey & Gass., 2006). The coding of noticing data also causes problems for SLA scholars. Coarse-grained coding methods like Swain and Lapkin's (1995) examination of language-related affairs (for example, when learners noticed a gap in their language structure and tried to report their meaning) are significant in comprehending production as learning, but may not differentiate among some of the procedures which are crucial to the comprehending of cognition in SLA. However, more fine-grained coding systems, such as those that differentiate between diverse levels of awareness, noticing level and understanding level of awareness (Leow, 1997; Schmidt, 1995; 2001) can be more vulnerable because of sparse data. Moreover, like many researchers have mentioned, not having confirmation of attention or notice does ***not*** mean that noticing or attention does not exist; lack of proof is not equal to proof of lack. Similarly, a learner description which shows the noticing level of awareness but not the level of understanding does not suggest that understanding did not have an impact. Therefore, whereas coarse-grained coding system may be not successful to differentiate among procedures, fine-grained coding systems necessitate more explanation from the researcher.

Automatic or intended ***attention*** learning is believed important in SLA. Attention is the skill that somebody possesses, to focus on some objects and disregarding others. Attention systems consist of speed (a complete promptness to manage received stimuli), location (the track of concentration sources towards specific types of stimuli), detection (mental registering of a specific stimulus), and self-consciousness (consciously disregarding some stimuli). SLA theory has mentioned that without some degree of attention, input cannot be learned. It has been proven that the ability to focus and concentrate mental efforts on particular inducements is essential for learning the second language. There has been a rise in the amount of investigations testing attention and awareness of the L2 output structure and the degree to which attention and awareness of production can help SLA.

Swain (1995) claimed that attention to language production has a useful effect, because during the forming of the target language learners may notice a difference between their utterance and their intended utterance, enabling them to understand their language

deficiency. Language output moreover gives us a chance to investigate theories on grammar and linguistic suggestion in second language structure. Izumi (2003) and Kormos (2014) have defined the second language output stages upon which attention can work to encourage awareness.

Skehan (1998; 2009) claims that ability limitations on only one group of attentional sources may cause reductions in the eloquence, correctness, and ease of second language speaking when tasks are advanced in their attentional, recall and other reasoning commands. Robinson (2003; 2007) has suggested an opposing point and claims that attentional ability limitations are incorrect descriptions for failures in attention to speaking. Robinson proposes that failures in `action-control`, not ability limitations, cause reductions in language output, and learners' breakdown to promote their knowledge attention. Therefore, when there is a growing difficulty with some aspects of tasks, for example where the task needs extra cognitive effort, this results in extra work in directing output and more focused observation of production. This complication causes better correctness and difficulty of second language output when contrasted to the application on easier task forms that involve a small amount of or no cognitive.

The word ***awareness*** is referred to as the individual detection of both input inducements and the individual's own mental processes. Consciousness is divided by (Schmidt, 1990; 1995) into three groups: awareness, intention, and familiarity. Awareness is supposed to take three phases: perception, noticing, and understanding. It is important to mention that perception does not automatically follow individual awareness. Detection as mentioned before one method of attention (Richards & Schmidt, 2002), the term refers to mental registering of a specific stimulus without individual awareness. Tomlin & Villa (1994) claimed that detection is an essential and adequate form for more learning and processing. This suggests they believe that SLL without noticing is possible. Considering they used the word *detection*, it would indicate the word awareness, which is used by Schmidt, both could be happening on a subconscious stage. Conversely, The Noticing Hypothesis states that noticing (a stage of awareness) is required for SLA. Increasing Awareness of form has been considered significant in SLA and many attempts have been suggested. Exposing students to some features of the language, including grammar, saying something in diverse ways and examining differences between the language understanding of the learners and its

complement within a perfect input, all create awareness-growing procedures. Those methods are proposed to prevent learning problems, which are likely to happen in a situation when second language learners are focusing purely on meaning. Adults' efforts to study a second language during exposed interaction are believed to be only partially successful. Focusing on this subject, Skehan (2002) examined that "In the pre-critical period stage, there is the continuing influence of a language learning system on the obligation to key linguistic information, whereas in the post-critical period stage this no longer happens in such a compulsory method" (p.87). This outlines the reasons that adult learners are not learning a second language as effectively as children are able to in their natural environments. To be stressed, growing awareness about form is crucial for adult learners to progress in their second language structure effectively.

2.4. CF in Cognitivist Approaches: Interaction Hypothesis

Interaction Hypothesis of the cognitivist proposes that feedback in meaningful L2 interaction provides negative evidence, which is useful in L2 learning (Long, 1996). Long claims that feedback involving reformulation of learner's own intended utterances can help the noticing of gaps between the learner's own L2 production and L2 target forms and can prevent first language (L1) influence. SLA defined as the learning of another language apart from one's mother tongue. Input denotes the knowledge that is put in a knowledge processing device, in this case the learner's mind. The level of second language enhancement can be formed by the amount and quality of input. Language input and SLA literature shows that much work in this field of research has been attached to the significance, the position, and the process of language input (Long, 1982; Ellis, 1994; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Elliss, 1997; Gass, 1997; Doughty & Long., 2003; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; VanPatten & Williams, 2014). From this large group of research, it can be assumed that SLA cannot happen in emptiness nor without linguistic involvement (Gass, 1997).

Whereas the significance and the position of language input has been supported by numerous concepts of language learning, there has been a disagreement between those concepts which give a little or no importance to language input and those giving it a higher position. As stated by Ellis (1994; 2008), SLA concepts give contradictory

significance to the position of input in the language acquisition procedure but they all accept the necessity of language input in SLA. What is different about the position of input in various language learning concepts is the learners' approach to processing language input (Doughty & Long., 2003). Ellis (2008) measured the effect of language input in SLA depending on SLA theories such as *behaviorism*, *cognitivism*, and *interactionist* theories. The SLA behaviorist theory looks at language learning as being naturally influenced by many incentives and a reaction that language learners are open to receive. In fact, the behaviorists believe that there is a direct connection between received knowledge and learners' production. They disregard the mind's inner procedures in the acquisition of a language. In the behaviorists' perspective, language acquisition is influenced by external aspects amongst which language input is composed of incentives and reaction is dominant (Ellis, 2008).

The SLA ***cognitive*** theories similarly state that input is required for SLA but since the learners' IQs can acquire any language with inborn gene, language input is only believed as a generator that triggers the inner device (Ellis, 2008). The SLA ***interactionist*** theories focus on the position of both input and inner language learning process. They see language acquisition as the product of an interaction at the conversation point between the learners' intellectual aptitudes and the language background and input as the role of influencing or being influenced by the inherent characteristics of inner devices (Ellis, 2008). Other theories that highlight the significance of language input in SLA are the ***intelligence*** processing and ***competence*** theories (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). In relation to their interpretation, language input in cognitive processing theories is significant as it is the knowledge inserted during the input that facilitates the target language acquisition (TLA). Gass (1997) also measured the effect of input in the interaction, the input, the universal grammar, and the cognitive processing theories which affect the position of language input in various conditions. As stated by Gass (1997), in the interaction theory, the linguistic input that learners obtain is reinforced by the influence of the input via interaction which creates a source for SLA. Within Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis (1981), SLA happens only by understandable input that the learners obtain. In other words, only the input that is more advanced than the learners' language capability is beneficial for SLA. The third theory is the ***universal grammar*** (UG) which states that input is significant but there must be something else along with language input for the acquisition of L2 (Gass,

1997). It is the inborn endowment which facilitates the process of acquiring the second language. The last theory is the ***cognitive processing*** theory which claims that the learner must first notice the learning environment. Then, the learner's attention is directed to those elements of the input which do not agree with the inner ability. In this theory, the input is required for giving knowledge for linguistic production (Gass, 1997). The importance of input in SLA has been emphasized as forming the main basis for SLA (VanPatten & Williams, 2014). They have underlined that input is a key component of information for learners to form their ability or intellectual description of the linguistic built on the patterns inserted in the mind. Long (1996) claims that interaction helps acquisition since the spoken and language changes that arise in this conversation give learners the necessary input. In negotiation which is a kind of interaction, non-native speakers and their speakers show that they do not comprehend somewhat (Pica, 1994; Long, 1996). During the interaction, students can comprehend the language that was too difficult to understand. Moreover, they can get diverse input and get more chances for language production (Swain, 1985; 1995). Sato (1988) examined the problem of oral interaction and second language output and improvement. a long research programme using in a realistic environment. She concentrated on past time (oral) mentions, exploring the first steps of ESL acquisition by two brothers of Vietnamese native speakers. She did not find any relationship between native speaker input or realistic discourse and the structural programming of past-time mention. She revealed, on the other hand, that the past time mention could be put right from understanding specific situation and conversation setting. It was normally not needed to give or necessitate past time mention pattern in the discourses. Therefore, depending on these comprehensive case studies, she found that selective conversation might facilitate the grammatical development.

Gass and Varonis (1994) also studied the relationship of interaction and learner output, they compared written corrected and uncorrected information with and without the conversational changes on: understanding, when assessed by the learners' language production when getting instructions on an assignment, and output, when assessed by the success of their native speaker associates in grasping the instructions. They discovered that communicated and corrected information influenced understanding and previously communicated information influenced output. Mackey and Philp (1998) examined two groups of learners: the first group were given interactionally

adapted input at the same time doing information gap tasks (which were created to encourage interaction and give settings for the target structures to be formed). A different group of students participated in the same interaction with involving focused recasts. They discovered that recasts are effective on the learners' language improvement in the short-term. The results of their study showed that for higher level learners, interaction with focused recasts was more helpful than only interaction, but for the low-level learners, recasts were not helpful to the same degree as the high-level learners in output development.

2.5. The Output Hypothesis, the Role of Prompts and Recasts

In their study of cognitive processes produced by output, Swain and Lapkin (1995) suggested that feedback allows learners to notice difficulties in their output and prompts them to do an examination directing to modified output. Swain and Lapkin (1995)stated that what arises between the first and second outputs is part of the process of L2 learning, the degree to which reformation developments are triggered between the learner's first and second outputs is influenced by the feedback type. In other words, not all techniques of feedback produce the same extents of promoting. Recasts, for example, are not prone in promoting learners to modify their non-target output, at least not directly after receiving feedback such as (Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). From a conversation perception, a learner's repetition of an instructor's recast can be regarded as an unnecessary attempt in a conversation in which the instructor, by recasting, both starts and concludes the repair in only one attempt. On the cases when learners do change their incorrect utterances after recasts, the change may only be a repetition of the different form, including recovery from short-term memory rather than from long-term memory. Ellis (1997) has differentiated between two ways of acquisition: the internalization of new structures and accessing already internalized forms. Like patterns of positive evidence, recasts appearing in appropriate speech backgrounds can enable the coding of new declarative knowledge. Prompts, on the contrary, because of their purpose to prompt modified output, can improve accessing the already-internalized structures —that is, prompts help learners in the modification of declarative to procedural knowledge. In the immersion setting, since learners have received L2 input for years, containing the target structures that they constantly have difficulties learning, encouraging them is necessary, when their

concentration is on an educational subject, to exercise target structures that are in a struggle with extremely comprehensible interlanguage structures (Ranta & Lyster, 2003; Swain, 1985). Prompts, then, may be helpful in immersion classrooms and other meaning-focused instructional settings where continuous recasting of what learners already are familiar with, but may be less helpful for encouraging the reformation of interlanguage depictions and the proceduralisation of measuring target-like depictions. This was the situation in Ammar (2003) in a classroom study on grade 6 Francophone students learning L2 English, which showed that prompts effectiveness was larger than recasts in the acquisition of possessive determiners. Moreover, she showed that prompts were helpful for lower proficiency students, while higher proficiency students progressed equally from both recasts and prompts. Other studies also have suggested that low proficiency learners might find it difficult to notice recasts as CF (Lin & Hedgcock, 1996; Mackey & Philip, 1998). Doughty (2001) claimed that recasting is a perfect method of feedback, since L2 learners can store the target reformulation in working memory and then compare input with their output directly. On the other hand, in reaction to prompts, learners need to focus on the recovering already coded depictions from long-term memory, establishing either an alternative pattern or a regulation for processing a more target-like structure. De Bot (1996; 2000) argued that this risen degree of triggering increases the possibility of the recovered object to be selected again, as the necessary attention for recovery from long-term memory and later formation arouses the improvement of strong associates in the recall. Because of recovering target structures saved in long-term memory, L2 learners are expected to reform saved interlanguage depictions rather than by only receiving the structures in the immersion (DeBot, 1996).

3. LITERATURE REVIEW: THE ROLE OF CF IN L2 AND L3.

3.1. Introduction

Most second language learners make errors in classroom settings, however, from the teacher's view; it is not always clear how to treat these errors. CF in SLA represents the teachers' reactions to learners' incorrect L2 output. It is not surprising that many of the previous investigations have occurred in the setting of input systems since they have been examined by many studies to demonstrate a perfect technique for interactional language teaching, However, apart from the significant interest in the receiving of input, investigators have recommended that difficulties in students' structural input and vocabulary improvement may reveal mismatches in input teaching in the following conditions:

1. ***Comprehensible input*** alone is not sufficient for successful L2 learning; comprehensible output is also required, involving, on the one hand, ample opportunities for student output and, on the other, the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers.
2. ***Subject-matter teaching*** does not on its own provide adequate language teaching; the language used to convey subject matter needs to be highlighted in ways that make certain features more salient for L2 learners. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 41)

These ideas are related to the subject of dealing with error as creating understandable production involves providing beneficial and reliable feedback from instructors and friends, and language structures can become more noticeable in the input during subject-matter classes as instructors interact more with learners. As a result, they can give feedback to learners that directs attention to related linguistic structures through significant interaction. The general aims of this chapter firstly, were to discover the importance of the broad scope of the study, and then name a point where a new addition could be made. Most of the chapter was based on assessing the various methodologies used in this field in order to identify the relevant method/s for studying the research questions.

3.2. Empirical Studies of CF

Encouraged by the results of studies in the L1 acquisition (Baker & Nelson, 1984; Farrar, 1990; 1992) some L2 researchers suggest that recasts are helpful for SLA (Doughty, 2001; Doughty & Varela., 1998; Long, 1996; Doughty & Williams., 1998). A recast is defined as "a CF method that reformulates learners' directly previous incorrect utterances while upholding their intended meaning" (e.g., in response to "Boy has three toys," a teacher may reply, "The boy has three toys"). Recasts are believed to make L2 learners see the difference between their incorrect utterance and the correct reformulation. The noticing procedure of such discrepancy is believed to be important for learning (Schmidt, 1990; 1993). Recasts are also considered to be a successful method in consideration of psychological research, which presents that the attention of learners is selective, limited, and partly exposed to intentional control. VanPatten (1990) discussed that learners cannot process and attend to both form and meaning at the same time. Though, he proved that L2 learners can intentionally attend to the form if the information is understood without difficulty. Knowing that recasts contrast the target-like and non-target-like utterances, during which the intended meaning is unchanged, they are believed to provide processing sources by letting the learners attend to the form.

Long (1996) claims that recasts, along with presenting psycholinguistic benefits such as helping L2 improvement by giving learners the main resource of negative evidence (since recast maintains the learners' intended meaning) it opens the sources of cognition which would then follow the semantic process. Therefore, by keeping the meaning constant, recasts have the possibility in allowing learners to attend to form and to notice errors in their output. Nonetheless, other researchers claim that this is the situation only in form-focused classrooms, where the focus on accuracy trains students to see the corrective purpose of recasts (Lyster & Mori, 2006; 2008; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster, 2007). Leeman (2003) recommended that recasts work like positive evidence, which enables the programming of new forms. Also, Ellis and Sheen (2006) claimed, "It is not possible to say with any certainty whether recasts constitute a source of negative evidence or afford only positive evidence, as this will depend on the learner's concentration to the interaction" (p. 596).

Recasts also raise some teaching issues. For instance, it has been suggested that CF should be dropped since it may have possible adverse impacts on a learners' interest, thereby jeopardizing the progress of language (Truscott, 1999; Krashen, 1981). As recasts are certain, modest, and present the double purpose of giving a correct pattern, whilst laying an emphasis on meaning, many L2 researchers such as (Doughty & Varela., 1998; Long, 1996) believe that they are the perfect CF method. However, recasts are not deprived of difficulties, and several such difficulties have been addressed in the literature. Depending on an investigation of the practical characteristics of recasts applied in meaning-focused L2 classrooms, Lyster (1998) stated that recasts and repetitions without correcting had identical functions and forms and stated that they were used conversely, which presented recasts as ambiguous. Especially, the nature of recasts, which is corrective, was covered by the formal and practical connection with repetition. Related points about recasts ambiguity were mentioned previously (Chaudron, 1977; Fanselow, 1977). These points were more supported by the resulting data that students answered obviously less frequently to recasts than to other CF methods in L2 classrooms (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The confined comprehension after recast (which presented as repair or requires a repair) was regarded as an indication that students did not notice the correction aim of recasts.

It would not be justified to discuss in opposition to the efficacy of recast, simply because it does not direct to instant correction (Ammar & Spada, 2006). As some researchers (Oliver, 1995; 2000; Gass, 1997; Mackey & Philip, 1998; Braidi, 2002) discussed and Lyster (1998) approved that instant correction is a doubtful measure to assess learning since the lack of it cannot be considered as proof of lack of learning. The discussion is that sometimes integration is delayed or occurrence chances of integration are unfeasible or unsuitable in the interaction between speakers. In addition, integration of the correct structure, which follows recasts, does not certainly indicate interlanguage progress. As (Gass, 2003, p. 236) stated that the correction which follows recasts may be an indication of imitating (for example, the repetition that does not involve any examination or correction of L2 learning).

3.3. Prompts and Recasts

Although there is a universal agreement that giving feedback produces important advantages in the performance of learners (Russell & Spada, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Lyster & Saito., 2010) there is controversy about the efficiency of the various types of oral CF. Many studies have compared diverse types of CF to examine which feedback is the most effective technique in the classroom. Whereas some studies state that there was no significant difference among different feedback types e.g. (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Loewen & Nabei, 2007; McDonough, 2007), others uncovered different effects of diverse types of feedback on L2 development e.g. (Long, et al., 1998; Leeman, 2003; Ellis, et al., 2006). There were a high number of studies examining the advantages of prompts in comparison with that of recasts (Yang & Lyster, 2010; Havranek, 1999; Ellis, et al., 2006; Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006). Whereas studies in the classroom usually show prompt as more beneficial, laboratory study suggests that recasts have a facilitating ability in the development of the second language. Lyster's (2004) study of young learners in the French immersion context, for example, found that when FFI is combined with prompts, it was more effective in facilitating the acquisition of grammatical gender than when it was combined with recasts. Similarly, Ammar and Spada (2006) found prompts to be more effective than recasts in the acquisition of the English third person possessive determiners (PDs) his and her by young French first language (L1) speakers, but that the effect of feedback depended on the learner's proficiency level. That is, whilst high proficiency learners (with pre-test scores above 50%) benefited equally from the two CF techniques, the low proficiency counterparts (with pre-test scores below 50%) benefited much more from prompts than from recasts. A meta-analysis of oral CF with 33 studies in both classroom and laboratory settings showed that explicit feedback (metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction) was more beneficial than implicit feedback (recasts, clarification requests, elicitation, and repetition) in the short term, whilst implicit feedback had more effect on L2 learning in the long term (Li, 2010). Another meta-analysis by Lyster and Saito (2010) investigated oral CF in the classroom; with a slightly different result for the effectiveness of different feedback techniques examined (recasts, explicit correction, and prompts). They revealed that prompts were more effective than recasts, whereas the effects of explicit correction were similar to the other two feedback techniques. Ellis et al. (2006) With adult ESL

learners, proved that metalinguistic feedback (i.e. a prompt that consists of repeating the error with a hint of the problem) was more productive than recasts in acquiring the English regular past tense since the learners could recognize the corrective purpose of this CF technique more easily than that of recasts. Yang and Lyster (2010) in the EFL setting analyzed the impacts of recasts, prompts, and no feedback on the learning of the English regular and irregular past tense by grown-up college level learners in China. The findings revealed that on both immediate and delayed post-tests the prompts benefitted participants more than recasts on the acquisition of the regular past tense. Likewise, Loewen and Philp (2006) examined 17 hours of meaning-based communication in adult ESL classes, discovering that prompts on the post-tests pointed to more accuracy (75%) than did recasts (53%) however, this does not indicate that recasts are unhelpful in the classroom. In the laboratory setting, recasts have been determined to influence language learning positively, when no control group was included and when they were not compared to another CF technique (Han, 2002; Leeman, 2003; McDonough & Mackey., 2006; Ishida, 2004) when no control group was included. The studies that compared recasts to other techniques of CF have either produced positive effects for recasts only (Long, et al., 1998; Mackey & Philip, 1998) or for both prompts and recasts (Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; McDonough, 2007). For instance, McDonough (2007) in the EFL setting compared the efficacy of recasts with clarification requests on the acquisition of simple past verbs among Thai L1 university undergraduate students and saw that both recasts and clarification requests were useful in producing improvement.

Investigation of the acquisition of the French grammatical gender in second language adult learners also found no differences in the efficacy of prompts and recasts (Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009). In some recast-versus-prompt studies e.g. (Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ammar, 2008; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009), FFI was involved as a part of the experimental treatment, which made it difficult to decide from those studies if FFI has no significant role in any differential effects between prompts and recasts. Moreover, in a few of the studies comparing recasts and prompts modified output opportunities were not measured e.g. (Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, et al., 2006; Loewen & Nabei, 2007; Ammar, 2008; Yang & Lyster, 2010). In brief, prompts produce more modified output opportunities, whereas recasts do not. Modified output is beneficial for L2 development (Swain, 1985; Swain, 1995; Swain,

2005) Therefore, the comparison between recasts and prompts, when participating claims of the two feedback techniques are different, gives an output benefit to prompt. Researchers (Goo & Mackey, 2013; Lyster, et al., 2013) express uncertainty about measuring the comparative effectiveness of different feedback approaches, proposing as an alternative a demand for changing the method of CF research, indicating that it may not be useful to try and find just one helpful feedback technique while all feedback types have some helpful effect in L2 development.

3.4. Reasons affecting CF efficacy

Most of the provided feedback by teachers has been on morphosyntactic errors (Lyster, 1998; Mackey, et al., 2000) this could be because some of the most difficult features of a second language fall into this area. Learners are not able to precisely get the corrective purpose of the feedback and consequently correct the errors on morphosyntax in relation to other types of errors like phonological or lexical errors (Mackey, et al., 2000; Lyster, et al., 2013). Mackey and Goo (2007) in their meta-analysis review study also found that interactional feedback is more effective for lexical than for grammatical improvement. However, this does not indicate that CF has no effect on the development of morphosyntax, but that the effectiveness of CF is related to CF type. For example, recasts effectiveness on morphosyntactic improvement is influenced by the saliency of the grammatical structure and consequently of the recast (Ellis, 2007; Yang & Lyster, 2010). For non-salient structures, a metalinguistic clarification that gives learners information about their utterance error (Ellis, 2007) or a prompt that pushes learners to figure out the error by themselves and self-repair it (Yang & Lyster, 2010) might be more helpful. Therefore, the efficacy of recasts appears to rely on how noticeable they are in the message and on the options, they give to achieve their corrective purpose. On the other hand, prompts give learners adequate opportunities to realize their corrective purpose through hints and production corrections. Lyster and Ranta (1997) noted that language interlocutors frequently provide mixes of the feedback strategies (‘multiple feedbacks’) to correct learner errors and it is vital to understand that because prompts and recasts are naturally different, each of them needing a different method to be effectual. Recasts ask for a learner to recall his or her incorrect utterance and the instructor's target-like reformulating in the working memory is sufficiently long to turn

the students' attention from the *meaning* to *form* and to recognize the type and focus of the error.

In addition to linguistic structures, CF efficacy has individual differences among learners. Long (1996) underlines the significance of learners' internal abilities, "particularly selective attention" (p. 452) in SLA. In language classrooms, learners must consider manifold sources to efficiently speak and improve their interlanguage. This will involve upholding input and output descriptions in short-term memory, retrieving L2 knowledge from long-term memory, dealing with feedback and comparing their own utterances with target-like utterances, and producing corrected descriptions of L2 knowledge in long-term memory (Mackey, et al., 2016). Research on the effects of individual differences such as working memory (WM) on the relationship between interaction and L2 development suggests some obvious tendencies. First, the studies that have observed the relationship between WM and CF have discovered a positive relationship between WM and some features of language learning, noticing of feedback (Mackey, et al., 2002; Sagarra, 2007) producing corrected output (Sagarra, 2007) and L2 development (Goo, 2012; Mackey, et al., 2002; Sagarra, 2007). One study conducted by Trofimovich et al. (2007) did not concur a relationship between WM and interaction, but this is possibly because WM effects are often not apparent until a delayed posttest which happens about two weeks after treatment (Mackey, et al., 2002; Payne & Whitney, 2002) although the delayed posttest in Trofimovich et al.'s (2007) study was two to twelve minutes after treatment. Secondly, the effects of WM interrelate with other effects, such as setting of feedback e.g. (Sagarra, 2007) and the types of feedback given to learners (Goo, 2012). Thirdly, there is confirmation that other individual differences have a relationship with feedback, mostly interaction and L2 development, consisting of anxiety (Sheen, 2008), creativity (McDonough, et al., 2015), control on attention and investigative skill (Trofimovich, et al., 2007), but these influences require more investigation. Lastly, most of this research is conducted on adults, and more research is required on other populations, such as children. In addition, a few more reasons that may affect the effectiveness of CF have been examined. For example, (Oliver, 2000; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Lyster & Saito., 2010) found that children are more perceptive to CF than older learners, especially when it directs them to notice errors.

To sum up, the results of the studies displayed in this chapter suggest that the findings are contradictory in the oral CF field. In general, more research is needed in this area to establish a convincing understanding about the vagueness of recasts in their efficacy for second language development and the potential advantage of any of these CF types in SLA. Following the significant effort of classifying various methods of CF, this study has developed a study aim of research as to which CF method is best in developing L2 learning. This point is highly relevant as it can direct investigators one step further towards the question 'how should errors be corrected?' If it can be confirmed that specific feedback models are more beneficial than others, information can then be provided to L2 instructors to develop better error correction processing and greater L2 learning. The next chapter presents an overview of the article systems of the three languages of concern to this study English, Kurdish, and Arabic languages with the intention of explaining differences between the L1, L2, and L3 language article systems.

4. LINGUISTIC BACKGROUND: ARTICLES IN ENGLISH, KURDISH, AND ARABIC.

4.1. Introduction

Many SLA studies have stated that the acquisition of the English article system is questionable for English as a second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) learners, particularly for the learners whose first language (L1) does not have an article system or determiners (Ionin, et al., 2004; White, 2008; Avery & Radišić, 2007; Zdorenko & Paradis, 2007; 2008; 2011). The difficulties that L2 learners of English have in using English articles come in various linguistic classes, display different error types, and derive from various sources.

Ionin (2003) and Ionin et al. (2004) stated that English language learners usually do two kinds of errors: article omission and article overuse or substitution; the second type is often described as the misuse of the definite article 'the' to erroneously replace it with the indefinite article 'a' in conditions that require the use of the indefinite article and the other way around. Zdorenko and Paradis (2007; 2008) reported that adult L2 English learners omitted articles in both definite and indefinite conditions (i.e. used bare nouns) and erroneously changed the article 'the' to 'a'. White (2008) listed three types of problems in the acquisition of articles: dropping articles in required settings, error replacement 'the' to 'a', and ‘overuse’ of articles in indefinite plural states, where a zero article is required.

There is no universal recognition showing the reasons why L2 English learners' have problems with articles (Zdorenko & Paradis, 2007) although a few reports have been proposed to describe the causes of this problem. Avery and Radišić (2007) in their review study classify the causes of the articles' difficulty into three main sections: L1 influence, Universal Grammar (UG), and L2 influence. Instead, White (2008) associate L2 learners' article errors to difficulties with several linguistic information listings:

- Syntactic
- phonological
- semantic information.

This chapter presents article systems in English, Kurdish, and Arabic, in order to recognize the difference between the languages and identify the probability of the errors that they could make in English article use.

4.2. Definiteness and Specificity in English

Heim (1991) stated that definiteness is a semantic characteristic, which presents an indication of the knowledge of both the speaker and the hearer regarding a discussion referent. English encodes this semantic knowledge in its article system. The English article '*the*' indicates (+definite) whereas the article *'a*' points to (-definite), in a definite context speech the hearer believes that there is a unique individual under discussion (Ko, et al., 2008). Moreover, Ko, et al. claim that the definite article '*the'* can be applied in different settings, which provides the uniqueness. It can be applied to point back to an already introduced determiner phrase (DP). However, when the uniqueness is introduced by common world information of the speaker and the hearer the article *'the'* is used without any previous mentioning.

Additionally, specificity is a semantic characteristic that refers to the knowledge status of the speaker regarding a unique speech meaning (Ionin, 2003; Ionin, 2006). Specificity significantly differs from definiteness as specificity is concerned with the speaker's purpose to refer disregarding the hearer's understanding state. In the article system of Standard English, there is no marker for the [+specific] feature, there are two articles, *the* and *a*, which are used in [+definite] and [-definite] contexts, individually, regardless of specificity. On the other hand, common (spoken) English does have a marker of specificity: the demonstrative *this* on its indefinite referential use although the English article system is not depended on the specificity characteristic, it has been noted that article choice in L2 learners is indeed influenced by the specificity characteristic. Particularly, earlier research has proved that L2 learners misuse the specific indefinite and nonspecific definite (Ionin, 2003; Ionin, et al., 2004). In their study of two languages which lack articles (Korean and Russian) in the acquisition of L2 English, (Ionin, et al., 2004) found that the learners were choosing

articles depending on specificity and definiteness. The Russian participants (33%) and the Korean learners (14%) at the time chose the indefinite article in [+definite, -specific] conditions. The Russian learners' overuse of the definite article in specific contexts [-definite, +specific] was higher (36%) than Korean native speakers, which was (22%). This means that L2 learners incorrectly connect 'the' with the [+specific] feature instead of [+definite] and 'a' with the [-specific] feature instead of [-definite].
This evidence directed the researchers to propose the presence of a semantic parameter in UG, which is known as the Article Choice Parameter (ACP) that has two settings; Articles characterized based on specificity, for example in Samoan, and articles characterized based on definiteness, for example in English.
To understand the article system and article choice contexts, four article contexts examples from (Ko, et al., 2008, p. 120) and their interpretations are presented:

a) [+specific, +definite]: target 'the'

I would like to meet the author of that book someday – I saw an interview with her on TV, and I really liked her!

The author is [+definite] because the speaker and the hearer presume the unique presence of a well-known author, it is also [+specific] because the speaker has full knowledge of the referent and means to refer to that individual.

b) [-specific, +definite]: target 'the'

I would like to meet the author of that painting – unfortunately, I have no idea who it is, since the painting is not signed!

Contrarily, in (b), the author is [+definite] but [-specific], the author provides the uniqueness presupposition, but the speaker lacks specific information about the referent and has not any intention to refer to a specific individual.

c) [+specific, -definite]: target 'a'

I am here for a week. I am visiting a friend from college – his name is Sam Brown, and he lives in Cambridge now.

In (c), a friend is [-definite] as the speaker and the hearer does not give any unique known referent (either because of earlier speech or by common world information).

But, it is [+specific] as the speaker has a specific individual in mind (i.e. Sam Brown), and means referring to that person.

d) [-specific, -definite]: target 'a'

He is staying with a friend – but he didn't tell me who that is.

A friend in (d) is [-definite] and [-specific]; the speaker and the hearer do not know the referent, and the speaker does not have a specific person in mind.

4.3. Definiteness and Specificity in Kurdish

Definiteness in the Kurdish language is questionable since there are different dialects, differences in the writing system, and a lack of scholarly studies of the Kurdish language. Rhea (1872, p. 120), presenting one of the earliest statements on the Kurdish language, mentions that "the Kurdish language has no articles; but the demonstratives are often used with the value of a definite article, and the numeral "*ēk*" "*one*", with that of an indefinite". However, he appears to be the only researcher who denied the usage of articles in the Kurdish language. Soane (1913) does not specify definite and indefinite articles but examines the definiteness comparison of some models under the title singular nouns. He also explains that the diminutives (*-ek, -aka,* and *–k*) should not be mixed with those indicating singular nouns.

Kurdish	English
Duzhmin	An enemy
Duzhmin***ek***	An enemy (dim.)
Duzhmin***aka***	An enemy (dim.)

(Soane, 1913, p. 9)

Amin (1968) records eight articles for definiteness in the Kurdish language as in the following:

Indefinite ***-ê -yê -êk -yêk -yak -ak***

Definite ***-ka –aka***

Whereas, on the other hand, Kalbasi (2006) states that in Mehabadi dialect definiteness is listed as the following articles:

Indefinite ***-ē -ēk***

Definite ***-a –aka***

Kalbasi (2006) only mentions a few instances of the articles without explaining the rules in using them. She notes the modification of indefinite articles "*-a*" after nouns which end in consonant, "*-aka*" after nouns which end in vowels, and "*-ēk*" to "*-ya*", "*-yaka*", and "*-yēk*" after the words which end in /*â*/ vowel to make them definite nouns. Thackston (2006b) describing nouns in the Kurdish language, shows three categories of nouns, including absolute, indefinite, and definite

Indefinite***: èk***, yèk– ***ân, yân***

Definite***: aká, ká– akân, kân***

First, the absolute condition of nouns gives the noun a generic judgment. In an absolute condition, a Kurdish noun has no affixes or diminutives, like the form of the noun that is given in a list of vocabularies or what can be seen in a dictionary.

Wafr spi**a**.

Snow white **is**.

Snow **is** white

(Thackston, 2006b, p. 8)

Second, is the indefinite condition which is formed by adding the indefinite marker *"-(y) èk"* ("èk" after consonants and "yèk" after vowels) at the end of a singular noun:

Kurdish	English
Rozh	Day
Rozhèk	A day
Darga	Door
Dargâyèk	A door

(Thackston, 2006b, p. 8)

Or by adding - yân/ân ('ân' after consonants and yân after vowels) to the absolute singular noun to make the indefinite plural form.

Kurdish	English
Dargâ	Door
Dargâ**yân**	(**some**) door**s**
Nâma	Letter
Nâm**ân**	(**some**) letter**s**

(Thackston, 2006b, p. 9)

Lastly, definite singular nouns are composed by attaching the suffix "-aka/ká", "aká" after consonants, u, e, and î, and "-ká" after the vowels a, â, and o) The pattern *îaká* regularly follows a vowel reduction to *eká*, and spelled like that in Kurdish:

Kurdish	English
Dargâ	Door
Dargâ**ká**	The door
De	Village
De**aká**	The village
Amarîkî	American
Amarîkî**aká**	The American

(Thackston, 2006b, p. 9)

To compose the definite plural the suffix (an/kân) is added to the singular absolute state of the noun.

Kurdish	English
Dargâ**ká**	The door
Dargâ**kân**	The doors
De**aká**	The village

De**akán**	The villages
Amarîkî**aká**	The American
Amarîkî**akán**	The Americans

(Thackston, 2006b, p. 9)

Thackston (2006b) describes that demonstratives (i.e., this, that, these, and those) can also follow the nouns and influence their definiteness. These demonstratives are usually attached to the beginning of the indefinite plural nouns and the absolute singular while (ya/á) are added to the end of the noun to make it specific. For instance:

English	Kurdish
This man	**am** pyâw**á**
These men	**am** pyâw**âná**
That letter	**aw** nâma**yá**
Those letters	**aw** nâm**âná**

(Thackston, 2006b, p. 10)

The above studies have primarily examined the Sorani dialect of Kurdish language which is different from Kurmanji dialect in some syntactic structures like articles. Thackston (Thackston, 2006a) in Kurmanji dialect a noun is absolute, which means without any affix of any sort, it creates the general and definite sense of the noun. This is also the "lexical" structure of the noun, i.e. the structure to which a noun is given in a dictionary or in a list of vocabularies. Therefore, a noun like **kitêb** 'book' means 'books (in general)' or 'the book' (the one that has already been introduced) according to the context. However, (Zaxoyi, 2009) states that definite articles in Kurmanji dialect Kurdish are *ê* (for singular female), *i* (for singular male), *an* (for both female and male plural), but their position in the sentence changes according to the verb tenses.

a. In the past tense, definite articles become suffix to the subject and define the object.

Mehînê giya xuar. *(female)*
Mare-the-DEF-ART grass ate-PST.

The mare ate the grass.

Seyî goşt xuar. *(male)*

Dog-the-DEF-ART meat ate-PST.

The dog ate the meat.

Golikan g**i**ya xuar. *(Plural)*

Calves-PLR-the-DEF-ART grass ate-PST.

The calves ate the grass.

(Zaxoyi, 2009, p. 21)

b. In the present and the future tenses, definite articles become suffixes to the object and define the subject. In plural sentences (n, in) added to the verbs.

Hesp khayê d**i**xue. *(Present)*

Horse hay- eat-DEF-ART-s-PRST.

The horse eats the hay.

Hesp khayê d**ê** xue. *(Future)*

Horse hay- will-DEF-ART-eat-FTR.

The horse will eat the hay.

Mirîşk hêkan d**i**kin. *(Present plural)*

Hen eggs-PLR lay-DEF-ART

The hens lay the eggs.

Mirîşk hêkan d**ê** kin. *(Future plural)*

Hen eggs-PLR will-DEF-ART-lay

The hens will lay the eggs.

(Zaxoyi, 2009, p. 22)

Indefinite articles in Kurmanji Kurdish are (ek) for the NPs which end in a consonant (yek) for the NPs which end a vowel.

Çêl (cow) → çêlek (a cow)

Ga (ox) → gayek (an ox)

(Zaxoyi, 2009, p. 23)

By putting the definite articles (î, ê, an) after (ev, ew) they will be definite demonstrative pronouns.

Evê	This (female)	Ewê	That (female)
Evî	This (male)	Ewî	That (male)
Evan	These	Ewan	Those

(Zaxoyi, 2009, p. 25)

In brief, the article system in Sorani dialect Kurdish, the definiteness article (yaka) is added to the NPs which end in a vowel, and (aka) is added to the NPs which end in a consonant. The indefiniteness article (yèk) is added to the NPs which end in a vowel, and the article (èk) is added to the NPs which end a consonant. And adding demonstratives (**am** + **á**), (**aw + á**) to specify the NPs.

However, in the Kurmanji dialect Kurdish, definite articles are *ê* (for singular female), *i* (for singular male), *an* (for both female and male plural), but their position in the sentence changes according to the tense of the sentence, and indefinite articles are *ek (yek*). And adding definite articles (î, ê, an) after (ev, ew) to specify the NPS.

4.4. Definiteness and Specificity in Arabic

An SLA study on the acquisition of the English article system classifies languages into two kinds: [+article] the languages that have article system, and [–article] the languages that do not have the article system. Schulz (2004) states that the Arabic language is a language that has a definite article marker, but it does not have an indefinite article as a marker of indefiniteness. Unlike the English language, Arabic has only definite article 'al', which is the same definiteness marker of the English 'the'. Therefore, in the Arabic article system, most of the studies' focus is on the differences between definiteness and indefiniteness rather than definiteness and specificity as in the English article system. Swan and Smith (2001) says that definite articles in Arabic and English are similar in 'the' as they introduce nouns which are indefinite and unique. However, he continues that the negative transfer which has resulted from the dissimilarity between Arabic and English language creates difficulties. This lack is counterbalanced by applying nunation (in Arabic it is called Tanween). However, Fassi-Fehri (1993) has seen this as the major cause of the negative intervention, which generates error composition.

Adway (2013) in his research, found that the presence of the definite article 'the' in Arabic is a cause of negative transfer because it affects Arab learners of English language to use 'the' in any condition disregarding whether it is required or not. Meanwhile, the nonexistence of the definite article 'the' is another language difference problem that results in making errors during using the English article system by Arab students in various settings. To attach the nonexistence of 'al' before the noun phrase (NP) which is a zero article or a bare noun represents indefiniteness in English or (Nakerah) in Arabic. Definiteness and indefiniteness situations are found in all languages, but they are listed differently. The structures of each language in phrasing definiteness and indefiniteness are different. In the syntactic level, the Arabic grammatists revealed that the real nature of all nouns is indefiniteness (in English it is the zero article) and adding the definiteness marker 'al' before the NP which is another situation that will be discussed later. In the indefinite state in Arabic, we say ketabun, ketabin, ketaban (book). The suffixes (un, in, and an) in the Standard Arabic are called (Tanween). These different forms represent different grammatical states in sentences. The following examples show these grammatical rules of the word ketab in various syntactic forms:

I bought **a book** about animals.

"Ishtaryto **ketaban** a'n al haywanat".

اشتريت **كتابًا** عن الحيوانات.

(Adway, 2013, p. 47)

In the above sentence, the noun ***ketab*** is a direct Object. ***'an'*** is added to the end of the noun ***ketab*** to become ***ketaban***.

"Istafadato I learned a lot from **a book** I bought.

men **ketabin** qara'atoh".

استفدت من **كتاب** اشتريته.

(Adway, 2013, p. 47)

In the above sentence, the noun Kitab is propositional complement preceded by the preposition 'from' (in Arabic "men ": is a proposition that has the same meaning of the

preposition form). Accordingly, 'in' is attached to show the prepositional state. And it becomes Ketabin.

A book you read is sometimes better than a friend.

"**Ketabun** taqra'uho ahyanan afdal men sadeeq".

كتابٌ تقرئه احيانا افضل من صديق.

(Adway, 2013, p. 47)

In this sentence, the noun *Ketab* comes at the beginning of the sentence hence, 'un' is added to determine (a book). It becomes *Ketabun*.

Attaching *'al'* becomes *al-Ketab* (the book) and becomes the definite situation of the word. In Arabic Definiteness is represented by adding the article 'al' to the beginning of words.

I bought **the book** you told me about.

"Ishtaryto **al-ketab**al-athi akhbartani anho"
اشتريت **الكتاب** الذي اخبرتني عنه.

(Adway, 2013, p. 48)

In this sentence, 'al' is added to the beginning of the noun Kitab to become al-Kitab and makes it definite which is called Ma'refa (definiteness) and the opposite of Nakerah (indefiniteness).

Obviously, the distinctions between Arabic and English systems are the major points of the problem in teaching and learning the English articles; and it might be the reason of the negative transfer, which causes errors in using the articles.

In Arabic, the definite article *él* comes before the noun and does not specify gender and number features with the noun. The *l* of *él* can integrate with the consonant that follows. In Standard Arabic, indefinite takes the morphological marker *n* which is called Nunation (Deprez, et al., 2011).

Table 4.1 Arabic article system.

Arabic articles	definite	indefinite
Singular nouns	él	-n

[-Definite, +Specific] (Arabic):

In a shop

A: Hél tabhathin-a 3én chayi-n ya sayidati)

.(هل تبحثين عن شيء يا سيدتي)

Do search of thing oh madam

B: Na3ém, inani abhathu 3én hakibat-I-n sawda-a taraktouha houn

(.نعم, انني ابحثو عن الحقيبة سوداء تركتهوها هون)

Yes, am I search of bag a black left it there.

(Deprez, et al., 2011, p. 30)

In brief, the choice of the article in Arabic is based on definiteness rather than specificity (Guella, et al., 2008). The Arabic language is a language that has a definite article marker, but it does not have an indefinite article as a marker of indefiniteness. Arabic has only definite article 'al', which is the same definiteness marker of the English 'the'. In the syntactic level, the Arabic grammatists revealed that the real nature of all nouns is indefiniteness (in English is the zero article). In the indefinite state in Arabic, the suffixes (un, in, and an) in the Standard Arabic are called (Tanween) indefinite takes the morphological marker *n* which is called Nunation (Deprez, et al., 2011).

4.5. Summary

Definiteness is a semantic characteristic, which presents an indication of the knowledge of both the speaker and the hearer regarding a discussion referent. English encodes this semantic knowledge in its article system. The English article '*the*' indicates (+definite) whereas the article *'a*' point to (-definite), in a definite context speech the hearer believes that there is a unique individual under discussion. The Kurdish language has two main dialects, Sorani and Kurmanji. The article system in both dialects are different, in Sorani dialect Kurdish, the definiteness article (*yaka*) is added to the NPs which end in a vowel, and (*aka*) is added to the NPs which end in a consonant which is the equivalent definiteness marker "*the*" in English. The indefiniteness article (*yèk*) is added to the NPs which end in a vowel which is the same indefinite marker *'an'* in English, and the article (*èk*) is added to the NPs which end in a consonant which is the same indefiniteness marker 'a' in English. However, in Kurmanji dialect, definite articles are *ê* (female), *i* (male), *an* (plural) which are the same definiteness marker *'the'* in English, but their position in the sentence changes according to the tense of the sentence, and indefinite articles are (*ek*) the equivalent indefiniteness marker *'a'* and (*yek*) the same indefiniteness marker *'an'* in English.

Moreover, While English has an indefinite and definite article, Arabic article system only has the definite article (*al*) and does not have indefinite articles. Therefore, L1 Arabic learners are likely to make errors in using indefinite articles in English.

Because of the absence of the indefinite article in Arabic, L1 Arabic learners of English are likely to make errors in omitting the indefinite article '*a'* as all words in Arabic are indefinite by default (Schulz, 2004).

In addition, specificity is a semantic characteristic that refers to the knowledge status of the speaker regarding a unique speech meaning. Specificity significantly differs from definiteness as specificity is concerned with the speaker's purpose to refer disregarding the hearer's understanding state. In the article system of Standard English, there is no marker for the [+specific] feature, there are two articles, *the* and *a*, which is used in [+definite] and [-definite] contexts, individually, regardless of specificity. On the other hand, common (spoken) English does have a marker of specificity: the demonstrative *this* on its indefinite referential use although the English article system is not depended on the specificity characteristic, it has been noted that article choice in L2 learners is indeed influenced by the specificity characteristic.

Similarly, In the article system of Kurdish language, there is no marker for the [+specific] feature, there are definite and indefinite articles, which are used in [+definite] and [-definite] contexts, regardless of specificity. However, (Thackston, 2006b) states that in Sorani dialect, demonstratives (i.e., this, that, these, and those) are attached to the beginning of the NPs, while (ya/á) are added to the end of the noun to make it specific for example: This man → **am** pyâw**á**. While in Kurmanji dialect definite articles (î, ê, an) are added after (ev, ew) to specify the NPS (Zaxoyi, 2009).

To sum up, English, Kurdish and Arabic are all article-based languages. The choice of the article in these languages is based on definiteness. However, there are differences between them with respect to article system, the main difference between English and Kurdish is the position of articles, in English articles are added to the beginning of the NPs while in Kurdish they are linked at the end of the NPs, and between English and Arabic the difference falls in the indefinite marker which cannot be seen in Arabic. In the following chapter, the procedures and details of the experimental study are presented.

5. THE STUDY

5.1. Introduction

This chapter first gives the research questions together with their predictions, then the design of the study and the results.

5.2. Research Questions and Predictions:

This study attempts to examine the following research questions:

1. Do L3 learners who receive oral CF in the form of recast and prompts perform better than those who do not receive any CF?

Our prediction in the light of previous research is that the students who get oral CF either in the form of recast or prompt would be more successful than those who do not get any CF in directing L3 articles.

2. Are prompts more effective than recast in providing oral CF for English article errors by Kurdish-Arabic Bilingual learners of L3 English?

Our prediction is that L3 learners who get prompt in the interactional activities as oral CF would benefit more than students who get recasts as oral CF for the article errors since previous studies suggested that prompts are more effective than recasts in form-focused instruction (FFI) and in classroom learning settings.

5.3. Participants

The study was applied in focused English as a second language (ESL) systems in Erbil. Focused ESL systems are provided in private schools from kindergarten stage. Students learn English every day for 10 months of the school year. They are taught the standard curriculum subjects (i.e., math, science, etc.) in English.

Three groups of students and a teacher (who was responsible for the application of the treatment) participated in this study. From a population of 87 students in a primary school in Erbil, 39 lower intermediate English level students selected to participate. All participants were in grade 6 and in the second half of the school year. Using a linguistic background information questionnaire, it has been found that they (the students) had unlimited exposure to English at home from a simple yes/no question asking: Do you speak English at home? all the students answered with yes. They were always using English with their teachers and very often with their friends, they were usually using English at school, and few of them had lived in English-speaking countries, the below table shows their background information.

Table 5.1 Participants background information.

Groups	Gender		Mean age of first exposure to L3 English	Mean age at time of testing	Age range
	Male	Female			
Prompt (n=15)	3	12	4.3	11	11-13 (SD: 0.6)
Recast (n=14)	4	10	4.3	11	10-13 (SD:0.8)
No feedback (n=10)	4	6	4.1	12	11-13 (SD:0.8)

To ensure the homogeneity of the L3 English participants in the experiment, a proficiency test which was quick oxford placement test (OPT) was given to all the population in three classes each with 28-30 students. According to the results of the proficiency test, from 87 students 39 were found to be at the lower intermediate English level. The lower intermediate level was chosen for this study because the students in this level were seen to already know the target structures definite and indefinite articles *('a'* and *'the')* but not capable of using them properly. Then they were randomly put into three groups, two experimental groups; one for prompts, the other

for recasts and a control group with no feedback. The following table shows the OPT results of the participants.

Table 5.2 Participants' OPT results.

Groups	Mean	SD
Prompt (n=15)	34.87	3.18
Recast (n=14)	34.93	3.12
No feedback (n=10)	32.50	2.27

The age range of the participants was 10 to 13. The students' first language was Kurdish but they had some exposure to the Arabic language outside the home and at school. Most of their prior language of education was English and little L1 Kurdish, the below table shows the participants Kurdish language background.

Table 5.3. Participants by Kurdish Proficiency.

	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced	Near-Native
Reading	0	0	3	36
Writing	0	0	5	34
Speaking	0	0	0	39
Listening	0	0	2	37
Overall Competence	0	0	0	39

The table indicates that the participants were native speakers of Kurdish language, the general definition of ***bilingualism*** is the ability to speak two languages fluently. Bloomfield (1933) defines bilingualism as the acquisition of two or more languages at native-like level. According to (Andersson & Boyer, 1978), bilingualism is using two languages for educational teaching in non-language subjects. However, Cummins (1980) states that bilingualism is the skill to continue a simple dialog, for instance in a shop or in the street which is called (basic interpersonal communicative skills) which

can be improved with background signals like gestures which regularly occurs in face-to-face conditions. In a yes/no question asking: Do you speak Arabic at home? all the participants answered with no, but a few of them reported to speak Arabic with their teacher in the Arabic language subject which is a compulsory subject in all schools in Kurdistan. Some of the participants reported to speak in Arabic with their friends, had been exposed to Arabic from TV/video/radio, and a few of them reported their exposure in magazines/newspapers/books. Within each group, all participants were organized together. In the prompt group, 7 of the 15 lower-intermediate L3 English learners rated their Arabic language skills as intermediate, one advanced, and the rest rated as beginners. In the recast group, again 7 of the 14 participants rated their Arabic proficiency as intermediates, 2 advanced, and the other 5 participants rated as beginners. In the control group, all the 10 participants rated their Arabic as beginners, the below table shows the participants Arabic language level.

Table 5.4. Participants by Arabic proficiency.

	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced	Near-Native
Reading	14	17	8	0
Writing	28	9	2	0
Speaking	26	9	4	0
Listening	23	11	5	0
Overall Competence	22	14	3	0

The Arabic language ability of the participants' overall competence is intermediate; they live in Kurdistan, an independent Kurdish region of the Arabic country ‘Iraq’ that means they do live in an Arabic environment. Thus, the participants are named bilinguals of Kurdish /Arabic.

5.4. Materials and Instruments

All students who participated in the study took a placement test, a pretest, posttest, and a delayed posttest:

5.4.1. Proficiency test:

Before processing any tests on the participants' article system, a proficiency test proceeded to set up the setting for the main study. The test was run in three classes of grade 6 in the primary school where the study has been conducted the number of the students in each of the three classes were between 28-30 total a population of 87 students, took a quick placement test by (Oxford-University-Press & Cambridge-University-Syndicate, 2001), this test is a standard measure of proficiency in English. It has a standardized scale that verifies learners' levels as a beginner, elementary, lower intermediate, upper-intermediate, advanced, and very advanced including all levels from A1 to C2. It contained 60 questions given to the population and they had 30 minutes to answer all the questions. The results of the test showed different English levels among the population and classified the learners as follows. The ***prompt*** group included 1 beginner, 10 elementary, 15 lower intermediate, and 3 upper-intermediate L3 English learners. The ***recast*** group contained 12 elementary, 14 lower intermediates, and 2 students were absent. The ***no feedback*** group contained 17 elementary, 10 lower intermediates, 1 advanced, and 2 learners were absent. However, the lower-intermediate level students were selected to participate in this study, the below table shows the mean and range of their scores according to each group.

Table 5.5. Participants by English Proficiency.

English L3	N	Mean	Range (out of 60)
Lower intermediate (Prompt)	15	34.87	30-39
Lower intermediate (Recast)	14	34.93	31-39
Lower intermediate (No feedback)	10	32.50	31-36

To be recap, in order to ensure the homogeneity of the participants for the experiment, this study only focuses on the results of lower-intermediate L3 students, excluding other English level L3 learners. To determine that the students have the same information about the target structure (articles), a pre-test was assigned to the three groups.

5.4.2. Pretest:

The experimental study consisted of a forced-choice elicitation task (Ionin, 2003); the pre-test was applied to measure the participants' current level of accuracy in producing articles in L3 English.

Forced choice elicitation task (FCET):

The only task applied in the study was an article FCET, a task which allowed L3 students to choose the correct article for a certain context. It contained 76 short dialogues from (Ionin, 2003). This task was selected because it was shown to work well and be effective to elicit and test articles in the previous studies. The selection of the test design was made to facilitate the researchers' work on the context categories.

Thus, the only and main task in this study was a *forced choice* task to test the choice of articles in different semantic contexts. In each dialogue of the task, the target sentence was missing an article: the learner had to choose between 'a', 'the', and the null article (---), choosing his or her answer according to the preceding context. There were 28 dialogues, 7 in each of the [-definite, -specific], [-definite, +specific], [+definite, +specific], [+definite, -specific] contexts. The target article in each item was underlined. Examples from the test:

[+definite, +specific] *at a bookstore*

Chris: Well, I've bought everything that I wanted. Are you ready to go?

Mike: Almost. Can you please wait a few minutes**?** I want to talk to **(a, <u>the</u>, --) owner** of this bookstore - she is my old friend**.**

(Ionin, 2003, p. 277)

[+definite, -specific] *At a supermarket*

Sales Clerk: May I help you, sir?

Customer: Yes! I'm very angry. I bought some meat from this store, but it is completely spoiled! I want to talk to **(a, <u>the</u>, --) owner** of this store - I don't know who he is, but I want to see him right now!

(Ionin, 2003, p. 277)

[-definite, +specific] *At an airport*

Security guard1: I saw that you just talked to an old man who looked very nervous. What did he want?

Security guard2: He said that he is trying to find **(a, the, --) little girl** from

American Airlines flight 142. He said it's his granddaughter. I couldn't help him, unfortunately - Flight 142 is not here yet.

(Ionin, 2003, p. 277)

[-Definite, -specific] *In a clothing store*

Clerk: May I help you?

Customer: Yes, please! I have rummaged through every stall, without any success**.** I am looking for **(a, the, --) warm hat.** It is getting rather cold outside**.**

(Ionin, 2003, p. 277)

5.4.3. Posttest:

Immediately after the treatment, the posttest was given and the same FCET, which was used in the pre-test, was used again. The posttest aimed to show the improvement of the students' article use. In other words, whether our treatment influenced using articles or producing articles or not.

5.4.4. Delayed posttest:

18 days later, the delayed posttest was given, and the same FCET which was used in the pretest and the posttest was used again in this test but the students did not know. The test was given to show the learners' knowledge processing.

5.5. Treatment

The treatment contained three components as follows: observation, the preparation session, and the interactional activity (dialogue build activity) in the classroom.

5.5.1. Observation

Six-day-45-minutes each group lessons were observed and 149 CF occurrences arising from the interactions between the teacher and the students were coded. Unfortunately, the participating teacher did not give any permission for any video recording or audio

recording of her lectures during the treatment but she was accepting of an observer in her classes on a daily basis. Therefore, with using CF observation scheme adapted from (Ammar & Spada, 2006) 13.5 hours of classroom teaching interaction were observed and coded in real time by the researcher sitting at the back of the classroom. The observation scheme contained the students' errors; the two types of the CF of interest to this study recasts and prompts. All other feedback methods were classified under the group "other" and the errors to which the teacher did not react classified under a group nominated as "ignore"! These data were collected during the same 13.5-hours period during which the categories were coded.

The researcher was observing every day in each class to confirm that the teacher was applying oral CF as planned, and to get the frequency of the CF that she used in each of the groups. These are presented in the results chapter. In addition, some more measures were carried out to make sure that the various requirements of CF methods were applied as designed. Firstly, as described earlier, all the instructional elements were completely described during the preparation session that preceded the experimental treatment and the teacher was provided with a booklet which was explaining the use of the CF techniques with examples adapted from (Ammar & Spada, 2006) see (APPENDIX A). Secondly, the researcher stayed in daily contact with the teacher to answer her questions to reassure her that there were no issues or problems performing the task. These measures allowed the researcher to find out the frequency with which feedback was given, and they helped to confirm that the teacher was applying the kind of feedback as required by her specified condition according to the experimental groups in each group.

5.5.2. The preparation session

A teacher amongst the ESL teachers at a primary school in Erbil was selected to give two experimental groups and a control group a treatment involving teaching articles. The teacher of the three classes was an experienced ESL instructor from the Cambridge educational program and with a master's degree in linguistics. She was selected after discussions with a range of teachers and her supervisor within the program. Before starting the experiment, she read a set of notes describing conversational activity materials and providing interactional CF with examples. Because CF is the focus of the present study, a preparation session was held for the

teacher to inform her about using the two techniques of feedback of concern to the study (i.e. recasts and prompts).

The researcher had a session with the teacher separately to explain the usage of the CF according to each CF condition, which she was asked to use in the three groups. This session was accomplished in a classroom setting and did not involve any of the learners in the study; the teacher was given a booklet to help her in her contribution to the study which defined the aims of the study and offered a full explanation of the CF methods to apply during the experimental involvement. In the recast group, the teacher was informed to respond to her students' article errors by reformulating them, and in the prompt group, the teacher was informed to push her students to self-repair via four methods of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) negotiation of the form (i.e., elicitation, repetition, clarification requests, and metalinguistic feedback).

A preparing session was held with the teacher before the starting of the instructional treatment to make sure that she comprehended the activity and the CF situations that she was required to apply. In addition to the researcher's continuous contact with the teacher, it was thought necessary to provide her with the treatment requirements, which agree with his CF style. This was prepared to avoid any potential mistakes that might occur in the procedures where she was required giving CF in a different way from her normal corrective style.

5.5.3. The classroom interaction activity

Pedagogical treatment is divided into seven daytime period sessions and set two major stages: the first stage was a teaching section which was held on the first day of the treatment and continued for 45 minutes in each of the three classes. The students initially had a teaching section during interacting; the teacher gave explanations about the articles and the rules of using definite and indefinite articles. In the present study, teaching of articles was arranged to capture any prior knowledge of the students about the target structure, since prompts cannot be applied to elicit information that learners do not know already (Lyster, 2004). It had been known that the participants had previously covered the articles in their earlier stages in the school and a teaching section was required in which the rules of using articles was taught again to ensure the participants had the required knowledge about articles and to avoid any potential threats influencing the results of the study. This teaching section was given to all the three groups to keep the results clear from the effects of the experimental differences

(i.e. oral CF). Moreover, the second stage was an interactional activity which aimed the FCET, continued for six days of 45 minutes for each group. In this stage, dialogue building activity had been prepared which included sixteen short dialogues, four dialogues for each of the four (definiteness and specificity) contexts. The dialogues were 2-to-6-line conversations between two people in different semantic contexts based on the language the students knew. The teacher drew the picture of two people on the board, set the context for example: *at a supermarket* and then she put the two speakers' pictures on either side of the board. She then drew a bubble from the person who speaks first and inserted a prompt, for example *where/going?* Elicited the target sentence, for example, *where are you going?* Shaped and drilled the target language with the whole class and then individually for each conversation, she chose two students to come to the stage and act in front of the whole class. Then she drew a reply speech bubble and inserted a prompt, for example: *talk to/ fourth person in this line/It's my friend Peter*. Elicited the target sentence, *I am going to talk to **the** fourth person in this line, it's my friend Peter*. She continued like that, establishing one line at a time until the conversation was completed (Clark, et al., 2005). The sentences of each dialogue were intentionally chosen to elicit [DS, DNONS, IDS, IDNONS] contexts. The students practiced the conversations in pairs, they changed their role and practiced the conversations again during which the teacher was giving oral CF according to each group.

Some examples of the conversation between the students and the teacher from this study, in the recast group as shown below:

- T: (*Between two friends*) what/doing/week-end?

S1: what you doing on weekends?

T: not weekends use a specific weekend and make a question sentence.

S1: what are you doing for this weekend?

T: yes, correct. This time Payam, you reply him by using these missing words (going/Ruanduz/Soran).

S 2: I am going to Ruanduz and Soran.

T: sounds/ fun/ what/ going/ do/ there?

S1: that sounds fun. What are you going to do there?

T: things/ hike/ climb/ plan/ visit/ oldest/ armory/ Kurdistan/ it's/ Ruanduz/ Soran/ heard/ very/ interesting place

S2: So many things like hiking, climbing, and I am planning to visit oldest armory in Kurdistan. It's in Ruanduz, Soran. I heard it is a very interesting place.

T: Okay, I plan to visit the oldest armory, what else**.** ***(Recast)*** → [+definite, +specific]

Moreover, in the prompt group she was using four types of prompts (repetition, clarification requests, and metalinguistic clues, and elicitation) for example:

- T: (In a library) excuse me/ help?

S1: Excuse me can you help me.

T: Certainly/ can/ do?

S2: Certainly, what can I do?

T: would like/ read/ most interesting book/ library/ but/ don't know/ that

S1: I would like to read most interesting book in the library. But I don't know what that is.

T: MOST interesting book? (Rising intonation on the word 'most') → ***(Repetition)***

S1: the most interesting book.

- S1: he got the scarf; it is green with big purple stripes.

T: No, it is an unknown scarf until you introduce it to us. →**(Metalinguistic clues)**

S1: no response.

S2: he got a scarf.

T: good.

S1: did she get anything?

S2: she got **a hat**; she wanted to cover her head from **sun**.

T: Excuse me! I did not understand**.**→ **(Clarification requests)**

S2: she got **the hat;** she wanted to cover her head from **sun**.

T: this sentence is incorrect. Who can correct it? → **(Elicitation)**

S3: she got a hat; she wanted to cover her head from the sun.

T: Bravo!

During these, experimental groups received CF according to the group states, which they were assigned to. The teacher corrected errors of the participants in the first group by recasting their erroneous utterances, the second group by prompting the students to self-correction or peer-correction, and in the third group by not providing any types of error correction until students asked questions about ambiguous things in their mind and asked explanations for the subject.

5.6. Procedures

As mentioned before, three groups of learners with an identical range of language proficiency were participating in this study from three classes of grade six students in an English focused primary school. A quick Oxford placement test was applied to ensure their homogeneity before putting them into the three groups, after getting the results of the proficiency test the lower-intermediate level students were selected to participate in this study, because the lower-intermediate level students were seen to already know the target structures *'a'* and 'the' but not capable of using them properly. After selection, they were placed into three groups, two experimental groups (Recasts and Prompts) and a control group (no feedback). In the following days, a linguistic background information questionnaire was given to the three groups to check which languages they are exposed to in their daily life, identify the language which is the dominant language, and to analyze their errors accordingly. An ESL teacher was selected to give a treatment involving teaching articles. She was an experienced ESL instructor from Cambridge educational program; she was selected to give the treatment to the participants in the study after discussions with a range of teachers and her supervisor within the program. To determine that the students have nearly the same information about the target structure (articles), a pre-test was assigned to the three groups. The topics and activities were directed to display a FCET which was focusing on the target structure; the assignments were designed to intentionally elicit the

articles. The FCET was run on the three groups to all the participating students in the three tests (pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test). The FCET consisted of 76 short dialogues. In each dialogue one of the last sentences was missing an article. The options of articles were provided in parenthesis, it always looked like *(a, the, ----)*, in which the dash **(---)** was meant no article is needed. The participants were required to choose the most appropriate article for the given context from the three options in the parentheses. The selection of the articles was depending on the context, so they were required to read the whole dialogue -the text both before and after the missing article. The participants were given 45 minutes to finish the FCET, but the majority completed in 30 minutes or less.

On the day before the treatment, the researcher held a preparation session with the L3 English teacher, explained the goals of the study and presented comprehensive information on the CF methods to apply. The teacher got the information according to the CF situation she was chosen to apply in the treatment lessons in each of the three classes and in the recast group she was reformulating the learners' incorrect utterance. In the prompts group, she was using four types of prompts (repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation). Learners were associating in communicative dialogue building exercises in pairs, with the whole class, and with their teacher where their incorrect sentences in the *recast* group were corrected. For example:

- S: I feel sorry for only professor here-Dr. Richardson. He seems bored.

T: Ehh, I feel sorry for **the** only professor, continue. (**Recast**)

S: yes, the only professor.

In the prompts group, four methods of prompts namely, 'repetition', 'clarification request', 'metalinguistic clues', and 'elicitation' were used independently or two or more types of prompts were mixed to correct learners' ungrammatical sentences. Whereas the general characteristics of these four types of prompts are withholding the correct forms and driving students to self–correct their incorrect utterances and the correct structures. The approval marks are the characteristic points of the recasts. The following samples from the study explain the use of the four methods of prompts in the study.

Repetition: the instructor was repeating the learners' ungrammatical speech, and adjusts intonation to focus on the error.

- S: I would like to read most interesting book in this library. But I don't know what that is.

T: MOST interesting book? (Rising intonation on the word 'most')→ ***(Repetition)***

S: the most interesting book.

Clarification requests: by clarification request the teacher showed the students either that their communication has not been understood or that the sentence was incorrect and a repetition or a reformulation was expected. Clarification requests included expressions like "pardon?" and "I don't understand".

- S: * I hope to see highest waterfall in <u>the</u> Northern Iraq; I don't know what it is or where it is, so I'll find out!

T: Pardon! I didn't understand!

S: I hope to see highest waterfall in *the* Northern Iraq.

T: this is incorrect.

S: I hope to see the highest waterfall in North Iraq.

T: that is correct.

Metalinguistic clues: the instructor was giving explanations, information, or questions regarding the correction of the learner's utterance, without clearly giving the correct structure. Metalinguistic comments by the teacher usually showed that there is an error somewhere. For instance, when she was asking, "Can you find your error?", or she gave some syntactic metalanguage which described the nature of the error (e.g. 'the subject is a singular noun'). She was also using metalinguistic questions trying to extract the information from the learner (e.g. "Is the noun plural? ", "can you correct this sentence?").

- T: Looking for/ you and Mark/ yesterday/ where/ you?

S: I was looking for you and Mark yesterday. Where were you?

T: went/ cloth store/ Mark/ want/ buy/ clothes/ winter?

S: we went to the cloth store. Mark wanted to buy some clothes for winter.

T: cloth store? Have you introduced which cloth store?

S: No, I haven't. So, it takes the indefinite article **'a'**. Ok. We went to **a** cloth store.

T: That's right. So/ did/ buy/ anything?

S: So, did you buy anything?

T: yes/ scarf/ green/ with big purple stripes.

S: yes, Mark bought a scarf with big purple stripes.

T: Bravo.

***Elicitation*:** the instructor was extracting a reformulation from the learners by asking questions. The Instructors ask different questions to obtain correct structures. For instance, “How do you say that in English?” Teachers pause on their sentences purposely to let learners fill in the gap like "It's a …." Alternatively, by asking students to correct their utterance like "Say it again.", "It is incorrect". Example from the study:

S 1: her friend Lucy gave her necklace. It's very beautiful.

T: incorrect. Can you find your error?

S 1: her friend Lucy gave necklace to her. It's very beautiful.

T: who can correct Yara's sentence? (To the whole class)

S 2: her friend Lucy gave her a necklace.

T: well done.

Immediately after one week of the treatment a post-test was given to the three groups, which consisted of the same testing materials and procedures of the pre-test then after 18 days, a delayed post-test was given with which the same FCET was used again (the students did not know that they will take the same tests as pretest and posttest). The treatment lessons started the day following the preparation session and continued for a week after which the post-test was immediately applied. 18 days later the delayed post-test was given.

6. THE RESULTS

6.1. Introduction

This section presents the results of the accuracy scores from the forced-choice elicitation task, which was given to three groups as pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests. The first group received oral feedback with prompts, and the second group was given the oral feedback via recasts. The third group was not given any oral feedback. First results from the observations of the treatment are presented. Then, the results of the forced-choice elicitation task involving article use in four contexts ([Indefinite, Specific], [Indefinite, Nonspecific], [Definite, Specific], and [Definite, Nonspecific]).

6.2. Observation Results from the Treatment

Throughout the 6-day period of the treatment, the researcher observed each of the three treatment classes for around 13 hours. The classroom observations have shown that the teacher applied the same amount of time to the three groups teaching, 4.5 hours for each of the three groups, prompt group, recast group, and no feedback group. Table 6.1 presents the frequency of CF types, which were given by the participating teacher according to the experimental groups and the control group. The corrective methods of the current study: recasts, four types of prompts – repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation, and the other types of CF, which was not the subject of the study.

Table 6.1. Frequency of the CF.

Type of feedback	Frequency	Percentage
Recast	73	49%
Repetition	24	16%
Clarification requests	9	6%
Metalinguistic clues	21	14%
Elicitation	15	10%
Other	7	5%
Total	149	100%

The coding of the students' errors and CF attempts on the role of the teacher in the three classes showed that there were 440 student errors during the treatment period, 31% occurred in the prompt group, 35% in the recast group, and 34% in the no feedback group. A total of 149 CF occurrences, i.e. overall, she responded to 34% of her students' oral errors in the classroom during the communicative interaction. CF attempts in the prompt group was 42%, in the recast group 51%, and in the no feedback group 9%. Between the two CF techniques in the study, the teacher responded with recasts being more frequent 49%, with all four types of prompts she responded 46%, with repetition being the most frequent among prompt CF methods 16%, clarification requests 6%, metalinguistic clues 14%, and elicitation 10%. There were also a few occasional CF attempts, which were not planned in this study, the portion of this unplanned CF that the teacher used was 5%, and the rate of frequency in which she ignored the students' errors was 66%, mostly in the no feedback group. Table 8 displays the complete number of observed feedback attempts that was provided by the teacher in each of the three groups, and in Table 6 they are ordered into the main two kinds of feedback of this study. The frequency of the CF attempts that she provided in six-day-45 minute-each class lessons of the treatment.

Table 6.2. Oral feedback frequency provided by the teacher.

Group	Number of errors	% errors	Number of feedback attempts	% feedback attempts	Number of ignored errors	% Ignored errors

Prompt n=15	137	31%	57	42%	80	58%
Recast n=14	154	35%	79	51%	75	49%
No Feedback n=10	149	34%	13	9%	136	91%
Total n=39	440	100%	149	34%	291	66%

The teacher's technique of giving oral feedback was agreed during preparations with the teacher for each group. She applied the appropriate CF method in each of the experimental groups, excluding occasional occurrences where the teacher applied a different correcting technique, categorized as "other". This type mostly included paralinguistic signals such as gestures.

6.3. Results from the FCET

6.3.1. Introduction

For the analysis in the present study from the 76 dialogues of the task 28 dialogues were randomly chosen, and the study focused on four contexts which were [+definite, +specific], [+definite, -specific], [-definite, +specific], [-definite, -specific] in each context 7 dialogues selected and excluded the other contexts. The number of definite and indefinite contexts was equal as it was necessary to ensure that the skewness of this distribution did not affect the results. This section firstly gives the overall mean of accurate article use in the three groups over the three-period tests. Second, it gives the accuracy and error analysis which presents the analysis of the error types namely, (substitution and omission) in the four semantic contexts at each of the three-period tests separately to get a consideration of variances among the groups regarding the types of errors they made in each context. For each of (pre-, post-, and delayed posttests) a two-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with the four article contexts [+def, +spec], [+def, -spec], [-def, +spec], [-def, -spec] and error type (substitution and omission). The two-way repeated measures ANOVA was applied to the three groups (prompt, recast, no-feedback) as the between-subjects factor and

article contexts [+def, +spec], [+def, -spec], [-def, +spec], [-def, -spec] and error type (substitution and omission) as the within-subjects factor.

6.3.2. The overall results

The FCET was scored out of 28 points. The descriptive statistics for accuracy scores of the task, containing means and standard deviations for each of the three groups during the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest, given in

Table 6.3.

Table 6.3. Overall accuracy means and standard deviations from FCET.

	Prompt (n=15)		Recast (n=14)		No Feedback (n=10)	
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**
Pre-test	18.33	3.94	18.64	3.03	20.30	3.30
Post-test	21.33	3.54	21.93	3.22	21.10	3.07
Delayed post-test	23	3.14	18.43	4.30	18.40	4.55

CF techniques in the L3 classroom during interaction might affect L3 English article use accuracy, but that effect might differ across CF groups. To know whether different semantic contexts affect different accuracy in article use, a separate analysis was applied to compare the correct use of articles in the tests. A one-way analysis of variances tested the impact of three CF techniques on the article use of Kurdish-Arabic bilingual learners of L3 English, in three tests. The results showed no significant differences among the three groups during the pretest: F (2, 36) = 1.041, p = 0.364; in the posttest, F (2, 36) = 0.209, p = 0.813. however, in the delayed posttest there was a significant difference between the groups, F (2, 36) = 6.191, p = 0.005, prompt group significantly outperformed recast and no feedback groups, as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

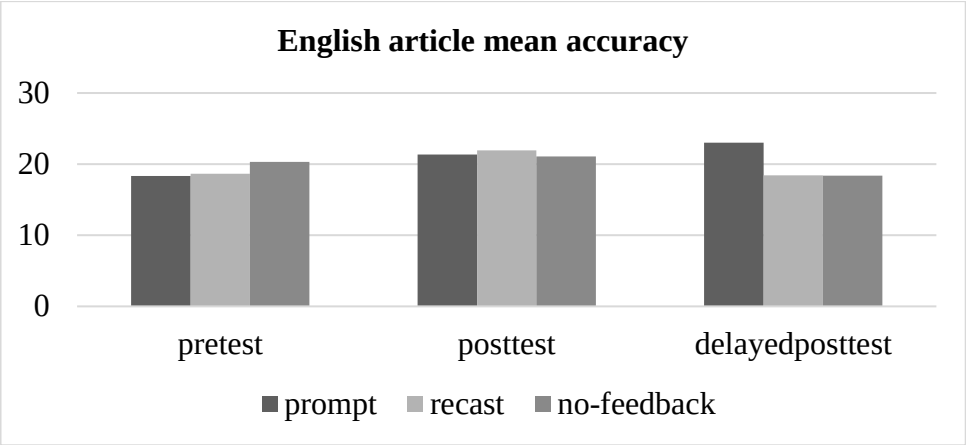


Figure 6.1. Mean accuracy on FCET over the three test periods.

The figure shows that in the pretest and posttest there is not a significant difference between the prompt and recast group but in the delayed posttest the difference between them is very significant. The following subsections presents the accuracy and error analysis of the results from each of the pre-, post-, and delayed posttest separately.

6.3.3. Results from the pretest

Accuracy analysis

The accuracy results from three groups through FCET in the pretest are summarized in **Table 6.4**.

Table 6.4. Mean accuracy from four contexts at pretest.

Groups	**DS (n=7)**		**DNONS (n=7)**		**IDS (n=7)**		**IDNONS (n=7)**	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Prompt (n=15)	6.07	1.10	4.93	1.58	2.67	2.16	4.67	1.45
Recast (n=14)	5.43	1.34	5.43	1.45	3.21	1.48	4.57	1.55
No Feedback (n=10)	6.3	0.67	5.2	1.03	**3.5**	1.43	5.3	1.34

DS (definite – specific contexts), DNONS (definite – non-specific contexts), IDS (indefinite- specific), IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific contexts).

The above table shows that among four contexts all the groups are less accurate in the IDS context followed by DNONS for prompts and IDNONS for recasts. However, all the groups were more accurate in the DS context than the other contexts. There were some differences in article use among the prompt, recast, and no feedback group

students in the pretest. To show the differences among groups in the correct use of articles, a two-way ANOVA was used with the groups as the between-subject factor and accuracy values in four contexts as a within-subject factor. The results indicated a main effect of contexts F (3,108) =29.32, p = 0, 00, such that all the groups had higher accuracy in DS context, and had the lowest accuracy in IDS context. The groups were marginally different on use of *the* F (2, 36) = 3.072, p = 0.059 in the DS context; and on use of *a* F (2, 36) = 2.732, p = 0.079 in the IDS context. They were at significance variance on use of *a* F (2, 36) = 0.283, p = 0.755 in the IDNONS context; and on use of *the* F (2, 36) = 1.202, p = 0.312 in the DNONS context. The interaction effect was not significant F (6, 108) = 0. 79, p = 0.57, which means the difference between the three groups was not significant F (2, 36) = 1.04, p = 0.36, shows that the groups performed equally in the pretest. In all cases, the three groups showed low accuracy in their article use in the IDS context, as plotted in **Figure 6.2**.

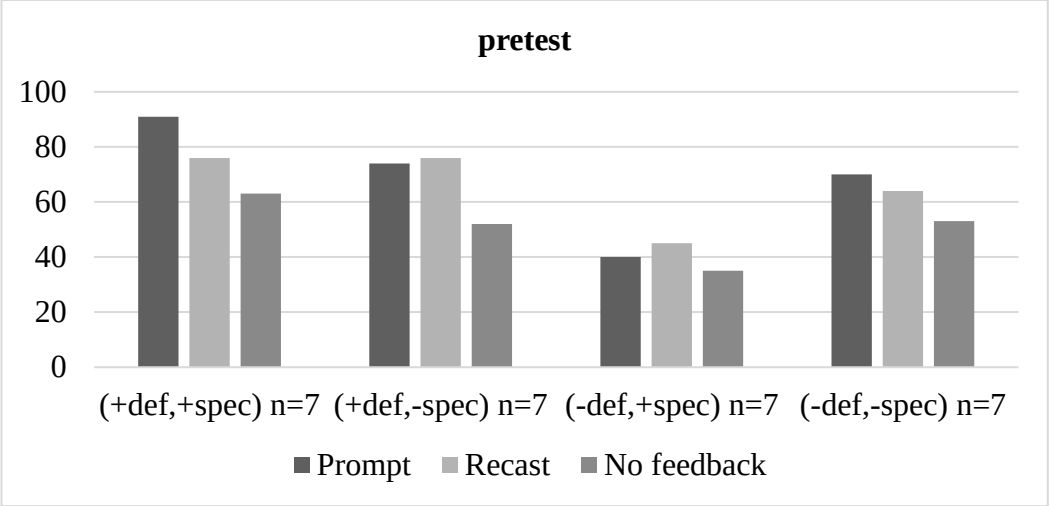


Figure 6.2. Accuracy from four contexts at pretest.

This figure shows the learners' accuracy in the four article contexts in which they are fluctuating between being more accurate in some contexts and less accurate in some others, in the following subsection the study presents the analysis of errors that the students made and which type of errors they mostly made in their article use.

Error analysis

The error results from three groups through FCET in the pretest are summarized in

Table 6.5.

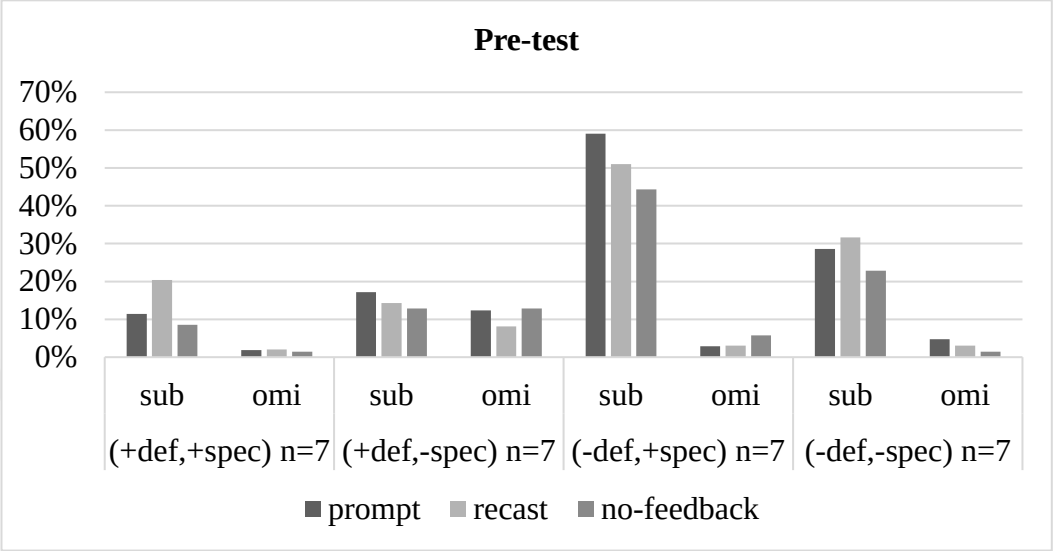
Table 6.5. Total and percentage of article errors in four contexts at pretest.

Groups	DS (n=7)		DNONS (n=7)		IDS (n=7)		IDNONS (n=7)	
	S	**O**	**S**	**O**	**S**	**O**	**S**	**O**
Prompt (n=15)	12/105 11%	2/105 2%	18/105 17%	13/105 12%	62/105 59%	3/105 3%	30/105 29%	5/105 5%
Recast (n=14)	20/98 20%	2/98 2%	14/98 14%	8/98 8%	50/98 51%	3/98 3%	31/98 32%	3/98 3%
No Feedback (n=10)	6/70 9%	1/70 1%	9/70 13%	9/70 13%	31/70 44%	4/70 6%	16/70 23%	1/70 1%

S (Substitution), O (Omission), DS (definite – specific contexts), DNONS (definite – non-specific contexts), IDS (indefinite- specific), IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific contexts).

The table shows that among four contexts the highest level of errors in all the groups was in substituting *a* with *the* in the IDS followed by IDNONS context, substituting *the* with *a* in DNONS context for prompts and in DS context for recasts. However, the highest level of omission in all the groups was in omitting *the* in the DNONS context, and the lowest level of omission was in the DS context. There were some differences of error types in article use among the three group students in the pretest. To present error type differences, a repeated measure ANOVA was used with the groups as a between-subjects factor and article context (DS, DNONS, IDS, IDNONS) and error type (omission and substitution) as the within-subject factors. There was a significant main effect of errors F (1, 36) = 160.16, p= 0.00, the three groups were different in substituting *the* with *a* F (2, 36) = 1.73, p = 1.90; and in omitting *the* F (2, 36) = 0.19, p = 0.82 in the DS context. The three groups also were at significance variance in substituting *the* with *a* F (2, 36) = 1.50, p = 0.23; and marginally different in omitting *the* F (2, 36) = 2.90, p = 0.06 in the DNONS context. There was a significant difference in substituting *a* with *the* F (2, 36) = 1.69, p = 0.19; and in omitting *a* F (2, 36) = 1.80, p = 17 in the IDS context. And, there was significant difference between the three groups in substituting *a* with *the* F (2, 36) = 0.24, p = 0, 78; and omitting *a* F (2, 36) = 2.15, p = 0.13 in the IDNONS context. There was a significant interaction effect between contexts*errors F (3,108) = 33.50, p = 0.00, the results indicate that the

highest number of errors was in substituting *a* with *the* in the (IDS) context, however, this interaction effect was not significant across the three groups F (2, 36) = 1.04, p = 0.36, which means the groups made similar errors in similar contexts at pretest, as displayed in Figure 6.3.



[1]**Figure 6.3.** Types of errors in the four contexts at pretest.

This figure shows the students' error types that they made in four contexts and how it varies between omitting and substituting articles across the three groups at pretest.

6.3.4. Results from four contexts in posttest

Accuracy analysis

The accuracy results from three groups through FCET in the posttest are summarized in **Table 6.6**.

Table 6.6. Mean accuracy from four contexts at posttest.

Groups	**DS (n=7)**		**DNONS (n=7)**		**IDS (n=7)**		**IDNONS (n=7)**	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Prompt (n=15)	6.2	0.77	5.2	1.86	4.6	1.76	5.33	1.35
Recast (n=14)	5.64	1.55	6.29	0.91	4.43	1.91	5.57	1.28
No Feedback (n=10)	6.3	0.82	5.9	1.20	**4.3**	1.77	4.6	1.51

[1] Sub = substitution, Omi = omission

DS (definite – specific contexts), DNONS (definite – non-specific contexts), IDS (indefinite- specific), IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific contexts)

This table indicates that among four contexts all the groups were less accurate in the IDS context. However, all the groups were more accurate in the DS context followed by DNONS for recast and IDNONS for prompt. There were some differences in article accuracy among the three group students in the posttest. To present the differences, a two-way ANOVA was used with the groups as the between-subject factor and accuracy values in four contexts as a within-subject factor. There was a significant main effect of contexts F (3,108) = 10.21, p = 0.00, that the groups maintained to perform inaccurately in IDS context. The three groups were significantly different on use of *the* F (2, 36) = 1.116, p = 0.339 in the DS context; and on use of *a* F (2, 36) = 0.79, p = 0.924 in the IDS context; on use of *a* F (2, 36) = 0.132, p = 0.877 in the IDNONS context. However, there was no difference among the three groups on the use of *the* F (2, 36) = 4.159, p = 0.024 in the DNONS context. There was not a significant interaction effect F (6, 108) = 1.51, p = 0, 18, which means the difference between the three groups was not significant F (2, 36) = 0.21, p = 0.81, shows that the groups also performed equally in the posttest. In all cases, the three groups showed low accuracy in the article use in the IDS context, as illustrated in Figure 6.4.

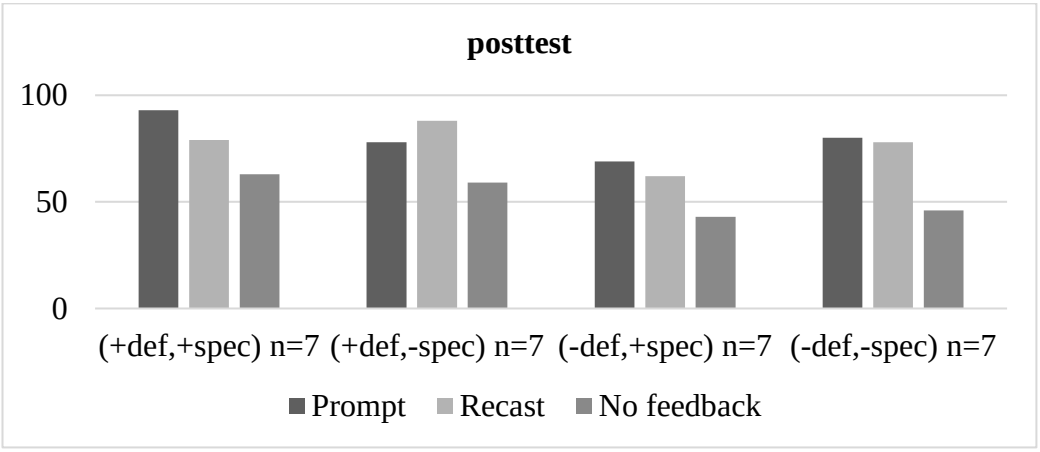


Figure 6.4. Four contexts accuracy at posttest.

This figure shows the learners accuracy in the four article contexts in which they are fluctuating between being more accurate in some semantic contexts and less accurate in some others at posttest.

Error analysis

The error results from three groups through FCET in the posttest are summarized in **Table 6.7**.

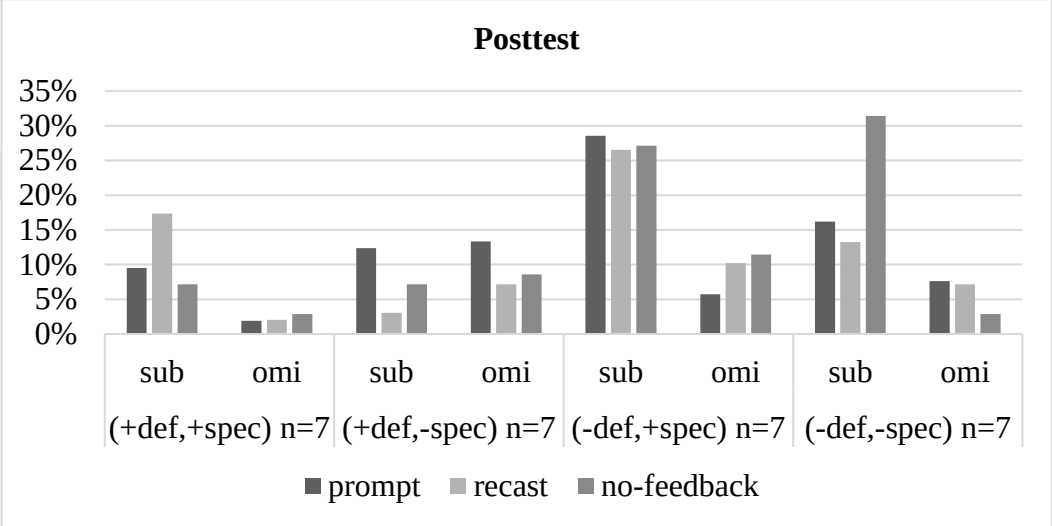
Table 6.7. Total and percentage of article errors in four contexts at posttest.

Groups	DS (n=7)		DNONS (n=7)		IDS (n=7)		IDNONS (n=7)	
	S	**O**	**S**	**O**	**S**	**O**	**S**	**O**
Prompt (n=15)	10/105 10%	2/105 2%	13/105 12%	14/105 13%	30/105 29%	6/105 6%	17/105 16%	8/105 8%
Recast (n=14)	17/98 17%	2/98 2%	3/98 3%	7/98 7%	26/98 27%	10/98 10%	13/98 13%	7/98 7%
No Feedback (n=10)	5/70 7%	2/70 3%	5/70 7%	6/70 9%	19/70 27%	8/70 11%	22/70 31%	2/70 3%

S (Substitution), O (Omission), DS (definite – specific contexts), DNONS (definite – non-specific contexts), IDS (indefinite- specific), IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific contexts).

The table reveals that among four contexts the highest level of errors in all the groups was in substituting *a* with *the* in the IDS, and followed by substituting *the* with *a in* DS context for recast group and *a* with *the* in IDNONS for prompts. However, the highest level of omission in all the groups was in omitting *the* in the DNONS context, and the lowest omission level was in the DS context. There were some differences of error types in article use among the three group students at posttest. To display the error type differences, a repeated measure ANOVA was used with the three groups as a between-subjects factor and article context (DS, DNONS, IDS, IDNONS) and error type (omission and substitution) as the within-subject factors. The results indicated a significant main effect of errors $F (1, 36) = 46, 63$, $p = 0.00$, the three groups were significantly different in substituting *the* with *a* $F (2, 36) = 1.07$, $p = 0.35$; and in omitting *the* $F (2, 36) = 0.16$, $p = 0.84$ in the DS context. In omitting *the* $F (2, 36) = 0.90$, $p = 0.41$ in the DNONS context, and in substituting *a* with *the* $F (2, 36) = 0.06$, $p = 0.93$ in the IDS context. However, there were no significance variance among the three groups in substituting *the* with *a* $F (2, 36) = 3.83$, $p = 0.03$ in the DNONS context; and in omitting *a* $F (2, 36) = 3.75$, $p = 0.03$ in the IDNONS context. They were marginally different in omitting *a* $F (2, 36) = 2.84$, $p = 0.07$ in the IDS context; and

substituting *a* with *the* F (2, 36) = 2.69, p = 0.08 in the IDNONS context. There was also a significant interaction effect F (3,108) = 8.21, p = 0.00, which means the errors were different with respect to contexts, the total and percentage of errors display that the highest number of errors was in substituting *a* with *the* in the IDS context. Furthermore, in substituting *a* with *the* in the IDNONS in the no feedback group, however, between subject effects revealed that there was no significant difference between the groups in making errors F (2,36) = 0.21, p = 0.81, that is the groups made the same errors in the same contexts, as shown in Figure 6.5.



[2]**Figure 6.5**. Types of errors in the four contexts in the posttest.

This figure displays the students' error types in four contexts and how it changes between omitting and substituting articles across the three groups at posttest.

6.3.5. Results from four contexts in delayed posttest

Accuracy analysis

The accuracy results from three groups through FCET in the delayed posttest are summarized in **Table 6.8**.

Table 6.8. Mean accuracy from four contexts at delayed posttest.

Groups	**DS (n=7)**		**DNONS (n=7)**		**IDS (n=7)**		**IDNONS (n=7)**	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD

[2] Sub = substitution, Omi = omission

Prompt (n=15)	6.53	0.64	5.8	1.32	5.73	1.22	4.93	1.98
Recast (n=14)	5.43	1.83	4.21	2.36	4	1.80	4.79	1.81
No Feedback (n=10)	5.9	1.20	4.3	2.11	**3.3**	2.11	4.9	1.37

DS (definite – specific contexts), DNONS (definite – non-specific contexts), IDS (indefinite- specific), IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific contexts)

This table indicates that among four contexts all the groups are less accurate in the IDS context. However, all the groups were more accurate in the DS context followed by IDNONS for recast, DNONS, and IDS for prompt. There were some differences in article use among the three group students at delayed posttest. To present the differences in article accuracy, a two-way ANOVA was used with the groups as the between-subject factor and accuracy values in four contexts as a within-subject factor. There was a significant main effect of contexts $F(3,108) = 6.96$, $p = 0.00$, There was marginally difference among the three groups on use of *the* $F(2, 36) = 2.947$, $p = 0.065$ in the DS context; and on use of *the* $F(2, 36) = 2.915$, $p = 0.067$ in the DNONS context. However, there were significant difference among the three groups on use of *a* $F(2, 36) = 0.886$, $p = 0.421$ in the IDS context; on use of *a* $F(2, 36) = 0.714$, $p = 0.497$ in the IDNONS context. There was no significant interaction effect between the three groups with respect to the four contexts $F(6,108) = 1.54$, $p = 0.17$, which means the difference between the three groups was significant in their performance in four contexts $F(2, 36) = 24.24$, $p = 0.005$, prompt group outperformed recast and no feedback group, the difference between prompt and recast $p = 0.01$, between prompt and no feedback $p = 0.02$. the recast and no feedback groups performed similarly which means there was no significant difference between these two groups at delayed posttest $p = 1.00$, the accuracy performance illustrated in Figure 6.6.

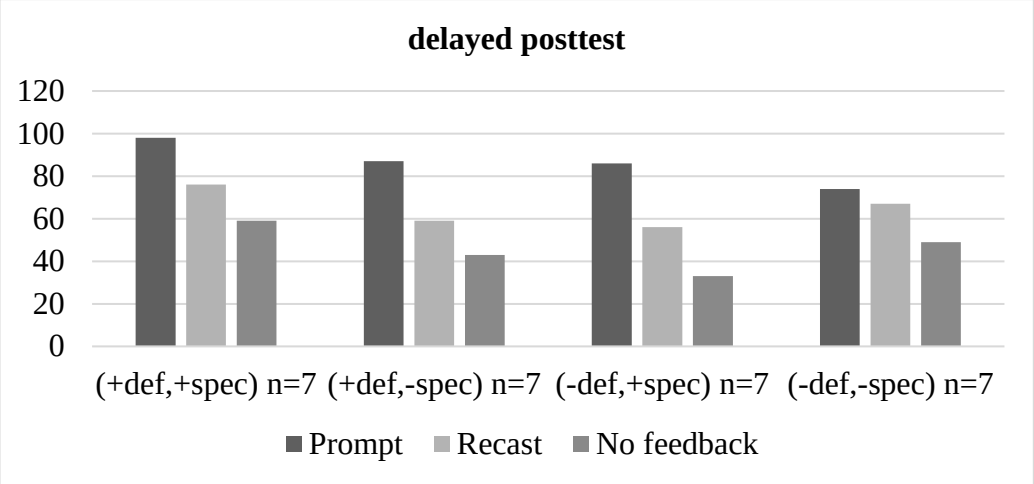


Figure 6.6. Four contexts accuracy at the delayed posttest.

This figure displays the students' article accuracy level in four contexts and how it differs across the groups at delayed posttest.

Error analysis

The error results from three groups through FCET in the delayed posttest are summarized in **Table 6.9**.

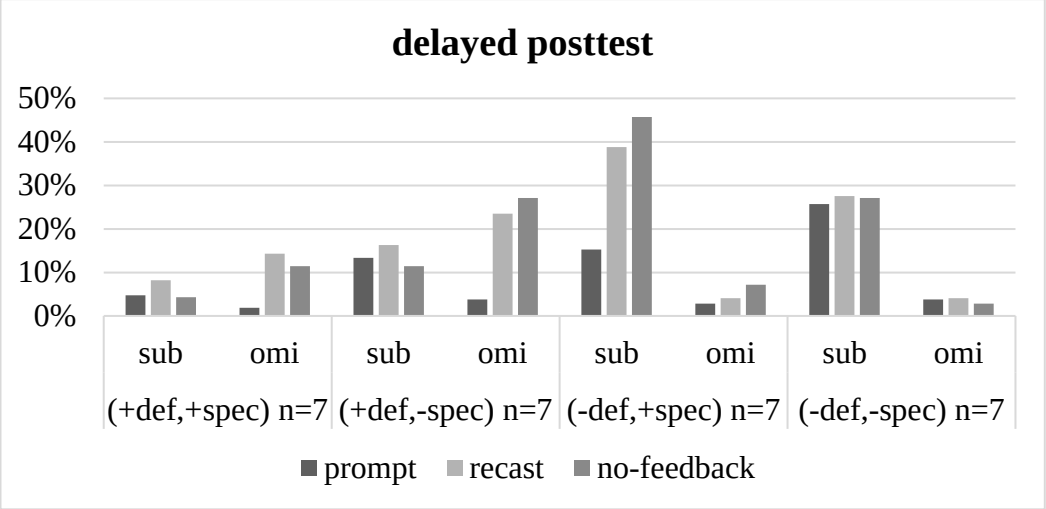
Table 6.9. Total and percentage of article errors in four contexts at delayed posttest.

Groups	DS (n=7)		DNONS (n=7)		IDS (n=7)		IDNONS (n=7)	
	S	**O**	**S**	**O**	**S**	**O**	**S**	**O**
Prompt (n=15)	5/105 5%	2/105 2%	14/105 13%	4/105 4%	16/105 15%	3/105 3%	27/105 26%	4/105 4%
Recast (n=14)	8/98 8%	14/98 14%	16/98 16%	23/98 23%	38/98 39%	4/98 4%	27/98 28%	4/98 4%
No Feedback (n=10)	3/70 4%	8/70 11%	8/70 11%	19/70 27%	32/70 46%	5/70 7%	19/70 27%	2/70 3%

S (Substitution), O (Omission), DS (definite – specific contexts), DNONS (definite – non-specific contexts), IDS (indefinite- specific), IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific contexts)

The table shows that among four contexts the highest level of errors was in recast and no feedback groups in substituting *a* with *the* in the IDS context and omitting *the* in

DNONS context, followed by substituting *a* with *the* in IDNONS context for all groups. However, the lowest level of substitution in all the groups was in substituting *the* with *a* in DS context. There were some differences of error types in article use among the three group students at delayed posttest. To display the error type differences, a repeated measure ANOVA was used with the three groups as a between-subjects factor and article context (DS, DNONS, IDS, IDNONS) and error type (omission and substitution) as the within-subject factors. The results indicated a significant main effect of errors F (1, 36) = 53.83, p = 0.00, the three groups were significantly different in substituting *the* with *a* F (2, 36) = 0.50, p = 0.60 in the DNONS context; and in substituting *a* with *the* F (2, 36) = 0.21, p = 0.80; and omitting *a* F (2, 36) = 0.39, p = 0.67 in the IDNONS context. There was marginally difference among groups in substituting *a* with *the* F (2, 36) = 3.22, p = 0.051; and in omitting *a* F (2, 36) = 2.55, p = 0.09 in the IDS context. However, there were no significance variance among the three groups in substituting *the* with *a* F (2, 36) = 3.59, p = 0.03; in omitting *the* F (2, 36) = 5.82, p = 0.00 in the DS context, and in omitting *the* F (2, 36) = 5.55, p = 0.00 in the DNONS context. There was also a significant interaction effect F (3,108) = 26.85, p = 0.00, that is the number of errors differed with respect to the contexts types, the total and percentage of errors display that the highest number of errors was in substituting *a* with *the* in the IDS context, and between subject effects showed also showed a significant effect regarding groups F (2,36) = 6.19, p = 0.005, Tukey post hoc multiple comparisons showed a significant difference between prompt and recast p = 0.01, which means that total errors in recast group were significantly higher than prompt group, there was also a significant difference between prompt and no feedback group p = 0.02, which means no feedback significantly made more errors than prompt group. however, there was no significant difference between recast and no feedback groups p = 1.00, which means recast and no feedback equally made errors at delayed posttest, as displayed in Figure 6.7.



[3]**Figure 6.7**. Types of errors in the four contexts at the delayed posttest.

This figure shows the students' error types in four contexts and the variances between omitting and substituting articles across the three groups at delayed posttest.

To sum up, results obtained from all three (pre-, post-, delayed post) tests indicate that mean accuracy for the use of definite article *the* in (DS, DNONS) Contexts, and the indefinite article *a* in (IDS, IDNONS) contexts vary across the three groups. The most significant differences among the groups were noticed in the prompt in comparison with recast group, in the pre- and posttest both groups performance was close to each other but in the delayed posttest the recast group descends while prompt group maintains in developing accuracy performance. The recast and the prompt group showed significant short-term improvements, while prompt group maintained to show a significant effect in long term within group developments. The overall analyses propose that different article contexts led to a big fluctuation among the groups, it is possible to say that CF techniques appear to beneficially affect the correct use of English articles, considering that both recast and prompt groups notably developed at posttest, which means that prompts and recasts are both helpful in L3 learning classrooms. It is also possible to say that prompt group is more effective than recast group given that while recast accuracy descended, the prompt group performed extremely higher than recast and no feedback groups at delayed posttest. However,

[3] Sub = substitution, Omi = omission

errors appeared to be in substitution, which indicates that the students' problem is fluctuating between choosing the correct article to use in all the semantic contexts. Additionally, the point that these groups were selected from the lower-intermediate learners of English language skill refer to that their low mean accuracy in four semantic contexts over the three-period tests could be derived either from their low level of English skill or because of differences in their first language (L1 effect). Showing, first, that there were no significant differences among the groups in the pretest, second, the prompt and recast groups similarly progressed at posttest. In the delayed posttest, the prompt group significantly outperformed recast and no feedback, while both groups were at the same level of accuracy.

Therefore, it can be supposed that prompts and recasts both are helpful in L3 English articles development and prompts are more successful than recasts and no feedback on grade 6 adolescents' article use accuracy in third language learning classrooms. The next chapter discusses these results.

7. DISSCUSION

This chapter presents an assessment and readings of the results through mentioning the research questions and predictions of the study compared to the results and earlier studies' results on the effects of diverse types of CF on the errors of different linguistic features in general and particularly on the errors of English articles. Reminding that the current study examines the impacts of two types of CF methods namely prompts and recasts on the English article errors in L3 classrooms. Some problems regarding the reasons of Kurdish- Arabic bilingual students making diverse types of errors in English articles the fluctuation hypothesis (FH) will be considered concerning article accuracy and error results in this study. Several researchers defend recast as a successful CF method since it is indirect, complete, not noticeable, and depending on the learners' intentional meaning, which keeps the flow of conversation, in other words, it does not interrupt learners' conversation (Oliver, 1995; Long, 1996; Doughty & Varela., 1998; Doughty, 2001; Leeman, 2003). However, other researchers debate that recasts are ambiguous and consequently, may be not successful enough, in meaning-based teaching classrooms (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Chaudron, 1977; Fanselow, 1977). Some researchers support the second view (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; 2004) and suggest that prompt is a more successful method.

Considering this discussion, the assumptions in this study claimed that prompts would be more successful than recasts in developing L3 learners' article use accuracy, and learners who got oral CF would advance more than those who did not get any CF. Statistics from the FCET confirmed the first assumption, which hypothesizes that prompts will be more successful than recasts in directing the correct use of L3 articles. With the evidence that prompt group significantly outperformed recast and no feedback at delayed posttest. The study also confirmed the second assumption, which supposes that learners who got oral CF would develop more than those who did not get any CF. The results from FCET showed that prompt and recast groups developed in the posttest. Analyses of the posttest results about learners' promptness to obtain the target structure (definite vs. indefinite articles) discovered that both prompts and recasts were useful in acquiring L3 English articles. Our findings are in line with findings of the researchers who argue that recasts are implicit and consequently, may

be not successful enough, in meaning-based teaching classrooms (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Chaudron, 1977; Fanselow, 1977) and suggest that prompt is a more successful method. It shows that the higher effects of prompts, which take learners' attention to problematic parts of their utterance and might make them to self–repair their ungrammatical utterances, gives learners opportunities to proceduralize declarative knowledge of articles. Our results do not support the findings of the previous studies which defend recast as a successful CF technique since it is indirect, comprehensive, unnoticeable, and depending on the learners' intended meaning, which keeps the flow of conversation, in other words, it does not interrupt learners' conversation (Oliver, 1995; Long, 1996; Doughty & Varela., 1998; Doughty, 2001; Leeman, 2003). The smaller effect of recasts might be due to the ambiguity it produces for the students in a way that might make them confused between whether the teacher's feedback was an indication of confirmation or a disapproval feedback on their output (Lyster, 2004).

The main reasons of prompts higher efficacy are expected to be the clarity and precision of prompt and the various possibilities to create the target structure in response to the teacher's corrective attempts, which this CF method gives. Analyses of the errors showed that the groups made errors in substituting *a* with *the* in the IDS context. The learners who are bilinguals of Kurdish, a (+article) language that has two articles, and Arabic that has one article (±article). Learning the third language which is English a (+article) language, and all the three languages characterize articles based on definiteness. They were least accurate on IDS context, the source of the errors was substitution rather than omission. Given the Fluctuation Hypothesis, L1 speakers of non-article languages will either fluctuate between definiteness and specificity when learning a language that encodes the features [+definite] or [+specific], or will select the appropriate value for the target language. However, L1 Kurdish and Arabic both are [+article] languages based on definiteness and our participants fluctuated between definiteness and specificity. Therefore, our results suggest that a specificity-based choice of articles can occur even when the L1 is an article-based language which is based on definiteness. Or the students' errors in fluctuating between choosing the appropriate article might be due to their language background differences when learning the English language. Which means that the effect of their L1 might has a role in their errors due to the differences in the position of the articles in the Kurdish and

English language. In addition to the lack of the indefinite article in Arabic language compared to English language. The following chapter will give a conclusion to the main findings of the study.

8. CONCLUSION

Following the review of previous CF studies in both second and third language acquisition, this study has aimed to examine the effect of two techniques of oral CF; prompts and recast on the article errors in L3 English learning, and particularly to compare the effects prompts with recasts and comparing both with no feedback to show which type of CF is more effective in L3 English classrooms. With a FCET taken from (Ionin, 2003), the current research discovered important findings in L3 language teaching.

Considering the two research questions: first, Do L3 learners who receive oral CF in the form of recast and prompts perform better than those who do not receive any CF? The results from the posttest revealed that both prompts and recasts progressed more than no feedback which confirms our prediction that assumes students who get oral CF either in the form of recast or prompt would be more successful than those who do not get any CF in directing L3 articles. Second, are prompts more effective than recast in providing oral feedback for the article errors in L3 English by Kurdish-Arabic Bilingual learners of L3 English? The results from delayed posttest showed that prompt group significantly outperformed the other two groups. Therefore, the results prove the second prediction which predicts that L3 learners who get prompt in the interactional activities as oral CF would benefit more than students who get recasts as oral CF for the article errors. It shows that the higher effects of prompts, which take learners' attention to problematic parts of their utterance and might make them to self–repair their ungrammatical utterances, gives learners opportunities to proceduralize declarative knowledge of articles. The smaller effect of recasts might be due to the ambiguity it produces for the students in a way that might make them confused between whether the teacher's feedback was an indication of confirmation or a disapproval feedback on their output (Lyster, 2004). The next chapter will present the pedagogical suggestions and limitations regarding the current research.

9. IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

9.1. Implications

Findings obtained from the present study were. First, both prompts and recasts have important effects on article errors in L3 English classrooms. Second, the effects of prompts become larger and more obvious in the long term (at the delayed posttest). These findings suggest firstly in interactional L3 classrooms, teachers should take into consideration to apply oral CF (in the form of prompts or recasts); to allow learners to work on any kind of knowledge they have developed from teaching. In the development, learners may notice the difference between their language system and the target language system. Secondly, regarding the CF type that teachers should apply during interaction with their students, depending on the reached findings, the study will suggest providing oral prompts in the correction of English article errors for Kurdish-Arabic bilingual learners of L3 English classrooms during interaction. Another crucial point is teaching sessions in which instructors describe and compare the students L1, L2, and L3 English article system and grammar rules may be necessary.

9.2. Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

The language learning setting and the instructional tasks are two changeable factors that need to be considered for further research since earlier studies have shown that the effects of a CF method can differ from one setting to the other. Some studies have shown while prompts are very effective in the classroom settings, recasts are more effective in the laboratory setting, since our aim was to discover the teaching implication of CF by choosing only classroom setting for conducting this research, involvement in a laboratory setting would be important for further investigation of the effectiveness of CF in other teaching settings. Another limitation of this study was the implementing one comprehension task (FCET), whereas inserting other tasks such as

production tasks might also have different results that have instructional values. Constant, methodical research to study these factors will give absolute evidence as to which CF methods are more successful on language learning development.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

1. Corrective feedback booklet

Adapted from (Ammar & Spada, 2006)

Recaster

Examples of what you should do.

For example, if a student says ***most interesting book*** when creating the definite sentence, I would like to read the most interesting book in this library, any of the following options can be adopted.

1. The most interesting.
2. Okay. The most interesting book.
3. The most interesting what did you say?
4. The most interesting book. Where?
5. Ehh, The most interesting book, what else.

If the error outlined above occurs, you should never say:

1. No. The most interesting book.
2. No. most interesting book is incorrect. You should say the most.
3. Most interesting book? It's the most.
4. Is book countable or uncountable? So, what should we say?
5. We don't say most interesting book in English. We say the most.
6. We say the most interesting book because the book is countable and definite.
7. Pardon?
8. I do not understand.

Prompter

Examples of what you should do.

For example, if a student says ***most interesting book*** when creating the definite sentence, I would like to read the most interesting book in this library, any of the following options can be adopted.

1. No. which kind of book? So, what should we say?
2. Most interesting book? Is that correct in English?
3. We don't say most interesting book in English. What do we say?
4. Most interesting book? Which kind of book is it?
5. No. It's a known book. So, what should we say?
6. Most interesting book is incorrect.
7. Pardon?
8. I do not understand.

If the error outlined above occurs, you should never say:

1. Most interesting is incorrect. You should say the most interesting.

2. No. the most interesting book.

3. We don't say most interesting book in English. We say the most interesting book.

4. We say the most interesting book because the book is known and definite.

5. The most.

6. Okay. The most interesting book.

2. Corrective feedback observation scheme

Taken from (Ammar & Spada, 2006)

Student turn	Teacher turn			
Error	Prompt	Recast	Ignore	Other

RESUME

Name Surname: Pawan Abdulhadi

Place and Date of Birth: 2nd January 1990, Erbil, Iraq

E-Mail: Pawanmhajr@gmail.com

EDUCATION:

- **Bachelor:** 2011, Salahaddin University, Faculty of Languages, English Language Department
- **Master:** 2017, Istanbul Aydin University, Faculty of Social Sciences, Department of English Language and Literature, Master with Thesis Program