ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 6, No. 7, pp. 1420-1428, July 2016
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0607.13

A Comparative Study of the Effects of Recasts and Scaffolded Feedback on the Grammatical Accuracy of Elementary EFL Learners

Fateme Saeb
University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Dariush Nejad Ansari Mahabadi
University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Akbar Khazaei
The Department of Education, Firoozan, Nahavand, Iran

***Abstract*—The study reported in this paper aimed at investigating the differential efficacy of scaffolded feedback and recasts as two types of corrective feedback (CF) in improving elementary EFL learners' grammatical accuracy. Forty-five beginner EFL students formed a control group (n= 16) and two experimental groups (scaffolding= 16, recast= 13). The use of the third person singular 's' morpheme for verbs was selected as the target structure to be treated through the provision of the corrective feedback. The scaffolded feedback was operationalized within a sociocultural framework as a collaborative process during which learners were provided with assistance adjusted to their individual needs. Recasts, on the other hand, were operationalized as reformulations of learners' erroneous utterances without the error. The results indicated a significant improvement in accuracy for the two experimental groups from pretest to posttest. Also, the difference between the scaffolding and recast groups in the posttest was significant. Overall, these findings confirmed the beneficial effects of CF and in particular scaffolded feedback on learners' grammatical accuracy.**

***Index Terms*—corrective feedback, recasts, scaffolded feedback, sociocultural theory**

I. Introduction

The study of learner errors as a reflection of interlanguage development has long been a central theme of second language research. Since the 1970s, however, SLA researchers have shifted attention from the analysis of errors in their own right to the investigation of potential effects of corrective feedback procedures on language learning. This turn of attention has mainly been based on the assumption that learners need information about the communicative success of their second language production and can use feedback on errors when they are not able to detect, having access only to positive evidence, how their interlanguage diverges from the target language norms (Lyster& Mori, 2006). Carroll and Swain (1993) also suggested that providing L2 learners with feedback might be unavoidable considering the inadequacy of relevant data available to them. Feedback, they asserted, can assist L2 learners to 'narrow the range of possible hypotheses that can account for the data' (p. 358).Furthermore, it has been proposed that corrective feedback may be contributive in the enhancement of learners' metalinguistic awareness (Swain, 1995).

Corrective feedback research, so far, has investigated either the relative effect of different types of feedback (Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2006; Loewen&Nabei, 2007; Saeb, 2014; Sheen, 2007, 2010) or the effect of learner-internal and learner-external factors on the effectiveness of corrective feedback (Ammar&Spada, 2006; Carpenter et al., 2006; Goo, 2012; Mackey & Philip, 1998; Rassaei, 2013; Sheen, 2004).These studies have provided growing evidence that corrective feedback, as a focus-on-form technique, aids interlanguage development. There is little consensus, however, about the effects of different types of corrective feedback (Ellis, 2006). Many studies continue to confirm Chaudron's (1988) contention that "feedback is a complex phenomenon with several functions" (p.152). A particularly less-researched topic in this area has been the relative efficacy of scaffolded feedback and recast. Scaffolding as a feedback type has its theoretical roots in the Sociocultural Theory of language learning which, as Ellis (2008) argues, has become a major force in second language acquisition research. This fact makes it more appealing to examine its effectiveness as compared with recast which is characteristic of a cognitive approach to language learning. As few studies, thus far, have investigated this issue (Aljaafreh&Lantolf, 1994; Nassaji& Swain, 2000;Rassaei, 2014), the need is felt to pursue research in this area in order to shed more light on this matter and increase the body of current knowledge about differential effect of feedback types.

II. Literature Review

© 2016 ACADEMY PUBLICATION

Corrective feedback is defined in the literature as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance" (Chaudron, 1977, p. 31). We will focus in this study on two feedback types of recast and scaffolded feedback. Recasts are implicit forms of corrective feedback that reformulate a learner's erroneous utterance in a correct form. LysterandRanta (1997) defined recasts as a "teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" (p. 46). According to the research results, recasts are probably the most frequent feedback type in different educational settings including elementary, high-school, university-level, and immersion classrooms (Mori, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Roberts, 1995; Tsang, 2004). Based on observations that children tend to repeat parental recasts while acquiring their mother tongue, recasthas been regarded as an important type of feedback, hypothesized to initiatenoticing and subsequently drive L2 development forward (Lyster& Mori, 2006).

A number of studies focusing on the use of recasts have displayed their effectiveness in improving L2 knowledge. Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998) demonstrated that some target features can be better treated using recasts during experimentally controlled interactions in comparison to models which are presented to learners before they start their oral production. Also, Mackey and Philp (1998) showed that providing L2 learners with intensive recasts during interactions is more fruitful than interaction lacking intensive recasts. Furthermore, in regard to long term effects, corrective recasts were found more effective in comparison to no feedback in Doughty and Varela's (1998) study. Their results revealed that a recast introduced by a repetition of the student's incorrect form with additional into national stress to highlight the incorrect and correct forms, also leads to more satisfactory results.

The term scaffolding, as mentioned above, is borrowed from the Sociocultural Theory which is itself derived from the Vygotskian school of thought. The central theme of this theory is that investigating cognition cannot be done in isolation from the social context. It deems language learning as dialogically based (Ellis, 2008). Researchers working within this framework argue that providing corrective feedback should be done having regard to the social relationships within the context of interaction. What differentiates this view from the common perspective is its approach to error correction as a social activity which requires cooperation and meaningful interaction between the learner and the teacher (Nassaji & Swain, 2000). Adopting such a viewpoint toward error correction, scaffolded feedback is defined as a collaborative process that initially requires learners to employ their interlanguage knowledge to amend their non-target production; if that attempt fails, the teacher or a more proficient learner enhances the amount of scaffolding through offering increasingly more explicit feedback. The distinctive characteristic of scaffolded feedback is that it is adjusted to the learner's needs. In other words, it is attuned to their zone of proximal development (ZPD) which is defined by Vygotsky (1978) as a developmental zone in which learners are assisted to do tasks they would not be able to perform without assistance. In this view, learners' current level of development is differentiated from their potential level of development.

As an early study within this framework, Aljaafrehand Lantolf (1994) investigated how different learners benefited from different levels of scaffolded feedback. The participants in their study were asked to write an assignment and then work with a tutor to correct their errors. The tutor provided them with corrective feedback. The data analysis yielded 12 levels of corrective feedback, ranging from the most implicit to the most explicit. The results indicated that different learners making the same error required different levels of corrective feedback to detect their error. The authors suggested that learners' performance improved from other-regulated to self-regulated behavior. They concluded that effective feedback is dialogic between a learner and a more proficient individual and is of a collaborative nature.

In a more recent study, Nassaji and Swain (2000) compared scaffolded and non- scaffolded help for two adult learners of English at the intermediate level. The target structure was English articles. The scaffolded student was provided with corrective feedback based on a progress-sensitive regulatory scale developed by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), whereas the non- scaffolded student received corrective feedback picked randomly from the scale. They aimed to explore whether feedback adapted to the learners' needs is more effective than random feedback. The results revealed that the scaffolded student outperformed the non- scaffolded student in the correct use of articles, suggesting that corrective feedback focused on learners' needs may be more constructive than random feedback.

In line with the results of Nassaji and Swain (2000), Rassaei (2014) also found scaffolded feedback a more powerful and effective type of feedback. Within an experimental design, he examined the differential effects of scaffolded feedback and recasts on the acquisition of English wh question forms by intermediate students. An untimed grammaticality judgment test (UGJT) and an oral production task (OPT) were used as the pretest and posttest. The results of both the UGJT and the OPT indicated that the scaffolded feedback group significantly outperformed the recast group on the posttest.

Following Rassaei's (2014) line of research, this study set out to investigate the comparative efficacy of recast and scaffolded feedback in improving learners' performance. More specifically, we focused on the acquisition of the third person singular '-s' morpheme by the elementary learners. The lower level of proficiency compared to the previous studies, was chosen to see whether the relative effectiveness of scaffolded feedback is mediated by learners' proficiency level and whether the same superiority would be found for scaffolded feedback as opposed to recast for elementary learners. Finally, the research questions this study aimed to answer were formulated as follows: a) Does corrective feedback help elementary EFL learners become more accurate in the use of third person singular '-s' for verbs? b) Is

© 2016 ACADEMY PUBLICATION

there a significant difference in the effect of scaffolded feedback and recast directed at using third person singular '-s' for verbs?

III. Method

A. Participants

Three classes of elementary EFL learners in a language teaching institute participated in this study. The students were randomly assigned to two experimental groups of recast (n=13) and scaffolded feedback (n=16), and a control group (n=16).They wereeither primary school students or junior high-school students with their age ranging between 10-15. There were nine females and thirty six males. The students' level of proficiency was determined based on their scores from the institute's entrance examinations. One of the researchers was the teacher of the three classes. He was an accomplished non-native speaking teacher of English as a foreign language and held a master's degree in English language teaching.

B. The Target Structure

This study's target linguistic structure was the third person singular '-s' morpheme for verbs. Though it may seem a straightforward, simple rule to be learnt, the experience of many teachers shows that the use of third person singular '-s' for verbs is a quite difficult grammatical feature to be mastered by elementary and even intermediate students. A series of research by Pienemann and Johnston (1987) has led them to conclude that the acquisition of grammatical structures is determined by how difficult they are to process psycholinguistically, rather than how simple or complex they are grammatically. They illustrate this with the third person'-s' morpheme. Grammatically, this is a fairly simple item, but it is notoriously difficult for learners to learn. Pienemann and Johnston suggest that the difficulty originates from the fact that the form of the verb is ruled by three syntactic features, namely, the person and number of the subject noun, and the tense feature, and does not stand by itself (Nunan, 1994). According to Pienemann's (1998) Processability Theory, inter-phrasal morphemes such as third person '–s' can be acquired when the S-procedure becomes available in the interlanguage. This is well after the acquisition of morphemes such as past tense '–ed' or indefinite article 'a' which requires category or phrasal procedures. Given the difficulty associated with acquiring third person'-s' morpheme, and its repeated and obligatory use in different sentences, it provides us a suitable choice to investigate the effectiveness of different types of feedback.

C. Operationalization of Feedback Types

To put recast into practice in this study, the teacher reformulated the learners' erroneous sentences into a correct form. No additional information were provided. The following is an example of recast taken from the present study's data:

Example 1
Teacher: Does Mr. Brown ride a bike in this picture?
Learner: No, he doesn't.
Teacher: So, what does he ride?
Learner: He ride a horse.
*Teacher: He **rides** a horse.*

To operationalize scaffolding as a feedback type, Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) framework for assistance was adopted. Assistance in this framework is finely addressed toward the learners' current needs and is distinct from types of prompts that include encouraging learners to self-correct without any attempt to recognize learners' needs. The distinctive features of scaffolded feedback proposed by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) which were also practiced in this study are as follows: (a) It should be provided gradually with no more help than is required; (b) it should be dependent on learners' needs; and (c) it should be of a dialogic nature, i.e. the learner and the teacher work together to solve the problem. The exact procedure to apply these distinctive features during the treatment sessions was also adopted from Rassaei (2014). The scaffolded feedback moves started from the most implicit and progressed to the most explicit contingent on the learners' needs and developing abilities. Each incident of scaffolded feedback could include different kinds of assistance such as clarification requests, an indication of the source of error, explaining the rule, providing examples, providing metalinguistic information, and models. Two illustrative examples of scaffolded feedback episodesare presented below:

Example 2
Teacher: What does your brother do after school?
Learner: He is taking a nap.
Teacher: Again please!
Learner: He is taking a nap?
Teacher: I didn't ask what he is doing.
Learner: Um ... He take a nap?
Teacher: No, for example we say: he plays outside or he studies his lessons.
Learner: Aha! He takes a nap.
Teacher: Good for you.

© 2016 ACADEMY PUBLICATION

Example 3
Teacher: Does Judy play with her toys?
Learner: No, she play computer games.
Teacher: Would you repeat your sentence, please?
Learner: She play computer games.
Teacher: Remember you're talking about Judy.
Learner: Judy plays computer games.
Teacher: That's correct.

D. Tests

An untimed grammaticality judgment test (UGJT) and an oral production task (OPT) were used as the testing instruments in this study. All three groups took both tests prior to the treatment and immediately following it.

1. Untimed grammaticality judgment test

The grammaticality judgment test included 17 sentences ten of which were focused on the use of the third person '–s' and the remaining seven functioned as distractors, containing errors other than the target structure. Of the ten target items, four sentences were grammatical and six were ungrammatical. To reduce the possibility of practice effect, some slight modifications were made to the items in the posttest. The reliability of the grammaticality judgment test was tested in a pilot study prior to the experiment yielding the Cronbachalfa of .80.

2. Oral production task

The procedure for conducting the oral production task was similar to the treatment task. It included picture description tasks using colourful picture cards depicting characters engaged in different activities. The teacher provided the students with the pictures and asked them to describe the activities as much as possible or tell a story about the picture in simple present tense. In case the learners didn't know the vocabulary items needed to describe some parts of the picture, the teacher provided them with the necessary content words in order to keep the flow of speech ongoing. The OPT pretest and posttest sessions for all three groups were video-recorded and transcribed for subsequent analysis.

E. Procedure

The study was conducted within an experimental design involving a pretest for the UGJT and the OPT, three sessions of treatment, and a posttest for each of the testing instruments. On the first day of the experiment, the pretest UGJT and OPT were administered. The next three sessions were devoted to the treatment activity which included narrative tasks based on picture-sequence stories. To elicit learners' production, students in each of the experimental groups were provided with colourful picture cards depicting scenes of everyday activities and were asked to describe the course of events which was happening in the pictures in simple present tense. The teacher provided the related type of feedback upon the emergence of errors. Learners in the control group performed the same task; however, they received no corrective feedback for their errors. The posttest for the UGJT was conducted at the end of the last treatment session and the posttest OPT was administered the next session.

F. Analysis

To examine the effects of the two types of corrective feedback on learners' use of the third person '–s', scores for the two administrations of the UGJT and the OPT were obtained.

The grammaticality judgment test was scored on a discrete item basis. One point was given for each correct grammaticality judgment. The distractors were excluded. Thus the perfect score for the test was 10 points. OPT scores were computed using obligatory occasion analysis (Ellis, Sheen, Murakami & Takashima, 2008). All obligatory occasions for the use of '-s' were spotted. Each occasion was then checked to determine whether the '-s' had been supplied. Each learner's score was then calculated by dividing the total number of supplied '–s'es by the total number of obligatory occasions and reported as proportions of 1. For testing the reliability of the scoring of the OPT, the productions of 15 students from the pre-test were randomly chosen from the three groups and were re-scored by the same researcher three weeks after they were scored for the first time. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation (r) of .95 was obtained for the two sets of scores.

The scores from the two tests were put into SPSS (2014) and the following descriptive and inferential statistics were run to answer the two research questions: first, descriptive statistics for all administrations of the two tests were computed. Then the scores of the pretest and posttest for each testing instrument were analyzed by means of a mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance (SPANOVA) and t-tests.

IV. Results

A. The UGJT

Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations for the UGJT pretest and posttest for the three groups. The experimental groups and the control group improved their scores from the pretest to posttest. Fig. 1 illustrates this improvement. SPANOVA results revealed that there were significant time differences, F (1, 42) = 129.30, $p < .0005$, partial eta squared= .75 which can be considered a very large effect size according to standards set by Cohen (1988).

© 2016 ACADEMY PUBLICATION

Significant group differences were also found, F (2, 42) = 3.32, p = .04, partial eta squared= .13. The scores of both scaffolding group (t (15) = -11.66, p < .0005) and the recast group (t (12) = -4.75, p < .0005) improved significantly from pretest to posttest, while no significant difference was found between the control group's scores in the pretest and the posttest (t (15) = -1.95, p = .07). A comparison of the two experimental groups' scores on posttest showed significant differences between them (t (27) = 3.68, p = .001).

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE UGJT

Group	N	Pretest		Posttest	
		M	SD	M	SD
Scaffolding	16	3.37	1.25	8.00	1.09
Recast	13	4.07	1.89	6.30	1.37
Control	16	4.18	1.47	4.93	1.52

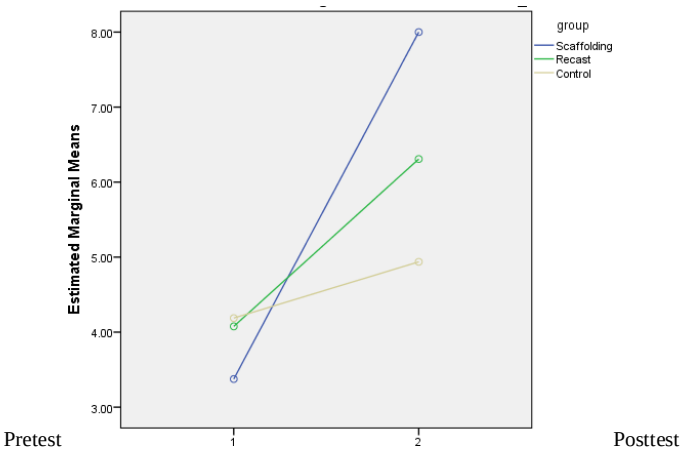

Fig. 1. Three groups' means on the UGJT pretest and posttest

B. The OPT

Descriptive statistics for the OPT pretest and posttest are presented in Table 2. Means of all threegroups increased from the pretest to posttest. This raise in means is clearly shown in Fig. 2. SPANOVA results indicated that there were significant time differences, F (1, 42) = 292.83, p < .0005, partial eta squared= .87 which can be regarded as a very large effect size. Also, significant group differences were obtained, F (2, 42) = 25.62, p < .0005, again with a very large effect size, partial eta squared= .55. Both the scaffolding group (t (15) = -12.49, p < .0005) and the recast group (t (12) = -11.89, p < .0005) improved their scores significantly from pretest to posttest, whereas in the control group there was no significant increase (t (15) = -1.78, p = .09). Also, the scores of the two experimental groups on posttest were found to be significantly different (t (27) = 2.29, p = .03).

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE OPT

Group	N	Pretest		Posttest	
		M	SD	M	SD
Scaffolding	16	.05	.089	.70	.209
Recast	13	.03	.075	.52	.200
Control	16	.05	.115	.07	.139

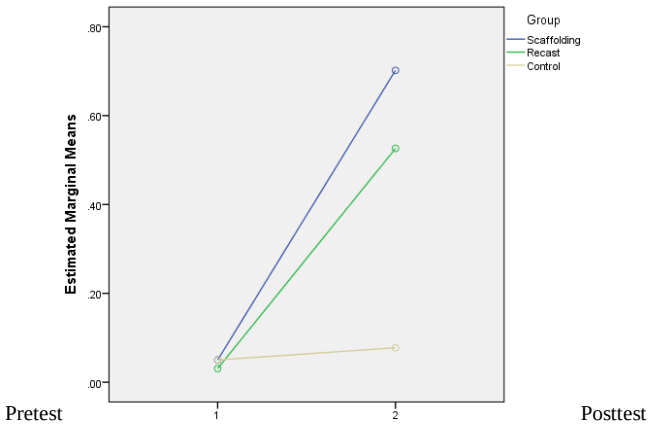

Fig. 2. Three groups' means on the OPT pretest and posttest

© 2016 ACADEMY PUBLICATION

V. Discussion

Research question 1 asked whether corrective feedback helped elementary EFL students use the third person singular 's' for verbs more accurately. To answer this research question, the results of the grammaticality judgment test and the oral production task in the pretest and the posttest must be examined. In the grammaticality judgment test, the students' ability to judge grammatical well-formedness using their metalinguistic knowledge is considered as a measure of their grammatical accuracy. The oral production task, on the other hand, offers an estimate of the learners' ability to accurately use the third person singular 's' while engaged in actual oral production and thus enjoys higher ecological validity.

The OPT results indicated that both experimental groups progressed significantly from the pretest to the posttest and both were better able to use the target feature in their oral production than the control group. The following extracts from the OPT pretest and posttest illustrate this improvement. Example 4 is extracted from a learner's production in the scaffolding group and the next example belongs to a learner in the recast group. The performance of these two learners is characteristic of the general improvement observed in the two experimental groups during the study.

Example 4:

Pretest

Mina go to the library and study her lessons. She come back home and eat lunch at 12:30. Then she takes a nap. After that she drink a cup of tea.

Posttest

Sarah watches TV after school. But Peter takes a nap. Tom and Bob play outside. Jack plays video games and Tina does her homework.

Example 5:

Pretest

Mr. Tehrani wake up at 6. He wash his hands and face. Then he say his prayers. He eats his breakfast and go to work. He is a teacher.

Posttest

Judy goesto art class on Monday. On Tuesday, she goto English class. Then she takes piano classes on Wednesday. And she goesto math class on Thursday.

As evident in the examples, the students in both groups were indiscriminate in their use of the third person singular 's' in the pretest. They failed to use it in most of the obligatory occasions. In the posttest, however, a much better control over the use of the 's' is obvious for both learners. The learner from the recast group supplied the 's' in three out of the four obligatory occasions while the learner from the scaffolding group supplied it in all four obligatory occasions, achieving a hundred percent accuracy.

The results for the UGJT confirmed those of the OPT. The students in both experimental groups showed significant gains from the pretest to the posttest. Furthermore, they both outperformed the control group in the posttest. The two students whose oral production was exemplified above, for example, increased their scores in the grammaticality judgment test from three to eight and from three to six respectively.

This pattern of results for the UGJT and the OPT suggests that the corrective feedback positively affected the learning of the third person singular 's'. Two points regarding the learners' progress corroborate this conclusion: the students did not receive any instruction or explanation on the use of the target structure other than what they were exposed to during the treatment sessions. The experiment was conducted during the summer holidays and the participants did not have the chance to receive instruction or practice the use of the third person singular 's' in their regular classes at school. Thus, corrective feedback could be considered as the sole causeof the improved accuracy. The second point is the very large effect size obtained for the time differences in both testing instruments which lends further support to the affirmative answer to the research question one.

The second research question asked whether the efficacy of the corrective feedback differed dependent on whether it was offered in the form of scaffolding or recast. The results displayed that it did. Significant differences were found between the scaffolding and the recast groups in both the grammaticality judgment test and the oral production task with the scaffolding group outperforming the recast group. This superiority is noteworthy taking into account the fact that the scaffolding group scored less than the recast group in the UGJT pretest. This finding is consistent with those of the previous studies in which scaffolded feedback proved to be more effective than other more implicit types of feedback such as recast (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Ellis et al., 2006; Nassaji& Swain, 2000; Rassaei, 2013,2014; Sheen, 2007).

The advantage of the scaffolded feedback group over the recast group might be explained with reference to Schmidt's hypothesis of the nature and the role of awareness in second language learning. According to Schmidt (1995) two levels of awareness can be distinguished, namely, noticing and understanding or metalinguistic awareness, with the latter being a higher level of awareness. While noticing involves attention to only the surface structure of sentences, attending to the underlying rules and principles occurs at the level of understanding. Therefore, it might be the case that whereas both scaffolding and recast stimulate awareness at the level of noticing, scaffolding might be the major promoter of metalinguistic awareness, hence contributing to the higher level of accuracy in the scaffolding group. Schmidt's hypothesis also predicts that this conscious attention to rules and principles resulted from understanding

© 2016 ACADEMY PUBLICATION

substantially accelerates subsequent acquisition. The explicit nature of scaffolded feedback as opposed to the implicitness of recast which is parallel to their corresponding levels of awareness might have also contributed to their differential effectiveness. Recasts are likely to have gone unnoticed by some learners as instances of corrective feedback especially due to the learners' low level of proficiency as has been pointed out by Panova and Lyster (2002). This conclusion is confirmed by the results of corrective feedback studies which suggest that the effect of corrective feedback is affected by the degree to which it explicitly tells the learner about the error (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis et al., 2006; Panova&Lyster, 2002; Rassaei, 2013).

Furthermore, contrary to recasts, the effectiveness of scaffolded feedback is supported by the fact that it involves pushing learners to produce output by encouraging them to self-correct their erroneous utterances. This is substantiated by Swain's Output Hypothesis according to which comprehensible output is an indispensable process of second language acquisition (DeKeyser, 2007). Recasts, as mere reformulations of learners' errors may not offer as much opportunities for producing output as scaffolding does.

A third justification of the greater benefits of the scaffolded feedback comes from the Sociocultural Theory as its mother paradigm. As discussed above, the Vygotskian sociocultural perspective defines knowledge as having a social nature and believes it to be developed as a result of collaboration, interaction, and communication in a social setting and through interaction within the learners' ZPD. Therefore, unlike recasting, scaffolding does not treat all learners in the same way. From a sociocultural perspective, each individual learner's current level of development might be different from his/her peers and the corrective feedback should be tailored to this developmental level. Accordingly, two learners committing the same error may receive different amounts of assistance as was the case with the treatment procedure in the present study.

Finally, in spite of the above-mentioned interpretations, it would be wise to exert caution while construing the findings of the present study and studies of the like nature as Sheen (2007) asserted that corrective feedback is a complex issue. Ammar and Spada (2006)and Sheen et al. (2009) also pointed out that the effectiveness of scaffolding, recasts and other types of corrective feedback might be controlled by a host of factors ranging from age and level of proficiency to the target structure and educational setting.

VI. Conclusion and Limitations

The present study was designed to address the central issue of the differential efficacy of scaffolding and recast as two feedback types on elementary learners' grammatical accuracy. The results provided conclusive evidence of the greater power of scaffolded feedback in improving accuracy compared to recasts. Nevertheless, the current study is limited in some ways which should be taken into consideration while interpreting the results. The number of participants was fairly small, partly due to the enrollment problems in the institute where the experiment was conducted. The lack of a delayed posttest is also a drawback of the current study. Although the results demonstrated the favorable effect of CF on learners' grammatical accuracy, it is not clear whether the CF enables learners to achieve long-term gains in accuracy. A further limitation of the study was the fact that only three sessions of treatment were conducted which contributed to the relatively few number of overall corrections received by the students. Different results might have been obtained with tasks sustained over a longer period of time, particularly with respect to the relative benefits of scaffolding and recasts. Finally, the study was focused on the effects of corrective feedback on only one grammatical feature, and as such, the results may not be applicable to other grammatical structures. Bearing in mind the abovementioned limitations, it is recommended that future research address the efficacy of various CF techniques on the acquisition of different linguistic features in learners with differing levels of proficiency within EFL and ESL contexts. More specifically, studies with delayed posttests would be desirable in order to test the durability of corrective feedback effects.

This study contributed to the existing literature on corrective feedback by confirming the findings of previous studies supporting the superior efficacy of scaffolded feedback as opposed to recasts. In terms of pedagogical implications, results from studies like the present one may help foreign language teachers appreciate the collaborative value of scaffolded feedback within a classroom context. An understanding of the potentials of different feedback types might assist them to better adapt their corrective moves to their learners' needs, or more specifically, the learners' ZPD. However, as Panova and Lyster (2002) reminded, teachers and practitioners should not allow their faith in the efficacy of a certain CF type to lead them into the overuse of it. A balance of various feedback types chosen in view of diverse linguistic, cognitive and contextual circumstances may prove more successful in ensuring continued L2 development.

References

[1] Aljaafreh, A.& J. P. Lantolf. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation: Second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 465–483.

[2] Ammar, A. & N. Spada. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts, and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28, 543–574.

[3] Bitchener, J., S. Young &D. Cameron. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 9, 227–258.

© 2016 ACADEMY PUBLICATION

[4] Carpenter, H., K.Jeon, D.MacGregor & A. Mackey. (2006). Learners' interpretations of recasts. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28, 209–236.
[5] Carroll, S. & M. Swain. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback: An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 15, 357–386.
[6] Chaudron, C. (1977). A descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors. *Language Learning*, 27, 29–46.
[7] Chaudron, C. (1988). Second language classrooms. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[8] Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences. Second ed. Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ.
[9] DeKeyser, R. M. (2007). Practice in a Second Language Perspectives from Applied Linguistics and Cognitive Psychology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[10] Doughty, C. & E. Varela. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 114–138). New York: Cambridge University Press.
[11] Ellis, R. (2006). Researching the effects of form-focused instruction on L2 acquisition. In K. Bartovi-Harlig& Z Dörnyei (Eds.), *Themes in SLA Research* (*AILA Review*, Vol. 19, pp. 18–41).
[12] Ellis, R. (2007). The differential effects of corrective feedback on two grammatical structures. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A series of empirical studies* (pp.339–360). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[13] Ellis, R. (2008). The study of second language acquisition. New York: Oxford University Press.
[14] Ellis, R., S. Loewen & R. Erlam. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28, 339–368.
[15] Ellis, R., Y. Sheen, M. Murakami & H. Takashima. (2008). The effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback in an English as a foreign language context. *System* 36, 353–371.
[16] Goo, J. (2012). Corrective feedback and working memory capacity in interaction-driven L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 34, 445–474.
[17] Loewen, S.&T. Nabei. (2007). Measuring the effects of oral corrective feedback on L2 knowledge. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A Collection of empirical studies* (pp. 361–376). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[18] Long, M., S. Inagaki & L. Ortega. (1998). The role of implicit negative evidence in SLA: Models and recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *Modern Language Journal*, 82, 357–371.
[19] Lyster, R. & H. Mori. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 269–300.
[20] Lyster, R. & L. Ranta. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20, 37–66.
[21] Mackey, A. & J. Philp. (1998). Conversational interaction and second language development: Recasts, responses, and red herrings? *Modern Language Journal* 82, 338–356.
[22] Mori, H. (2002). Error treatment sequences in Japanese immersion classroom interactions at different grade levels. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.
[23] Nassaji, H. & M. Swain. (2000). A Vygotskian perspective on corrective feedback in L2: The effect of random versus negotiated help on the learning of English articles. *Language Awareness*, 9, 34–51.
[24] Nunan, D. (2002). Syllabus Design. New York: Oxford University Press.
[25] Panova, I. & R. Lyster. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 573–595
[26] Pienemann, M. (1998). Language processing and second language development: Processability Theory. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[27] Pienemann, M. & M. Johnston. (1987). Factors influencing the development of language proficiency. In D. Nunan (Ed.), *Applying second language acquisition research* (pp. 45–141). Adelaide: National Curriculum Research Centre, Adult Migrant English Program.
[28] Rassaei, E. (2013). Corrective feedback, learners' perceptions, and L2 development. *System* 41, 472–483.
[29] Rassaei, E. (2014). Scaffolded Feedback, Recasts, and L2 Development: A Sociocultural Perspective. *The Modern Language Journal* 98 (1), 417-431.
[30] Roberts, M. (1995). Awareness and the efficacy of error correction. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (Tech. Report No. 9, pp. 162–182). Honolulu: University of Hawai'I Press.
[31] Saeb, F. (2014). The Effects of Focused and Unfocused Written Corrective Feedback on the Grammatical Accuracy of Beginner EFL Learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature* 3, 22-26.
[32] Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 1–63). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'I Press.
[33] Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research* 8, 263–300.
[34] Sheen, Y. (2007). The effect of focused written corrective feedback and language aptitude on ESL learners' acquisition of articles. *TESOL Quarterly* 41, 255–283.
[35] Sheen, Y. (2010). Differential effects of oral and written corrective feedback in the ESL classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32, 203–234.
[36] Sheen, Y., D. Wright&A. Moldawa. (2009). Differential effects of focused and unfocused written correction on the accurate use of grammatical forms by adult ESL learners. *System* 37, 556–569.
[37] Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principles and practice in applied linguistics* (pp. 125–144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

© 2016 ACADEMY PUBLICATION

[38] Tsang, W. (2004). Feedback and uptake in teacher-student interaction: An analysis of 18 English lessons in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Regional Language Centre Journal*, 35, 187–209.
[39] Vygtosky, L. S. (1978). Mind and society: The development of higher mental processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Fateme Saeb is a Ph.D. student in TEFL at the University of Isfahan. She received her BA and MA from Shahid Rajaee Teacher Training University in Tehran in 2009 and 2012 respectively. She has worked as a recruited English teacher at senior high schools since 2009. Her areas of interest include sociolinguistics, critical pedagogy and second language acquisition.

Dariush Nejad Ansari Mahabadi holds a Ph.D. in TEFL. He is an assistant professor at the Faculty of Foreign Languages in the University of Isfahan, Iran. He graduated with an MA in applied linguistics from Tarbiat Modarres University in 1996 and completed his Ph.D. at Allame Tabatabaei University in TEFL in 2009.His areas of interest include second language acquisition, academic writing and writing assessment. Currently, he teaches Ph.D. and MA courses in SLA and writing.

Akbar Khazaei was born in Nahavand, Hamedan, Iran in August, 11, 1972. He received his Bachelor's Degree in TEFL from Kharazmi University, Tehran, Iran in 1996. He graduated with an MA in TEFL from Shahid Chamran University, Ahvaz, Iran in 2008. Since 1996, he has worked as a recruited English teacher at senior high schools. He also teaches general English courses at different universities in Nahavand, Iran. He follows a research-based teaching as an action researcher. His areas of interest include identification and interpretation of English euphemistic and idiomatic expressions, and English collocations.

© 2016 ACADEMY PUBLICATION