



Negotiated Feedback, Situated Recast and Task-Supported Language Instruction on the Development of Grammatical Features

Eka Fadilah

Universitas Widya Kartika, Indonesia

Utami Widiati

Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia

Mirjam Anugerahwati

Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia

This study aimed at investigating the effects of Task-Supported Language Instruction (TSLI) and two oral corrective feedbacks i.e., situated recast (SR) and negotiated feedback (NF) on the learners' development of grammatical features: *be*-passive voice. We utilized a quasi-experimental design on four intact-class encompassing 127 third-semester EFL learners assigned to one control group and three experimental groups. A mixed-design repeated measure analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA) was applied to gauge the development of both individuals within the groups and the comparisons between groups. The finding reveals that there is no significant development between pre and post-test depicted in the control group. By contrast, there is a significant development from pre to post-test in the experimental groups in which TSLI + NF has the largest effect sizes of TSLI + SR as well as TSLI-only group. Furthermore, TSLI + SR and TSLI + NF provided a longer-term effect than TSLI group on both tests explicated in the delayed test. We interpret these findings as showing that a dynamic explicit-implicit oral corrective feedback embedded in the explicit instruction provide more potent than those task only and control group on the learners' development of *be*-passive voice.

Keywords: negotiated feedback, situated recast, explicit instruction, passive voice, second language development

Introduction

The efficacy of oral corrective feedback, henceforth OCF, on the learners' development of linguistic features (e.g., grammar, pronunciation) has lured the SLA scholars and researchers to investigate (Fadilah, 2018a; Li, 2010). Chin et al. (2019, p. 485) highlight the potential merits of OCF that is 'as a remedial function and provides reinforcement' to the learners' L2 development. Additionally, some meta-analyses have also revealed that OCF strategies are effective and potent on the learners' development of such linguistic features (see e.g., Brown, 2014; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010). In this vein, OCF strategies are frequently embedded in task-based instructions namely Task-Supported Language Instruction (TSLI) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) as mediating variables. The inconsistent findings reported by the researchers, however, have led to the long-lasting debates to refine and redefine which OCF types fit the learners' contexts (Lyster et al., 2013).



Tied to Cognitive-Interactionist paradigm, recast is one of OCF strategies mostly discussed and reported. The discussion does not only emphasize its merits but also its ambiguities and controversies that lead to inconclusive findings reported. Lyster and Ranta (1997) coined recast as “the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error” (p. 46). The monolithic approach (i.e., implicitness) imposed to recast seems to affect such inconclusive findings and be subjected to the endlessly long-lasting debates.

On the other hand, OCF seen from socio-cultural paradigm is under-researched. Anchored in Vygotsky’s Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT) emphasizing on Zone Proximal Development (ZPD), this type of OCF is rare to appear. However, this type of corrective feedback has provided the evidence in light of its effectiveness to the learners’ language development (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, Lantolf et al., 2015; Poehner, 2008; Rassaei, 2014). Lantolf et al., (2015) argues that SCT framework takes a path of emphasizing on human mental functioning through the interactions of ‘participation in cultural, linguistic, and historical forms setting’ (p. 207).

The extant studies have endeavoured to utilize a flexible move strategies of recast embedded in task-based instruction, that is the effects of such strategies on the learners’ implicit and explicit grammatical knowledge. In their classroom-based experimental design carried out on 109 adult learners, Spada et al. (2014) reveal that implicit instruction supplemented with recast + metalinguistic strategies outperforms explicit instruction on both Error Correction Test (ECT) measuring explicit knowledge and Oral Production Test (OPT) measuring implicit knowledge. However, it should be noted that the mean score gained in pre-test on ECT and OPT of implicit instruction is higher than explicit instruction’s scores. Furthermore, Li et al., (2016) investigated the effectiveness of TSLI compared to TBLT to 150 middle school learners. The result reveals that recast embedded in TSLI and followed by prompts group outperform TSLI only. In other words, the explanation of grammatical rules prior to task performance followed by recast embedded in prompts provides a greater impact on learners’ passive sentence.

To our best knowledge, only one study did compare and report the effects of recast and scaffolded feedback (SF) tied to SCT on the learners’ grammatical development. Rassaei (2014) reports that SF outperformed recast and control group. In Rassaei’s (2014) study, however, recast was utilized implicitly (i.e., pure recast) compared to SF that moves from implicit to explicit elicitations. This finding is likely inequitable enough by comparing an unequal move-strategy in which recast is treated as a single move (i.e., implicit) against SF with multiple-move strategy (i.e., from implicit to explicit). Goo and Mackey’s (2013) criticize such unequal move strategy metaphorized as ‘apple’ versus ‘orange’. Likewise, no delayed test was carried out in Rassaei’s (2014) study. Such a delayed test (as utilized in this study) is required and recommended to investigate a long-term effect of the treatments imposed (see e.g., Li, 2010; Li et al., 2016; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Spada & Tomita, 2010).

This study aims at filling the gaps of the abovementioned findings. For instance, Li et al. (2016) claim that implicit instruction is imposed to the learners with zero knowledge (i.e., no prior knowledge) proven by zero score ‘0’ on their pre-test. They remark that such an instruction fails providing the evidence pertaining to the learners’ implicit knowledge. Needless to say, the learners’ age and background knowledge contribute to the learners’ readiness for recasting (Lyster et al., 2013). The variety of task activities is utilized to provide a flood input and exposure during the classroom interaction. Those various activities are reported to be potent on the learners’ grammatical accuracy (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2011). Additionally, the primacy of implicit instruction over explicit instruction with the combination of recast and metalinguistic strategies (i.e., Spada et al., 2014) is derived from the fact that the former started out with greater knowledge of the target structure (i.e., passive voice) than the latter. As such, it is necessary to set the homogeneity in the regard of the participants’ contexts.

This study is also designed to attune the contextual paradigm attesting recast seen from the cognitive-interactionist paradigm and feedback from socio-cultural paradigm. As such, we propose *situated recast* (i.e., implicit-explicit strategy) as a flexible-move strategy that is mostly relied on the contexts (i.e., the learners’ backgrounds). On the other hand, we label *negotiated feedback* (NF) anchored in the socio-cultural CF paradigm. This type of feedback is tied to Aljaafreh and Lantolf’s (1994) term *negative*

feedback. It incorporates three mechanism of intervention that is (1) *graduated* – fitting to the learners' needs of feedback provided, (2) *contingent* – flexible CF-move strategy from implicit to explicit, and (3) *dialogic* –dynamic assessment under learners' *Zone Proximal Development* (ZPD) to internalize the language functions that is not acquired yet (Vygotsky, 1978).

Based on the aforementioned conditions and discrepancies of the previous findings, we endeavour to investigate the effects of the three conditions encompassing: task-supported language instruction (TSLI only), two types of corrective feedback (i.e., situated recast and negotiated feedback) embedded in TSLI on the learners' explicit and implicit knowledge. We elect English *be*-passive construction as the target of linguistic feature. This feature is deemed difficult for the EFL learners to comprehend due to its structural complexity and inter-language interference (Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia, 2016).

Literature Review

The Need for a Dynamic Explicit-Implicit Oral Corrective Feedback

The substantial body of the theory underpinning and research findings of OCF has provided the ample evidences pertaining to its efficacy on learners' Foreign/Second Language (F/LD) development in the classroom interactional context. The plausible reasons for the withstanding existence of OCF is likely be drawn that OCF, on the one hand, is utilized to supervise (i.e., to correct) the learners' deviant utterances (i.e., errors on linguistic features) as a part of the *developmental periods* of English language teaching (ELT). On the other hand, it is used as a *dynamic evaluation* (i.e., assessment) in fostering the learners' language performance (Ellis & Shintani, 2014)

The supervisions of OCF bring up two schools viewing a different paradigm (i.e., concept, approach, method) underpinning CF namely *cognitive-interactionist and socio-cultural paradigms* (Ellis & Sheen, 2011; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Rassaei, 2014). Those paradigms arise as a result from the different underlying assumption persisted by the scholars in viewing CF supervisions. While the former paradigm holds *objectivism* centered to human cognition (i.e., recast, prompts), the latter maintains *relativism* relied on the quality of the interaction between the individual and the environment or social interaction (i.e., scaffolded feedback).

Additionally, while the former provisions of OCF is carried out through, but not limited to, provide a rich and authentic input (Krashen, 1981), encourage language output (Swain, 2005), promote interaction (Long, 2015), and notice the language deviances (Schmidt, 2001). The latter provision emphasizes on the roles of teachers (i.e., experts) and learners (i.e., novices) within the process of feedback within learners' ZPD – “the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration, with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

The dominating body of research literature of OCF viewed from cognitive-interactionist paradigm (i.e., recast and prompts) has led to a long-lasting debate among researchers. Consequently, it leads to the research-gap and inconclusive findings pertaining to the claims to a primacy of *monolithic* OCF type that moves from implicit to explicit strategy (i.e., prompts) over single move strategy (i.e., recast) (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Li, 2010; Sarandi, 2016). Li (2010) criticizes the utilization of monolithic recast, which ‘is often not directed toward individual learners’ (p. 345). In the same vein, Sarandi (2016) suggested utilizing collective application of recast strategies by providing assistance to learners' linguistic features development. He suggests exposing its use from implicit to explicit strategy utilizing salient clues (explicit feedback) by inserting e.g., rising intonation through interrogative utterance. Additionally, Sato (2021) maintains imposing that OCF strategy should not only be focused on the immediate effect resulted from the interventions provided, but also a long-term effect to attest the explicit (declarative) and implicit (procedural) knowledge of the learners' L2 development.

OCF anchored in Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT), on the other hand, is rare to appear. Ellis and Shintani (2014) opines that CF type enables to leverage a fine-tuned assistance in collaboration between the teacher (i.e., expert) and learner (i.e., novice). Due to its limited research literature and potential utilization in fostering the learners' language development, the merit of this OCF type needs to be taken into account for further analysis.

Task Based-Instruction: Mediating Variable

The inconsistency findings of the previous studies are also exacerbated by the bifurcation of mediating variables as classroom instructions: Task-based language teaching (TBLT) as implicit instruction (i.e., *unconsciousness*) and Task-Supported Language Instruction (TSLI) as explicit instruction (i.e., *consciousness*). Although, such instructions are reported as the best tool in facilitating the classroom interaction to use language communicatively (see Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Lyster et al., 2013; Nassaji, 2017; Long, 2015 for example), its practices are far cry from consensus. Krashen (1981) claimed that explicit instruction (i.e., learning) presenting the learners (e.g., grammatical rules) cannot facilitate *acquisition*. Instead, implicit instruction together with *comprehensible input* and meaning-focused emphasis provide greater contribution to the L2 acquisition. For Krashen, providing the learners with grammatical rules constituted controlled practice during the communicative performance.

In a similar vein, Long (2015) rejects invoking explicit instruction by advocating the utilization of *implicit instruction* (i.e., TBLT) and implicit OCF i.e., *pure recast* to facilitate SLA acquisition. He argues that TBLT invokes a symbiotic combination that juxtaposes implicit and explicit instructions. By contrast, the other scholars and researchers (e.g., DeKeyser, 2007; Spada & Lightbown, 2008; Spada & Tomita, 2010) advocate explicit instruction (i.e., TSLI) as more effective instruction than the implicit one in gaining ESL/EFL acquisition. Drawing on Transfer Appropriate Processing (TAP) theory, Spada and Lightbown (2008) advocate to elicit learners with grammatical rules as in isolation prior to task activity (i.e., *proactive*) which benefits from the learners more than without such elicitation. Due to the complex system in the classroom interactions, it might be insufficient with the limited input and sole implicit instruction of the task provided (Suzuki et al., 2019). Suzuki et al., argues that explicit instruction imposed to specific linguistic features provides initial opportunities for controlled practice that gradually decreases after the learners engage in the task with meaning-focused activities.

Cochrane (2021, p. 432) reinvigorates the 'socio-cultural appropriateness' of Task-based instruction in Japanese context. Cochrane's finding incorporating interwoven influences of *social skill building, personal development, and future usefulness* provided a positive attitude and behaviour on Japanese learners. She asserts that the inappropriateness of previous TBI implementation does not merely stem from the gaps between TBI attributes and socio-cultural appropriateness. Rather, it is simply because the less familiarity of the TBI itself. She further suggested fitting TBI to the contexts in which it is carried out.

Be-passive Voice

We utilize task supported language instruction (TSLI) on the learners' explicit and implicit knowledge of grammar (i.e., *be-passive voice*) as the target of grammatical features. The use of morphological inflections *-ed* as in regular past verb and different forms of verb as in irregular past verb constitute further requirements in English passive voice. From Indonesian context, those requirements were not present in *Bahasa Indonesia*, so the passive voice lends itself to an interlanguage analysis to examine the development of foreign language learners' linguistic features. Burhansyah et al.'s (2020) finding reveals that inflection *-ed* is the most frequent errors made by Indonesian learners after inflection *-s/es*. Such errors are assumed to be intervened by the learners' interlanguage in which the inflections *-ed* is absent in *Bahasa Indonesia*. This results in the complexity of grammatical features to acquire. In the regard to *be-passive voice*, however, the complexity is also marked by some lexical transformations to be constructed (Spada et al., 2014). Such transformations required the learners to use *be-present* (i.e., *is, am, are*), *be-*

past (i.e., *was, were*), and *be*-perfect (i.e., *been*). Likewise, the use of singular and plural subjects in the passive voice affects the utilization of *to be* aforementioned.

Apart from the complexity of passive construction perceived by EFL learners, the scarce use of passive construction whether in written or spoken language hinders the learners' acquisition of such a construction. As such, it is necessary to equip learners using alternately both active and passive voice construction in speaking (Hinkel, 2004; Kirby, 2010).

Method

Participants

The participants were one hundred twenty seven learners of English as a foreign language at higher institution in western Indonesia. They were aged between 20 and 23 years. They participated in the subsequent tests (pre-, post-, and delayed test) and classroom task activities. Utilizing a classroom-based experimental design (Quasi-experiment), a four-intact class, out of 21 classes in the third semester) was selected and assigned to three treatment groups encompassing TSLI + situated recast (n = 32), TSLI + negotiated feedback (n = 34), TSLI only (n = 32), and a control group (n = 29). In these activities, only participants who were present in the pre-test and the whole treatments were counted in post and delayed test.

The three experimental groups were conveniently selected to participate in the subsequent TSLI activities. We conducted those TSLI activities in which one group (i.e., TSLI + SR) was provided with situated recast, another group (i.e., TSLI + NF) was supervised with negotiated feedback, and the other group (i.e., TSLI Only) was carried out without OCF. By contrast, the control group was provided by neither TSLI nor CF supervisions. This group participated in the classroom activities provided by institutional-based syllabus (IBS).

Instruments

Error Correction Test (ECT) and Elicited Imitation Test (EIT) were utilized to gauge the learners' explicit and implicit knowledge, respectively. Because ECT and EIT were conceived as novel testing instruments in language testing, the issues in the regard to the validity and reliability are very crucial to be elucidated. In term of construct validity, the ECT and EIT were reported to fall into two types of knowledge that is explicit knowledge i.e., the former and implicit knowledge i.e., the latter in a series studies using factorial analysis design (see Ellis et al., 2009; Spada, Shiu & Tomita, 2015 for the review).

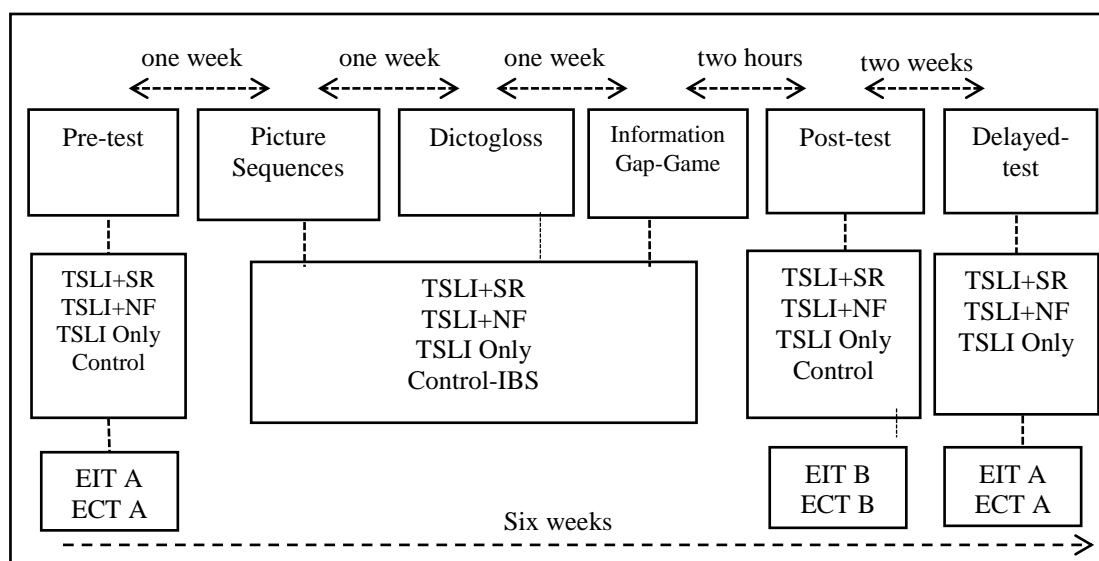
Following Spada et al., (2015), EIT consists of a set of belief statements involving both grammatical and ungrammatical sentences containing the target structures. There were 21 items with 14 target structures, i.e., *be*-passive voices encompassing 7 grammatical forms and 7 ungrammatical forms as well as 20 target V-ed endings pronunciations. While, there were 7 distracters included that contains active sentences e.g., *Hybrid cars use gasoline*. Among the 14 items of targeted *be*-passive voices, they encompassed six items in simple present, six items in simple past, and two items in present perfect. Additionally, the scoring was based on three criteria: perfect, partial, and wrong answers.

In Error correction test, the participants were asked to focus their attention on answering ungrammatical sentences. They were asked to (a) identify an erroneous form of a sentence, (b) correct an erroneous form of a sentence, and (c) explain why a form is erroneous. There were two versions of ECT: Version A and Version B in which each version contained 24 target structures (i.e., *be*-passive sentence). Among the 24 items, there were 6 sentences were used as distracters e.g., *the president comes late to the meeting yesterday*. While the rests contained the deviances of *be*-passive voices in which the participants were asked to fill out the blank sentences provided. We counted five points as maximum score in ECT. One point was given when participants were able to identify ungrammatical part of the sentence, two points were given when participants provided an accurate correction, and two points were given when participants provided

completely accurate reason and explanation why the sentence was incorrect. We counterbalanced the versions of EIT tests (i.e., Version A and Version B) to avoid a possible test effect. Therefore, each group got Version A in pre-test and Version B in post-test, while, in delayed test, the three groups got version A.

Task and Oral Corrective Feedback Procedures

The tests (i.e., pre, post, and delayed test) and TSLI activities (i.e., pre-TSLI and during-TSLI) lasted in six weeks (See Figure 1). While the three experimental groups (i.e., TSLI + SR, TSLI + NF, and TSLI Only) took all of the tests and TSLI activities, the control group took institutional-based syllabus activities followed by pre- and post-test only. The pre-test was carried out a week before TSLI activities encompassing two types of tests: Elicited Imitation Test (EIT) and Error Correction Test (ECT), measuring the learners' implicit and explicit knowledge of be passive voice, respectively.



Note: TSLI = Task Supported Language Instruction, SR = situated recast, NF = negotiated feedback, EIT = elicited imitation test, ECT = error correction test, IBS = institutional-based syllabus

Figure 1. Tests and task procedures.

Those TSLI activities lasted in three weeks (from week 2 to week 4) taking between 75 and 90 minutes time-span duration for each activity. For instance, the TSLI + SR and TSLI + NF groups lasted longer than the TSLI group. Furthermore, the TSLI activities were carried out in the subsequent days (i.e., Day 1, 2, and 3) and sessions (i.e., session 1 was carried out in the morning, session 2 was at noon) based on the schedule provided by the institution. For instance, in Week 2 (Day 1 and Session 1), the SR + TSLI group took the subsequent activities encompassing pre-TSLI i.e., *be*-passive voices' form, use, and meaning discussion of simple present. On the other hand, the NF + TSLI group took the same activities in the same Week with the different day (Day 2, Session 1), while TSLI group took such activities in the same Week and Day with different session (i.e., session 2). In week 3, the participants joined TSLI activities focusing on the *be*-passive voice of simple past, while in Week 4, they were asked to discuss *be*-passive voice of present perfect tense in pre-TSLI followed by TSLI performance as in during TSLI activities. Conversely, the control group was taught by utilizing English Grammar handbook developed by institution. This group was provided with grammatical rules followed by subsequent exercises to be finished. This activity constitutes a common teaching practice in most Indonesian classroom (Fadilah, 2018b).

Post-test was immediately carried out in week 4 after the learners had finished the last TSLI activities. There was a fifteen-minute break prior to doing the post-test. Eventually, we provided the delayed-test two weeks after the post-test (i.e., Week 6) to investigate the long-term effect of the treatments provided.

The delayed test was only imposed to the experimental groups, but not the control group due to its non-significant increase depicted from pre- to post-test scores gains.

The first researcher conducted TSLI and OCF supervisions for the experimental groups. The supervisions were subsumed into TSLI + SR, TSLI + SN, and TSLI-only. SR strategy was utilized on the learners' language deviances of *be*-passive voice relied upon the variety of the learners' characteristics. The researcher provided a dynamic strategy incorporating the explicitness and salience of the recast supervision. Because the learners frequently perceived recast as reformulating their non-deviant utterances of the target structures, the researcher provided a hybrid-salient strategy as stipulated in SR covering: *intonation, segmentation, and reduction the length utterance*. Excerpt 1 illustrated the learners' utterances and SR supervisions provided.

Excerpt 1

Researcher: could you describe this picture again, what does it tell us?

Learner: Yes. The eggs stir in the bowl.

Researcher: **ARE STIRRED** (*rising intonation, reducing utterances*)

Learner : Ohhh The eggs are stirred in the bowl.

In NF supervision, the researcher utilized a more dynamic OCF strategy from the most implicit to the most explicit moves. Borrowing twelve levels of SF developed by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), we opted to shorten those steps into 5 levels of strategy with the consideration of the participants' ages i.e., adults and participants' prior knowledge i.e., least or partial knowledge. In doing so, first, we provided the learners with implicit strategy, i.e., *Could you repeat your sentence?* In case of failure to correct themselves, the learners then were provided with the most explicit strategy as in level 4 and 5.

TABLE 1

Negotiated Feedback Moves from the Most Implicit to the most Explicit Strategy

Level	Feedback moves
1	Providing the learner verbal cues such as 'could you repeat your sentence?' (Clarification request).
2	Directing the learner's attention to the source of the error such as "is your sentence correct?"
3	Highlighting the learner's error
4	Providing optional incorrect and correct form
5	Scaffolding further explanations but no grammatical rules are explained

Excerpt 2 denotes the negotiated feedback strategy provided to a learner with more assistance (i.e., multiple moves). The learner was asked to repeat his utterance about the inventor of telephone. The first researcher sometimes used *Bahasa Indonesia* to explain the reasons of the passive voice use. It was used when the learners e.g., with more assistance were not able to make self-correction of the error they made. For example

Excerpt 2: A learner with more assistance

(1) R: Okay could you repeat your sentence, who invented telephone?

(2) L: Alexander Graham Bell

(3) R: Well ... make it in a complete sentence. Use telephone as a subject!

Would you repeat?

(Level 1)

(4) L: Telephone invented Alexander Graham Bell.

(5) R: *Is your sentence correct?* Look at the part of your sentence!

Telephone invented?

(Level 2- 3)

(6) L: um ...

(7) R: If you have a sentence which has a receiver (*penderita*) act as a subject, it should be in passive sentence.

So telephone inventend or telephone was invented?

(Level 4)

(8) L: Telephone was invented by Alexander Graham Bell

In Excerpt 2, negotiated feedback strategy was utilized conveniently from the most implicit to the most explicit strategy. From the excerpt, the learner failed constructing a correct passive sentence ‘telephone invented Alexander Graham Bell’ (Turn 4), after asking him to repeat his utterance. The utterance *would you repeat?* (Level 1) indicated a cue for the learner to repeat his sentence. In Turn 4, the learner made a grammatical error pertaining to passive sentence, then the first researcher drew his attention to the source of his error *is your sentence correct? Telephone invented?* (Turn 5, Level 2-3). In turn 7, providing optional corrections e.g., *telephone invented or telephone was invented?* (Level 4) to draw the learners’ attention more to the errors they made. These subsequent feedbacks were provided until the learner provided a correct form i.e., self-correction of his grammatical deviances.

The flexible moves offered in negotiated feedback enabled the researcher to provide assistance to the learners’ target language deviances based on their knowledge and understanding to the *be*-passive form. Such flexible feedback moves were relied on their correct responses to the feedback provided. For instance, a learner with less assistance was provided with NF in Level 1. Even, some of them were able to correct their grammatical and pronunciation errors in Level 1. Excerpt 3 explicates the learner’s response to the feedback in Level 1. The learner presented how to withdraw money from ATM.

Excerpt 3: Student with less assistance

- (1) L: ... then enter ATM PIN.
- (2) R: Sorry ... *Could you repeat* your sentence? ATM PIN (Level 1)
- (3) L: ohhh ... then **ATM PIN is entered**,
- (4) R: Good ... go on ...

In Excerpt 3, learner was provided a single move of NF only (i.e., providing verbal cue) with minimal assistance (Turn 2, Level 1). In Turn 3, the learner was able to correct her sentence after getting the clue. The two learners explicated the variety of the learners’ knowledge and understanding of passive form. Also, it indicated that lecturer could not treat the same students with the same remedy (CF) when they make the same errors. When two learners initiated the same knowledge in their ‘actual knowledge’ (problem solving), they would develop differently toward their potential knowledge (under collaboration) mediated by the experts. It is a central tenet of ZPD that entails the importance of mediation (expert). In other words, NF provided assistance to fit the learner’s ZPD under collaboration and interaction with mediation with the expert.

Data Analysis

We utilized a statistical package (i.e., SPSS 20) to gauge the data derived from EIT and ECT tests across pre, post, and delayed tests. A mixed design (between-within) repeated measure analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA) was selected to examine the effects of one or more categorical independent variables on repeated-dependent measures. Some *statistical assumptions* were set up prior to conducting this mixed design of RM-ANOVA. In case of the violation of this assumption, we used *Greenhouse-Geisser* as an alternative and robust correcting test for the *tests* of overall effects and the *interactions* (groups x tests).

The internal reliability of ECT for the pre-, post-, and delayed tests indicated 0.81, 0.93, and 0.91, respectively. In other words, all test items in the three tests are reliable i.e., > 0.6. In EIT, the internal reliability indicated 0.75, 0.9, and 0.87, respectively of a total score. The consensus of SLA scholars made an agreement that the internal validity > 0.6 is accepted (see Larson-Hall, 2010; Plonsky, 2013 for example).

In addition to the internal reliability, we provided inter-rater reliability and consistency to ensure the scores’ level of agreement. Two experienced English lecturers voluntarily assessed the participants’ answer of 25% of ECT tests (Li et al., 2016; Spada et al., 2014). The two raters were selected based on their background of education and teaching experiences (i.e., > 10 years) in ELT. The level of inter-rater

reliability of ECT and EIT was sufficient indicated by *Cohen's Kappa*. In ECT, the first researcher score and the two raters indicated $k = 0.93$ (93%) and $k = 0.92$ (92%), respectively. While, in EIT, my score and the first and second raters were $k = 0.90$ (90%) and $k = 0.92$ (92%), respectively

Result

Table 2 delineates the descriptive statistics for ECT and EIT across the groups and tests. As can be seen, there is a decrease of the number of participants whose data are included in the final analyses. There is an increase of the mean scores in post-tests across the groups but not in control group. The test of RM-ANOVAs detects the significant difference of the tests on the treatment groups consecutively for ECT with $F(2, 88) = 16.05$, $p = 0.00$, and EIT $F(2, 88) = 7.62$, $p = 0.00$. While, the control group delineates no significant difference from pre- to post-test in the two types of test that are indicated by *negative marks* across confidence interval. The estimated differences between the tests shows Means differences on ECT = -2.96, 95% CI [-7.02, 1.10] and EIT = -1.14 with 95% CI [-3.07, 0.79]. As such, we elect to drop the control group in delayed-test.

TABLE 2

Descriptive Statistic of Error Correction Test and Elicited Imitation Test

Tests	Groups	Pre-test			Post-test			Delayed-test		
		N	M	SD	N ^a	M	SD	N	M	SD
ECT	TSLI+SR	32	47.84	10.15	32	70.29	14.32	30	62.9	12.62
	TSLI+NF	34	48.15	13.2	32	79.41	11.38	32	74.39	10.57
	TSLI only	32	47.53	9.65	31	57.42	9.4	31	50.97	8.2
	Control ^b	29	47.48	7.62	29	50.8	7.81			
EIT	TSLI+SR	32	12.34	5.93	32	24.75	8.68	30	23.67	7.65
	TSLI+NF	34	11.18	4.32	32	26.09	9.73	32	23.41	7.35
	TSLI Only	32	12.19	5.49	31	18.58	6.18	31	14.00	3.6
	Control ^c	29	12.24	3.75	29	13.38	3.57			

Note: ECT = Error Correction Test, EIT = Elicited Imitation test, TSLI = Task Supported Language Instruction, SR = Situated Recast, NF = negotiated Feedback, n^a = the decrease of the number of the participants, control^{b&c} = due to not detecting a significant increase, this group is excluded in delayed-test

Effects of the Treatments on Explicit Knowledge

In ECT (i.e., explicit knowledge), the mixed-design ANOVA detected a significant effect for time, $F(2, 87) = 278.9$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.8$, for *group x time* interaction, $F(4, 174) = 18.69$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.3$. While the variance of sphericity is violated $\chi^2(2) = 63.87$, $p\text{-value}=0.00$, a correction is made for group, $F(1.32, 115.61) = 330.87$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.8$. In other words, there is significant effects of the treatments on the learners' explicit delineated within the tests and group interaction in the tests.

One of the primary concern of this study is whether the three treatments (TSLI + NF, TSLI + SR, and TSLI-only) provided potential effects on the learners' explicit (declarative) knowledge of *be*-passive voice. It is depicted that, TSLI + NF condition provides the highest means illustrated in post-test ($M = 79.41$) with 95% CI [75.3, 83.51]. Likewise, there is a considerable increase indicated from pre- to post-test a large effect size ($d = 2.0$). Similarly, the TSLI + SR condition provides a considerable increase in post-test ($M = 70.29$) with 95 % CI [65.0, 78.2]. This increase signifies a large effect size ($d = 1.8$). On the other hand, TSLI-only condition provides a slight increase in post-test ($M = 57.42$), 95% CI [53.97, 60.87]. This condition provides a large effect size ($d = 1.0$) delineating that the subsequent-task activities with the absence of OCF provides a considerable effect on the learners' development of *be*-passive voice. However, a wide-varied range of score explicated in the confidence interval illustrates that TSLI embedding OCFs provides a more considerable effect on the learners' declarative knowledge of this grammatical feature.

We also endeavor to attest the potential long-term effect of the treatment conditions as depicted in the delayed-test. TSLI + NF provides a slight decrease of means found in delayed-test ($M = 62.9$). In the similar

vein, TSLI + SR indicates a slight decrease portrayed from post-to delayed-test ($M = 74.39$). TSLI-only shares its decrease depicted in delayed-test (50.97). The magnitude of effect sizes constitutes varied among the three conditions. NF and SR embedded in TSLI provide moderate effect sizes (i.e., $d = 0.4$ and $d = 0.5$, respectively), while TSLI-only provides a large effect size ($d = 0.8$). In other words, only TSLI with the two OCFs provide a longer-term effect than TSLI-only on the learners' declarative knowledge of *be*-passive voice.

Effects of the Treatments on Implicit Knowledge

While ECT aims at measuring the learners' explicit knowledge, EIT is conceived to gauge the learners' implicit knowledge. The effects of the treatment groups indicate a detection of a statistical effect for time, $F(2, 87) = 149.09$, $p = 0.00$, for group $F(1.69, 149.50) = 213.47$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.7$, and for group x time interaction, $F(4, 174) = 15.81$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.3$ adjusted to the correction of *Greenhouse-Geisser* use.

In TSLI + NF condition, There is a significant increase found in post-test ($M = 26.09$), 95% CI [9.58, 12.60]. This condition provides a considerable effect of the learners' implicit knowledge with a large effect size ($d = 2.0$). Similarly, TSLI + SR condition shows a significant increase in post-test ($M = 24.75$), 95% CI [8.70, 16.12]. The effect size constitutes ($d = 1.6$) that signifies a large effect resulting from the treatment provided. Additionally, TSLI-only also shows a large effect size ($d = 1.0$) gaining a slight increase of means in post-test ($M = 18.58$), 95% CI [3.47, 9.31]. Concisely, the three conditions provide considerable effects on the learners' procedural knowledge of *be*-passive voice. The wide-varied range of confidence intervals and the largest effect size posits TSLI + SR to outperform the two other conditions.

Of the other conditions, TSLI + SR provides a small effect size ($d = 0.1$) gained in delayed-test. Similarly, a small effect size ($d = 0.3$) is found in the TSLI + NF condition. The two conditions explicate that TSLI with OCFs provide a long-term effect on the learner's implicit knowledge. Interestingly, a large effect size ($d = 0.9$) is depicted in TSLI-only. The exposure explicated in the task-based activities does not provide a robust effect for a long period. In other words, TSLI-only merely provides an immediate effect on the learners' procedural knowledge, but it decays in a longer-time period.

The Comparison between Groups

One-Way ANOVA test detects a significant difference between groups, $F(3, 123) = 41.48$, $p = 0.00$ and $F(3, 123) = 18.54$, $p = 0.00$ respectively. In other words, there is a significant difference between groups in post-tests. Having detected the difference between the groups, post-hoc test comparison is carried out to find out a different effect of the supervisions provided.

Table 3 illustrates the magnitude of different effects between groups. In ECT, the treatment groups (i.e., TSLI + NF, TSLI + SR, TSLI-only) outperform control group with a large Cohen's d effect sizes. Of the treatment groups, the OCFs embedded in TSLI provide more potent than those without OCFs do. TSLI+SR provides more robust effect than TSLI only and control group with *Cohen's* $d = -1.0$ and -1.7 , respectively. Meanwhile, TSLI+NF outperform the three groups with the largest effect sizes.

TABLE 3

Pairwise Post-Hoc test Comparison between groups on ECT and EIT

Test	Group comparisons	<i>d</i> and 95% CI	MD and 95% CI	Sig.level
ECT	Treatment VS. control			
	TSLI+SR VS. Control	-1.7 [-2.25, -1.1]	19.30 [11.40, 27.20]	0.00
	TSLI+NF VS. Control	-2.9 [-3.63, -2.19]	28.61 [21.86, 35.37]	0.00
	TSLI Only VS. Control	-0.7 [-1.29, -0.24]	6.60 [0.57, 12.7]	0.025
	Treatment VS. Treatment			
	TSLI+NF VS. TSLI+SR	0.7 [0.01, 1.44]	-9.3 [-18.0, -0.6]	0.03
EIT	TSLI+SR VS. TSLI Only	-1.0 [-1.6, -0.52]	12.6 [4.46, 20.9]	0.001
	TSLI+NF VS. TSLI Only	-2.0 [-2.72, -1.47]	21.9 [14.85, 29.12]	0.00
	Treatment VS. Control			
	TSLI+SR VS. Control	-1.7 [-2.26, -1.1]	-11.37 [-15.9, -6.76]	.00
	TSLI+NF VS. Control	-1.9 [-2.48, -1.27]	-12.74 [-17.8, -7.62]	.00
	TSLI Only VS. Control	-1.0 [-1.6, -0.5]	-5.20 [-8.76, -1.64]	.001
EIT	Treatment VS. Treatment			
	TSLI+NF VS. TSLI+SR	0.1 [-0.34, 0.63] ^a	1.34 [-7.60, 4.91]	.10
	TSLI+SR VS. TSLI Only	-0.8 [-1.3, -0.3]	6.2 [1.01, 11.32]	.01
	TSLI+NF VS. TSLI Only	-0.9 [-1.43, -0.4]	7.51 [1.93, 13.1]	.003

Note. *d* = Cohen's *d* effect sizes between groups, MD = mean differences between groups, ^a = no significant difference

Similarly, the three treatment groups outperform control group in EIT. Of those treatment groups, TSLI + SR outperforms the control group and TSLI-only ($d = -0.8$ and $d = -1.7$, respectively). Likewise, TSLI + NF outperforms the control group and TSLI only with consecutive magnitudes $d = 1.9$ and $d = 0.9$. Interestingly, there is no a significant difference illustrated between TSLI + SR and TSLI + NF ($d = 0.1$), 95% CI [-0.34, 0.63], $p = 0.10$. In other words, both CFs (TSLI + SR and TSLI + NF) embedded in the TSLI provide an equal effect on the learners' EIT. Both groups outperform the TSLI only and control groups.

Discussion

We begin with considering the effects of the dynamic approach in OCF strategies embedded in TSLI on the learners' explicit and implicit knowledge of grammatical features: *be*-passive construction. Our findings provide the evidence that the explicit instruction (i.e., learning) facilitates SLA. The findings also oppose Krashen's (1981) claim by devaluing second language leaning on learners' linguistic features development. Likewise, the findings refute Long's (2015) claim to impose a (pure) implicit recast instead of the flexible moves (i.e., implicit-explicit strategy). Additionally, our findings partially confirm the previous studies reporting the efficacy of flexible moves of OCF strategies embedded in TSLI (e.g., Li et al., 2016; Sarandi, 2014; Spada et al., 2014). We elucidate these findings as follows.

TSLI on Learners' Explicit and Implicit Knowledge

We utilize the two tests i.e., ECT and EIT to provide measures of learners' explicit and implicit knowledge on the linguistic features (*be*-passive). The discussion of the grammatical rules and functions prior to the TSLI activities contribute significantly to the learners' explicit and implicit knowledge. This claim contrasts to Li et al.'s (2016) failure to capture gains in implicit knowledge with the absence of preliminary discussion of the target structures' forms and function. Li et al.'s finding might be caused by the learners' lack prior knowledge of the target structures. In an EFL classroom with the variety of the learners' characteristics, it is necessary to provide a prior knowledge of the new grammatical feature that is absence in their mother language. Ellis and Shintani (2014) suggest the explicit instruction as pre-task activities in which the teacher explains a quick description and explanation of the grammatical rules as the target structure used in during task performances.

The finding also supports DeKeyser's (2007) Transfer Appropriate Theory in which when the learners have prior knowledge, the transformation from the declarative knowledge (i.e., knowing forms, rules and functions) to the procedural knowledge (i.e., knowing how to use) is beneficial for the learners' language development. Also, the pre-TSLI activities carried out facilitate and foster the learners' knowledge to reconstruct their *be*-passive voices through *grammaring* i.e., discussion the forms, meaning, and use of linguistic features (Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia, 2016) or *linguaging* i.e., talking the choices of linguistic repertoires (Swain, 2006). Besides, the subsequent TSLI activities (during-TSLI) enable the learners to transform such a construction by practicing them in the subsequent meaningful and interactive communication as explicated in various task activities with longer interventions than Li et al.'s (2016) study.

Our claims are also in line with Suzuki et al.'s (2019) supports that purely communicative tasks without additional intervention (e.g., explicit instruction) do not always facilitate L2 learning due to the limited amount and exposures of input, interaction, and output. Such an explicit instruction facilitates the learners to acquire *automatized explicit knowledge* that eventually leads to implicit knowledge. In this vein, TAP embodies declarative and procedural knowledge that leads to automatization. It plays a role through mechanisms as follows. First, explicit instructions discussing the forms, meaning, and use of target linguistic feature (i.e., declarative knowledge) provides the awareness of the learners to attend such a linguistic feature (i.e., *be*-passive sentence). Second, Systematic practices provoked with the three communicative tasks enable the learners to control and execute their knowledge (i.e., procedural knowledge). Third, the extended practices lead to the learners' language automatization derived from *input-output floods* through the systematic classroom interactions that eventually leads to the implicit knowledge when the learners are not aware of their declarative knowledge any longer.

From the finding, the score increases from pre-test to post-test in ECT (i.e., explicit knowledge) and EIT (i.e., implicit knowledge) indicating the large effect sizes (1.0 and 1.0, respectively) when those tests are carried out immediately after the last treatments. However, this effect is decayed overtime. In delayed test, this condition loses its effect indicated by the large effect sizes in both ECT and EIT (i.e., 0.8 and 0.9, respectively). The large-wide size reveals that there is a significant difference from post-test to delayed-test. In other words, this condition only provides a short-term effect but not long term effect on the development of *be*-passive voice (see e.g., Li et al., 2016; Spada et al., 2014). The finding also provides the evidence that the sole communicative tasks are not contributing to the learners' long-term gain of knowledge, hence OCF as the control-practiced plays a role (Li et al., 2016; Nassaji, 2017; Suzuki et al., 2019)

TSLI and Situated Recast on Learners' Explicit and Implicit Knowledge

The findings delineated that SR embedded in TSLI outperforms both TSLI only and control groups on both tests: ECT ($d = 1.0$ and $d = 1.7$) and EIT ($d = 0.8$ and $d = 1.7$) with large effect sizes, respectively. Likewise, the considerable effect sizes are portrayed in the three tests. SR + TSLI provides long-term effect explicated in the delayed-test on ECT ($d = 0.5$) and EIT ($d = 0.1$) with a medium and small effect sizes, respectively. In other words, there is no statistical difference found from post-test to delayed-test on EIT, but a medium effect sizes on ECT explicates that the treatment provides somewhat long-term effect. The findings partially support many of the previous researchers reported the robustness of explicit instruction combined with dynamic recast strategies (e.g., Li et al., 2016; Nassaji, 2017; Sarandi, 2016). However, the previous studies utilize recast with the other type of CF strategy i.e., prompts (e.g., Li et al., 2016; Spada et al., 2014).

Rather, this study keeps maintaining the nature of recast as both positive (i.e., reformulation) and negative (i.e., correction) feedback provided to fit the learners' characteristics (e.g., level of proficiency, background of knowledge, cognition). The SR is utilized with a flexible-move strategy – rising intonation, segmenting part of the utterances, or the combination of both.

The combination of TSLI and SR significantly affect the learners' explicit and implicit knowledge of *be*-passive voice. In addition to fit the learners characteristics above, the time-span intervention and the

variety of TSLI interventions (see Sheen & Ellis, 2011; Li et al., 2016) in terms of task types (i.e., movie and song lyric discussion, picture-narration of making or doing something, dictogloss, enhanced-information task-gap) may contribute to the gains of those both knowledge: explicit and implicit *be*-passive sentence knowledge.

This finding also answers Li et al.'s (2016) failures measuring the learners' implicit knowledge of *be*-passive due to their participants' age, prior knowledge, time-span intervention, and monotonous task intervention. Likewise, the classroom subsequent TSLI activities in which a group of learner engages has provided input flood and enhancement that are likely contribute to their comprehension of the passive voice construction. It is also in line with Sarandi's (2016) collective application of recast strategies that provides more merits to meet the learners' characteristics than utilizing recast implicitly.

While Spada et al.'s (2014) finding reveals that explicit instructions (i.e., TSLI and recast + metalinguistic combination) only contribute more on the learners explicit *be*-passive sentences than the implicit ones, this finding unveils that the former instructions significantly affect the development of learners' explicit and implicit *be*-passive voice. It is likely caused by the learners' background of knowledge as explicated in Spada et al.'s study in which the former group has insufficient prior knowledge of the *be*-passive voice compared to the latter. Equating the learners' prior knowledge (i.e., homogeneity) provides the evidence that explicit instruction significantly contributes to the learners' implicit and explicit knowledge as explicated in this study.

Locating recast as the situated practices that is based on the contexts is more beneficial than the persistence in its use of implicitness. Hence, instead of locating recast as 'open question' of its efficacy for it 'is settled' (Goo & Mackey, 2013), there should be a novel approach in carrying it the recast which 'has not yet been settled' (Lyster & Ranta, 2013, p. 158) to fit the learners' backgrounds (i.e., prior knowledge, curriculum imposed). Those are in line with Nassaji's (2017) suggestion that such persistence should not be taken as a serious matter, given that recast is not a unified feedback type with many different forms by considering how it is provided and situated. Additionally, due to the complex relationship between recast and learning, it is necessary to provide the flexible forms of recast strategy as the situated recast carried out in this study.

TSLI and Negotiated Feedback on Learners' Explicit and Implicit Knowledge

This study also reveals that the combination of TSLI and NF provides the most significant effect on the learners' explicit and implicit knowledge of *be*-passive sentence compared to the two other treatments and control groups. Negotiated feedback group provides the largest effect sizes from pre-test to post-test accounting $d = 2.4$ on ECT and $d = 2.0$ on EIT. In the group comparison, NF contributes the largest effect sizes of the TSLI group and control group.

This finding contrasts to Rassaei's (2014) report by comparing implicit (*pure*) recast and scaffolded feedback (SF) that results in the superiority of SF over recast in all tests. This study reveals that there is a medium effect size ($d = 0.7$) between SR and NF groups on ECT. By contrast, in EIT, the NF group does not significantly differ from the SR group indicated by a small effect size ($d = 0.1$). In this vein, the flexible implicit-explicit moves explicated in SR and TSLI seem to contribute the equal effect on the learners' development of *be*-passive voice. Additionally, there is no significant effect found from post-test to delayed-test on both ECT ($d = 0.4$) and EIT ($d = 0.3$), respectively. In other words, NF embedded in TSLI provides a longer-term effect on the learners' both explicit and implicit knowledge of *be*-passive sentence compared to SR on the learners' explicit and implicit knowledge of *be*-passive voice. This finding also complements Rassaei's (2014) reports with the absence of such a delayed-test.

This study confirms the claims of the previous researchers that there is a development from the learners' actual level i.e., pre-test to their potential level of development i.e., post-test (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf et al., 2015; Rassaei, 2014). The flexible move strategy from implicit to explicit is explicated in NF through a quality of collaboration (i.e., languaging) between the intrapersonal (within learners' process of learning) and interpersonal (interaction between the learners and the lecturer).

Vygotsky calls such a process as *internalization* derived from external psychological experiences in a social setting (i.e., inter-psychological) that eventually leads to the learners' mental functioning (i.e., intra-psychological) to perform a task autonomously (Vygotsky, 1978). This process is also congenial with their actual level of development and potential development through *mediation* – when a novice individual (i.e., learner) in performing a task is mediated by an advanced individual (i.e., lecturer). In this vein, the lecturer as a mediation evokes and encourages the learners to take the control of his/her performance through social collaboration that benefits from the flexible-move strategy (Lantolf & Poehner, 2015)

The contrast findings between Rassaei's study and this study might be seen from the contextual factors emerged. First, Rassaei utilizes pure implicit instruction without any explanation of the grammatical concepts prior the task provided as explicated in Long's (2015) TBLT, while this study utilizes grammaring and/or languaging prior to the task performances. It is in line with Feryok's (2017) claims that the non-native learners might not be *noticing* the target language if it were used implicitly. The systematic concepts (i.e., discussing form, function, and use of the target linguistic features) provided prior to the tasks mediate the learning process that lead to the complete learning. Second, Rassaei only carries out a task with time-span between 17 and 24 minutes, while this study utilizes various task activities with time-span 270 minutes. Third, while Rassaei uses pure recast (implicit CF), this study imposes a flexible move of recast from implicit to explicit (Li et al., 2016; Ammar & Spada, 2006). Accordingly, the issues of recast pertaining to the learners' contextual background (i.e., readiness, awareness, attention, contexts, fine-tuned, efficacy, task type, level of proficiency, accuracy, and fluency) can be likely resolved. It could be effective by providing the EFL learners with the flexible or alternate move from implicit to explicit recast strategy by maintaining the nature of the recast strategy – not interrupting the communication flows.

Conclusion

This study so far has provided the evidence to the efficacy of the two CF paradigms namely cognitive interactionist paradigm as in the situated recast (SR) and socio-cultural paradigm as in the negotiated feedback (NF) on the learners' development of passive voice construction. The utilization of task-supported language instruction (TSLI) plays a role as a mediating activity. Although there is a significant increase of TSLI intervention without CF (i.e., TSLI only), it only contributes to the short-term effect (immediate post-test). Such intervention fails providing a long-term effect (delayed-test) on the learners' passive voice development. Also, the bifurcation of task-based instruction (i.e., implicit vis-à-vis explicit) should not have taken for granted. TSLI invoking proactive and reactive approach in which OCFs are embedded provides a greater effect than TSLI only. Discussing the forms of be-passive voice prior to task activities doesn't necessarily regress the traditional teaching method as in Audio-Lingual Method or Grammar Translation Method, but rather to discuss the function, meaning, and use of such a grammatical feature (Fadilah, 2018b; Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia 2016).

Ammar and Spada (2006) rightly point out 'no size fits all' signifying no monolithic OCF strategy utilized (i.e., implicitly, explicitly) is superior over the others and vice versa. This study may benefit the ELT lecturers teaching language skills notably grammar and speaking but not limited to listening and writing. In other words, those skills could be carried simultaneously in TSLI with embedded situated recast and negotiated feedback instead of teaching them in isolation. Renandya et al. (2018) pinpoints capacity in leveraging teachers' ability to orchestrate their teaching models (e.g., correct language use, effective feedback utilization). Additionally, future research may modify the interventions provided, for instance, employing a variety of strategy in situated recast by utilizing the other non-linguistic resources (e.g., gesture, gaze). Such resources may be imposed in negotiated feedback to provide finer-grained result and make a more harmonious and comfortable rapport with the learners.

In sum, the result of this study explicates the effectiveness of the two CF paradigms embracing situated recast and negotiated feedback to the ELT growth. Such CF types are more potent and robust in providing both short and long-term effects on the learners' be-passive voice development than TSLI Only.

Acknowledgements

This research was based on the research funded with the grant from Research Institute of Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia.

The Authors

Eka Fadilah is a full-time lecturer in the Dept. English and Literary of Universitas Widya Kartika in Indonesia. His research interests cover Second language acquisition, task-based instruction, language assessment, and willingness to communicate.

English and Literary Department
Universitas Widya Kartika
60112-Suterejo Prima Utara Street II no.1 Surabaya
Mobile: +62-821-3196-8139
Email: ekafadilah@widyakartika.ac.id

Utami Widiati is a professor in the Dept. English Teaching and Education of Universitas Negeri Malang in Indonesia. She has been involved in various pre-service and in-service teacher-training programs in Indonesia. Her research interests include curriculum development, second language acquisition, materials development, and teaching English as Lingua Franca (ELF).

English Teaching and Education Department
Universitas Negeri Malang
65145-Semarang Street no.5, Lowokwaru-Malang, Indonesia
Mobile: +62-813-3478-0667
Email: utami.widiati.fs@um.ac.id

Mirjam Anugerahwati (corresponding author) is a full-time lecturer in the Dept. English Teaching and Education of Universitas Negeri Malang in Indonesia. Her research interests encompass teaching speaking and grammar, error correction, and socio-cultural Theory.

English Teaching and Education Department
Universitas Negeri Malang
65145-Semarang Street no.5, Lowokwaru-Malang, Indonesia
Mobile: +62-822-3298-2055
Email: mirjamanugerah65@gmail.com

References

- Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation: Second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 465-483. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02064.x>
- Ammar, A., & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all? Recast, prompts and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(4), 543-574. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263106060268>

- Baleghizadeh, S., & Oladrostam, E. (2011). Teaching grammar for active use: A framework for comparison of three instructional techniques. *TEFLIN Journal*, 22(1), 72-92. <https://doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v22i1/72-92>
- Yusuf, B., Aziz, Z. A., & Yusuf, Y. Q. (2020). Indonesian learners' problems in acquiring English grammatical morphology. *International Journal of Language Studies*, 14(4), 63-78.
- Chin, C. S., Zainuddin, S. Z., & Pillai, S. (2019). The relative efficacy of recasts and prompts on past tense use of ESL learners. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 16(2), 485-498. <http://dx.doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2019.16.2.3.485>
- Cochrane, Y. (2021). The socio-cultural suitability of task-based instruction in Japan: Through the lens of learners. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 18(2), 422-437. <http://dx.doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2021.18.2.3.422>
- DeKeyser, R. (Ed.). (2007). *Practicing in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology*. Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S., Elder, C., Erlam, R., & Reinders, H. (2009). *Implicit and explicit knowledge in second language learning, testing and teaching*. Short Run Press Ltd.
- Ellis, R., & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition*. Routledge.
- Fadilah, E. (2018a). Rethinking the maintenance of CLT in Indonesia: A response to: Ariatna's "The need for maintaining CLT in Indonesia". *TESOL Journal*, 9(1), 224-236. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.341>
- Fadilah, E. (2018b). Oral corrective feedback on students' grammatical accuracy and willingness to communicate in EFL classroom: The effects of focused and unfocused prompts. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 20(4), 57-85.
- Feryok, A. (2017). Sociocultural theory and task-based language teaching: The role of praxis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 51, 716-727. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.390>
- Goo, J., & Mackey, A. (2013). The case against the case against recast. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 35, 127-165. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263112000708>
- Hinkel, E. (2004). Tense, aspect and the passive voice in L1 and L2 academic texts. *Language Teaching Research*, 8, 5-29. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168804lr132oa>
- Kirby, S. (2010). Passives in first language acquisition: What causes the delay? *University of Pennsylvania Working Papers in Linguistics*, 16, 109-117.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Pergamon.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Celce-Murcia, M. (2016). *The grammar book: Form, meaning, and use for English language teachers* (3rd ed.). Cengage Learning/National Geographic Learning.
- Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS*. Routledge.
- Lantolf, J., Thorne, S. L., & Poehner, M. E. (2015). Sociocultural theory and second language development. In B. van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 207-226). Routledge.
- Li, S., Ellis, R., & Zhu, Y. (2016). Task-based versus task-supported language instruction: An experimental study. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 36, 205-229. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190515000069>
- Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 60, 309-365. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00561.x>
- Long, M. H. (2015). *Second language acquisition and task based language teaching*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263197001034>
- Lyster, R., & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32(2), 265-302. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990520>
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (2013). Counterpoint piece: The case for variety in corrective feedback research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 35, 167-184. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S027226311200071X>

- Lyster, R., Saito, K., & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 46(1), 1-40. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000365>
- Mackey, A., & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in SLA: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 408-452). Oxford University Press.
- Nassaji, H. (2017). The effectiveness of extensive versus intensive recasts for learning L2 grammar. *The Modern Language Journal*, 101(2), 353-368. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12387>
- Plonsky, L. (2013). Study quality in SLA: An assessment of designs, analyses, and reporting practices in quantitative L2 research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 35, 655-687. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263113000399>
- Poehner, M. E. (2008). *Dynamic assessment: A Vygotskian paradigm to understanding and promoting second language development*. Springer Publishing.
- Rassaei, E. (2014). Scaffolded feedback, recast, and L2 development: A sociocultural perspective. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(1), 417-431. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2014.12060.x>
- Renandya, W. A., Hamied, F. A., & Nurkamto, J. (2018). English language proficiency in Indonesia: Issues and prospects. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 15(3), 618-629. <http://dx.doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2018.15.3.4.618>
- Sarandi, H. (2016). Oral corrective feedback: A question of classification and application. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(1), 235-246. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.285>
- Sato, Y. (2021). Effects of recasts, explicit correction, and metalinguistic prompts on L2 knowledge of the English past tense. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 18(2), 390-405. <http://dx.doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2021.18.2.1.390>
- Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3-32). Cambridge University Press.
- Sheen, Y., & Ellis, R. (2011). Corrective feedback in language teaching. In E. Hinkle (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (2nd ed., pp. 593-610). Routledge.
- Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. M. (2008). Form-focused instruction: Isolated or integrated? *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(2), 181-207. <https://doi.org/10.2307/40264447>
- Spada, N., Shiu J. L.-J., & Tomita, Y. (2015). Validating an elicited imitation task as a measure of implicit knowledge: Comparisons with other validation studies. *Language Learning*, 64(3), 723-751. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12129>
- Spada, N., Jessop, L., Tomita, Y., Suzuki, W., & Valeo, A. (2014). Isolated and integrated form-focused Instruction: Effects on different types of L2 knowledge. *Language Teaching Research*, 18, 453-473. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168813519883>
- Spada, N., & Tomita, Y. (2010). Interactions between type of instruction and type of language feature: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 60, 1-46. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00562.x>
- Suzuki, Y., Nakata, T., & Dekeyser, R. (2019). Optimizing second language practice in the classroom: Perspective from cognitive psychology. *The Modern Language Journal*, 103, 551-561. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12582>
- Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471-483). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind and society: The development of higher mental processes*. Harvard University Press.

(Received August 21, 2021; Revised November 20, 2021; Accepted December 18, 2021)