The Effects of Explicit Recasts and Output-only Prompts on Learning L2 Grammar[*]

Açık Biçimlendirme ve Sadece Çıktıya Dayalı Yönlendiricilerin İkinci Dil Yapısının Öğrenimindeki Etkisi

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ABSTRACT: This quasi-experimental study investigates the potential benefits of two types of corrective feedback strategies, explicit recasts and output-only prompts, on the acquisition of English third person '-s'. Thirty-six language learners in three intact classes from a university in Istanbul were assigned into two experimental groups and a control group and completed communicative tasks that made the use of the target language necessary. The explicit recast was operationalized as repetition of erroneous utterances followed by supra-segmental manipulation where stress and intonation were employed to make the corrective force of recasts salient. Output-only prompts were operationalized as repetition and elicitation. Acquisition was measured through untimed grammaticality judgment tests (UGJT) and oral narration tasks that were administered prior to the instructions, immediately after the instructions and 10 days later. The analysis of data revealed a clear advantage of explicit recast on the oral measures of the immediate posttest, and to lesser extent, the delayed posttest. The findings suggested that, at least in some EFL contexts, explicit recasts might have a more positive impact on the acquisition process than output-only prompts.
Keywords: corrective feedback, explicit recasts, corrective recasts, output-only prompts, English third person '-s'

Öz: Bu yarı deneysel çalışma, iki düzeltici dönütün- açık biçimlendirme ve sadece çıktıya dayalı yönlendiricilerin- İngilizce üçüncü tekil şahıs '-s' ekinin edinimi üzerindeki potansiyel etkisini araştırmaktadır. İstanbul'daki bir üniversitede üç sınıfta bulunan otuz altı dil öğrencisinden iki deney grubu ve bir kontrol grubu oluşturulmuş ve hedef dilin kullanımını gerekli kılan iletişimsel çalışmalar uygulanmıştır. Açık biçimlendirme, önce hatalı cümleyi tekrarlayıp ardından vurgu ve tonlama gibi parçaüstü özellikleri kullanarak biçimlendirmenin düzeltici etkisini ortaya çıkaracak bir şekilde uygulanmıştır. Sadece çıktıya dayalı yönlendiriciler tekrarlama ve çıkarım olarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Verilerin analizi, açık biçimlendirme grubunda yer alan katılımcıların birinci sözel testte belirgin bir farklılık, gecikmiş ikinci testte ise daha az düzeyde bir farklılık sağladığını ortaya koymuştur. Bulgular, biçimlendirmenin belirgin bir şekilde uygulanmasının, dil yapılarının edinim süreci üzerinde olumlu bir etki yaratabileceğini ve bunların en azından bazı İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği bağlamlarda sadece çıktıya dayalı yönlendiricilerden daha yararlı olabileceğini göstermiştir.
Anahtar Sözcükler: Düzeltici dönüt, açık biçimlendirme, düzeltici biçimlendirme, sadece çıktıya dayalı yönlendirici, İngilizce üçüncü tekil şahıs '-s'

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1. INTRODUCTION

The upsurge of communicative language teaching was a paradigm shift in terms of primacy given to meaning and form (Richard and Rodgers, 2001). The earlier traditional methods took a bottom-up approach to teaching and learning languages. The focus of classroom activities was primarily on teaching language elements, be it grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, and the ability to communicate was hoped to occur as a natural consequence of knowing these elements. The communicative approach, however, took a top-down approach in that it changed the main focus of language classes from learning language features, to learning how to communicate. The acquisition of language elements, therefore, relegated to a secondary position, assuming that it will ensue as a corollary to communication. The route and destination started to merge (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011) as it was claimed that the best way to learn a new language was to use it for real life communication.

Despite its appealing learning philosophy, communicative-based classes, however, failed to produce the desired outcome, at least as far as the acquisition of language structures were concerned. Language learners in these classes usually displayed a considerable amount of oral fluency, but they often fell short of producing grammatically accurate sentences (Spada and Lightbown, 2009). Obviously, language production by itself could not fully take care of learners' underdeveloped linguistic competence. The importance of drawing learners' attention to formal properties of language in a more explicit way once again became a focal point for researchers and language teachers. This time, however, the key issue was how this could be achieved without reverting to the so-called traditional grammar teaching methods.

In a quest for incorporating a form-focus instruction into meaning-focused language classes, Long (1998) contended that it is possible to temporarily switch learners' attention from meaning to language features as the need for such changes of focus arises out of communicative tasks. The momentary time-outs could provide learners with an opportunity to process the language for its formal properties while the primary goal of communication is still sustained. One way to achieve this is through corrective feedback (CF), a response to learners' language production indicating that, all or parts of it, is problematic. The present study aims to investigate the effectiveness of two types of CF strategies in changing learners' linguistic competence of L2 structures. It tries to find out whether these strategies can assist learners to move forward in their L2 acquisition process.

2. BACKGROUND

2.1. Recasts and Prompts

Of the different types of CF techniques, recasts are the most preferred discoursal move especially in communicative classes (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2004), mainly because they create the least amount of interruption in the flow of conversation. In a report of language classes in different countries, Lyster, Sito and Saito (2013) noted that in 7 out of 12 different learning contexts, recasts were the most frequently used CF technique. A major theoretical support for the effectiveness of recasts comes from the interactional hypothesis where it is argued that recasts allow learners to conduct a cognitive comparison between their own erroneous statements and the correct forms provided by teachers or peers. Since recasts are the reformulation of what learners' originally intend to say, they are more likely to notice the existing gap and direct their cognitive resources to process the correct exemplar. Additionally, the implicit nature of correction applied through recasts is appealing to language teachers who are dealing with emotionally sensitive students who do not like to be corrected explicitly in front of others (Roothooft, 2014).

Recasts are usually compared with prompts. In prompts, the correct reformulation is withheld so that learners can self-repair their erroneous statements using their own knowledge of language. While recasts belong to 'input-providing' category of CF, prompts belong to 'output-pushing' category (Ellis, 2010). The most recognized types of prompts are: metalinguistic information, repetition, clarification request and elicitation. The theoretical support for prompts comes from different sources. It is argued that since learners are actively involved in the correction process, a more profound association is created in memory, which in turn leads to a deeper level of language learning (de Bot, 1996). Also, according to skill-based theory, the frequent access and retrieval of knowledge through meaningful practice in communicative contexts help learners proceduralize their existing declarative knowledge (DeKeyser, 1998), and gradually move from a slow and effortful use of language to a more fluent and automatic one. Furthermore, according to socio-cultural theory, prompts facilitates learners' transition alongside the zone of proximal development as they rely less on the correction made by other people and more on correction made by themselves i.e., a move from other-regulated processes to self-regulated ones (see Nassaji and Swain, 2000).

2.2. Classroom-based Studies Comparing Recasts with Prompts

The comparison between recasts and other different feedback moves has been the subject of both laboratory-based and classroom-based studies. The main pedagogical purpose behind these studies was to help language teachers equip themselves with feedback strategies that have the greatest positive impact on developing learners' linguistic grammatical competence. For the sake of relevance, the literature review of the present study is restricted to the classroom-based studies. Lyster (2004) investigated the effect of form focused instruction (FFI) accompanied by different feedback types (i.e. recasts and prompts) on learners' ability to assign the grammatical gender in French. The results of written and oral tests showed a significant improvement for all groups that received FFI. The posttest results exhibit a clear benefit of FFI accompanied by prompts over FFI accompanied by recasts especially on written measures.

Ammar and Spada (2006) compared the effect of recasts and prompts (operationalized as metalinguistic information, repetition and elicitation) on the acquisition of English possessive determiners for French native speakers in Canada. The findings showed that the benefits achieved from different feedback types were related to the proficiency level of the learners. Whereas the more proficient learners benefited equally from both prompts and recasts, the low-proficiency learners benefited significantly more from prompts than recasts.

Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) examined the effects of recasts and metalinguistic explanations on the acquisition of regular simple past '-ed' by ESL learners in New Zealand. Delayed posttest results revealed a considerable advantage for the group that received meta-linguistic explanations over the recast and control groups in language tests that measured implicit knowledge. Ellis (2007) extended the earlier study by comparing the effect of recasts and metalinguistic explanations on the acquisition of simple past '-ed' and comparative '-er'. Data analysis revealed an immediate effect for "-er" and delayed effect for "-ed" for the metalinguistic group on an elicited imitation test. No significant effect was found for the recast group.

Loewen and Nabei (2007) compared the effectiveness of three CF strategies, recasts, clarification requests and metalinguistic information, on Japanese EFL learners' acquisition of question making. The acquisition was measured through timed and untimed grammaticality judgement tests and oral production tasks. The results showed that the three experimental groups outperformed the no-feedback groups only on the timed grammaticality judgement test. Also, no significant differences were reported between different feedback strategies. The researchers ascribed the findings to the short duration of the treatment.

Yang and Lyster (2010) examined the effect of prompts (operationalized as metalinguistic clue, elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests) and recasts on the acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms with Chinese EFL university students. The findings showed that while prompts and recasts had similarly positive impacts on the acquisition of irregular past tense, prompts were more effective than recasts in the acquisition of regular past tense. Additionally, the effect size was large for all measures in the prompt group whereas it was large only for half of measures in the recast group.

Kartchava and Ammar (2014a) explored the effectiveness of three feedback strategies: recasts, prompts (operationalized as metalinguistic information, elicitation, and repetition) and mixed corrective feedback (half recasts and half prompts) on the acquisition of the past tense and question in the past by francophone students learning English in Canada. The findings showed no significant differences between the groups in terms of the acquisition of the target structures, even though the prompt and mixed CF group noticed the error correction more often than the recast group did.

Guchte and Braaksma (2015) compared the effect of recasts and prompts (operationalized as metalinguistic information followed by elicitation) on the acquisition of German dative and comparative by Dutch secondary students. The results showed that the prompt group significantly outperformed the recast and control groups on both oral and written measures. The findings also showed that, unlike prompts, the recasts' effectiveness was constrained by the structures under study. The effect of recasts was more noticeable with comparative than dative, especially on written measures. Overall, the results of the classroom-based studies mentioned above show that recasts, despite having a relatively positive effect on L2 development, might not always be as effective as prompting learners to do self-correction.

A point of caution is in order here. It is worth noting that in these studies, prompts were not operationalized as a monolithic construct and the number of prompt strategies used as independent variables varied considerably. In a majority of these studies, metalinguistic information was used either alone or in combination with other output-prompting feedback strategies. However, earlier research has already found rather decisive evidence for the efficacy of metalinguistic feedback (e.g. Carroll, 2001; Carroll and Swain, 1993; Chen, 1996; Ellis, 2007; Ellis *et al*., 2006; Nagata, 1998; Rosa and Leow, 2004; Sanz, 2004). It would be of interest to examine whether pushing learners to do self-correction, to the exclusion of meta-linguistic explanation, is equally effective. In a recent study, Li (2018) investigated this issue. She compared the effectiveness of recasts, with three output-only prompts (elicitation, clarification requests and repetition) in the acquisition of simple past and question making. The results revealed superior performance of recasts compared to output-only prompts. While recasts were effective regardless of individual differences, the effectiveness of output-only prompts was restricted to learners of lower level proficiency, lower anxiety levels and higher levels of orientation to error correction. The present study aims to further examine the effectiveness of prompts in the absence of metalinguistic clues.

2.3. Recasts and Explicitness

Even though recast is usually labelled as an implicit feedback strategy, research shows that a host of variables can interact and affect the corrective force of this feedback type. For example, recasts which are short, expressed by emphatic stress, and intensive (focused on a single error) can in fact become quite explicit (see, Egi, 2007; Lyster and Izquierdo, 2009; Philp, 2003). Suggestions are, therefore, made to consider recast, as a feedback technique with a varying degree of implicit and explicit force (Ellis and Sheen 2006; Sheen, 2006) as opposed to exclusively implicit feedback.

Although there is no consensus on which type of recast (implicit or explicit) is more effective, the recent trend in language teaching seems to favor more explicit recasts (Ellis and Sheen, 2006; Sheen, 2006) as they stand a higher chance of being noticed by language learners and submitted for future processing. However, as Sheen (2006) argues, the favoring of explicit recast is mostly theoretical and requires more empirical research. Interestingly, the number of studies that have examined the effectiveness of explicit recasts is quite limited.

In an earlier study, Doughty and Varela (1998) employed recasts in an overtly explicit way, using intonation and emphatic stress (hence, called corrective recast) and found considerable amount of improvement on learners' performance on oral measures. However, since in their study recasts and prompts were provided in a rather mixed manner, i.e., recasts were provided only after initial prompts failed to produce the correct form, it was difficult to decide if the effectiveness of feedback could be exclusively ascribed to the explicitness of recasts or to prompting learners to do self-correction.

Nassaji (2009) compared the effectiveness of four different types of CF, implicit and explicit recasts and implicit and explicit prompts, on the incidental acquisition of language structures. Implicit recasts were operationalized as the reformulation of the whole sentence with no additional stress or intonation, while explicit recasts were operationalized as isolated errors with additional stress and intonation. Implicit prompts were operationalized as clarification and repetition without additional stress, and explicit prompts were operationalized as repetition with added stress or extra meta-linguistic information. The findings showed that the learners who received their feedback in an explicit manner, i.e., both explicit recasts and explicit prompts, were able to do more self-correction after the treatment sessions, than those who received implicit feedback.

Chen (2010) also investigated the effect of implicit and explicit recasts on the acquisition of English plural '-s'. The explicit recasts were stressed, partial and contained only one change whereas implicit recasts were unstressed, full and contained more than one change. The findings showed that the explicit recast group significantly outperformed the implicit recast and control groups on grammaticality judgment and metalinguistic tests. Erlam and Loewen (2010) in a laboratory-based study investigated the effect of implicit recast (operationalized as recasts with integrated intonation) and explicit recasts (operationalized as recasts with multiple moves) on the acquisition of noun-adjective agreement in French in a lab setting. The findings showed no significant advantage for the explicit recasts over the implicit recasts.

Yongbin (2015) examined the effect of corrective recasts (operationalized as repetition followed by recasting with emphatic stress) and implicit recasts (operationalized as the reformulation of the entire utterance containing the error) on the acquisition of English third person '-s' and embedded questions. While explicit recasts had significant impact on learners' both implicit and explicit knowledge, the positive effect of implicit recasts was restricted to their explicit knowledge only. Additionally, explicit recasts were effective with both medium and high proficiency learners whereas implicit recasts were only effective with high proficiency learners. The researcher interpreted the findings as the supremacy of corrective recasts over implicit recasts. Overall, the findings of above-mentioned studies suggest that explicitness is likely to contribute to the effectiveness of recasts.

Two points are worth mentioning here. First, as stated above, the bulk of classroom-based comparative studies testify to the greater effectiveness of prompts over recasts. It is important to note that recasts in these studies, even though not operationalized as a unitary construct, were usually labeled as implicit CF. Comparative studies in which recasts are operationalized in an overtly explicit manner and compared with output-prompting feedback techniques can help researchers with their quest for CF strategies that have greatest impact on the acquisition process. Second, the classroom-based studies that attested to the effectiveness of explicit recasts

are mainly restricted to ESL settings where learners had access to the positive evidence outside their language classes (e.g. Doughty and Varela, 1998; Nassaji, 2009 and Yongbin, 2015). Research needs to further investigate whether explicit recasts are equally effective in EFL contexts where learners' do not have the chance to consolidate their linguistic knowledge outside of language classes and benefit from their raised awareness towards L2 structure. In light of the argument mentioned above the following research question is raised: What kind of corrective feedback (output-only prompts or corrective recasts) is more effective in helping language learners develop their explicit and implicit knowledge of L2 structure in an EFL context?

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants and Settings

The experiment was conducted in the prep school of a University in Istanbul. Learners were undertaking an intensive summer program where they received language instruction on academic English 24 hours per week. All of the learners attending the summer school had already failed to achieve the passing mark of 70 assigned by the school during the fall semester and had to take extra classes. Thirty-six volunteers, twenty males and nineteen females, from three intact classes were chosen for the study. The age range varied between 18 and 24. Except for two participants who were from Azerbaijan and Bosnia, the rest were Turkish. The classes were chosen based on the mean scores of learners on previous achievement exams and the suggestions of some instructors. The proficiency levels of the students were at pre-intermediate level based on the opinion of the teaching staff. The three groups were randomly assigned into two experimental groups and a control group each having twelve participants. However, the data related to four learners who did not attend one of the posttest sessions of the oral production tasks (one participant from the prompt group one participant from the recast group and two from the control group) were excluded from the data analysis of oral measures.

3.2. Target Structure

The grammatical structure targeted in the study was simple present third person '-s'. According to Ellis (2005), third person '-s' is a difficult language structure as far as the implicit knowledge is concerned. Despite its simple structure, the use of this morpheme especially in time-restricted situation has proved problematic even for advanced learners. Goldschneider and Dekesyer (2001) showed that third person '-s' had the lowest accuracy mean in nine out of twelve English morpheme studies. According to processibility theory, the correct use of this structure requires exchanging information between different phrases, which is acquired late in the acquisition process (Pienemann, 1998). Furthermore, third person is a redundant structure; learners are likely to get their message across despite their failure to use third person '-s' correctly.

3.3. Instructional Procedure

Three treatment sessions of 30 to 45 minutes were run with two or three-day intervals between each session for the three participating groups. The feedback sessions for all three groups were conducted by one of the researchers of the study. The subjects in each group undertook communicative tasks in which their focus was mainly on meaning, and they had some clear objectives to achieve. A total of six stories, two for each treatment session, were used in the study. In each session, learners were paired and each received one of the two stories used for each task. They were required to read their texts, tell their story to their neighbors and jointly work out task objectives. At the end of each task, the researcher asked learners to collectively retell the story to the whole class, and express their ideas about the follow-up questions. Learners were not allowed to refer to the text once retelling the story to the whole

class. All texts were written in simple present first person singular, but learners were required to use third person singular while telling it to their peers and to the class.

Two different types of corrective feedback, explicit recasts and output-only prompts, were given to the participants in the experimental groups when their utterances contained deviant use of the target structure. Following Doughty and Varela (1998), learners' erroneous utterances in the explicit recast group were corrected at two consecutive stages. In the first phase, learners' erroneous sentences were repeated using emphatic stress and rising intonation where the deviant parts existed. In the second phase, which immediately followed the first one, learners' utterances were reformulated using falling intonation, and again adding stress to the verb. The difference between Doughty and Varela's recasts and the ones used in the present study was that in their study there was a time interval between the first and second phases, that is, between the repetition and the recast. This was used to prompt learners to initiate self-correction. No such time intervals were used in the corrective recasts of the present study since the primary objective was to compare the teachers' correction with the learner-generated one. Following Doughty and Varela (1998) the term corrective recast was used to specify the operationalization of explicit recasts. An example of the type of correction made in the explicit recast group is presented below:

1)   L: he check students' homework and then=
        R: =he **check**> their homework. He checks< their homework

Key: = signifies overlapping elements; bold font signifies stress; > signifies rising intonation; < signifies falling intonation; L = learner; R = researcher; L2 = another learner

As for the output-only prompts, two corrective feedback techniques (repetition and elicitation) were used to push learners to perform self-correction. The term 'output-only prompts' was borrowed from Li (2018) to indicate that no explicit positive evidence was provided through metalinguistic clues. In this group learners' erroneous utterances were repeated with emphatic stress and rising intonation making the existence of errors clear to them. This usually happened two or three times with time intervals between each repetition (see example 2 below). Sometimes, however, repetition was followed by elicitation in which the researcher made a pause at the part of the sentence that needed correction so that the learners would fill in the blank with their own words (see example 3 below). In both cases it was hoped that learners would notice the existence of the ill-formed structure and use their own language resources to do the correction.

2)   L: And her sister help him to clean the house=
        R: =Her sister **help**> him, she **help**> him?
        L: She helps him.

3)   L: He think this is right=
        R: =He **think**> this is right? He> …….?
        L: Thinks.

Clarification request and meta-linguistic explanation were not included in the prompts feedback. Following the suggestion of Ammar and Spada (2006), clarification request was excluded because it was assumed to be ambiguous i.e., learners may fail to realize the corrective purpose of the CF and mistake it for teachers' responses to meaning rather than form (Chaudron, 1977). Clarification request also proved to produce the least amount of learners' repair in previous studies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Meta-linguistic feedback was excluded from the prompt moves because as mentioned earlier, this feedback type has already proved one of the most effective CF strategies and one of the objectives of the study was to investigate the effectiveness of prompts to the exclusion of this feedback move. The CF used in the study

groups, though primarily addressed to the speakers who had made the errors, was carried out in a way that involved the whole class. The control group of the study did not receive any feedback on the target structure. Feedback, when provided, was directed towards learners' phonological and lexical errors.

3.4. Testing Instruments

Learners' knowledge of the target structure was measured prior to the instructions, immediately after the instructions and 10 days later. Two language tests, an Untimed Grammaticality Judgment Test (UGJT) and oral narration task, were employed in the study. According to Ellis (2005), UGJT and oral narration tasks are likely measures of explicit and implicit knowledge respectively. The UGJT consisted of 45 sentences 14 of them targeted the third person '-s' and the others targeted other structures. Of the 14 sentences targeting the third person '-s', 7 were grammatically correct and 7 were incorrect (see Appendix 1).

Learners were supposed to choose whether they believed the sentence was definitely correct, probably correct, definitely incorrect, probably incorrect, or they were not sure about them, and then correct the incorrect sentences. To actualize the second step, learners were informed that the incorrect sentences had only one grammatical mistake, and there were no vocabulary or spelling errors. They were also allowed to ask for the meaning of all the words that they did not know. Each sentence was presented on a separate answer sheet and learners were asked to answer them one at a time. Learners took their time and answered the questions at their own pace, but once they were done with a question, they could not return and correct their mistakes. For posttests, minor changes were applied to the names and places of some pretest items. The sentences were then randomly scrambled to create two different versions of posttests.

Oral narrative tasks were used to measure the changes in the implicit knowledge of learners. The type of the materials used in the oral narration tasks was more or less similar to the materials used in the treatment sessions. Three different texts were written about the daily life of three ordinary characters. All three stories were written in simple present first person singular; however, as it was the case with the treatment sessions, learners were supposed to read and retell the story in third person singular. This made the use of the target language structure mandatory and reduced the effect of rote memorization. To help learners remember the stories, at the end of each text a chronological list of important events was included (see Appendix 2).

Learners were given roughly 5 minutes to read the text and prepare for the narration. The text was then withdrawn and learners were required to retell the stories from memory. To add to the spontaneity of the tasks, learners were not informed of the shift in the narration of the stories while they were preparing. The oral tasks were conducted in the form of interviews in which prompt questions were employed to make the participants remember the parts that they may have forgotten. The question-answer design of the tasks added to the spontaneity of the task, increased the likelihood of using implicit knowledge by test takers, and the number of obligatory occasions for the production of the target structure. Each interview session took roughly 10 minutes to complete, and learners' responses were recorded on a personal computer in an office. Inter-rater reliability of two independent coders for 20% of the pretest scores was 91%.

3.5. Scoring Decision

Separate percentage of accuracy scores were calculated for the 7 grammatical and 7 ungrammatical sentences targeting third person '-s'. Learners' responses were scored as either correct (1 point) or incorrect (0 point). For the 7 correct sentences learners who indicated the sentence as either "absolutely correct" or "probably correct" received 1 point. As already mentioned, the UGJT used in the current study had an additional element of asking for the correction of the ungrammatical items. Learners' incorrect responses to the correct sentences

were also granted points if they indicated that mistakes had happened in places other than with the verbs. For example, if a learner marked sentence 4 below as incorrect and attempted to correct it by changing the article "A" into "The" (as in sentence 5), then a score would be granted since the learner did not consider the use of third person '-s' as a mistake. For the incorrect sentences learners receive one point if they indicated that the sentences were absolutely incorrect or probably incorrect, and corrected the incorrect parts as well. Cronbach's alpha reliability value for 14 items of the UGJT on the pretest was 0.64.

4)   A plane flies from here to London every Fridays.
5)   The plane flies from here to London every Fridays

For the oral narration task, accuracy ratio was used. Learners' production of third person '-s' first scored for the correct use. This score then became the numerator of a ratio whose denominator was the sum of the correct and incorrect use of the target structure. Learners' scores on both the UGJT and oral narration were calculated in percentages.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. The UGJT

Descriptive statistics for the UGJT showed a moderate level of accuracy on the pretest for the total items. The accuracy mean was 61%, 51%, and 55% for the prompt, corrective recast and control groups respectively (see Table 1). The mean accuracy scores of all groups increased on the immediate posttest, and to a lesser extent on the delayed posttest. The upward trend was mainly for the prompt group though. It is also noticeable that the successful performance of learners was mostly reflected on the grammatical rather than ungrammatical items.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for UGJT

Groups	Pretest		Posttest 1		Posttest 2	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Output-only prompts						
Grammatical	0.857	0.137	0.867	0.211	0.928	0.143
Ungrammatical	0.368	0.325	0.546	0.360	0.656	0.281
Total	0.612	0.151	0.702	0.248	0.790	0.190
Corrective recast						
Grammatical	0.690	0.200	0.810	0.230	0.798	0.246
Ungrammatical	0.332	0.185	0.463	0.244	0.511	0.268
Total	0.509	0.146	0.635	0.190	0.651	0.204
Control						
Grammatical	0.761	0.247	0.833	0.135	0.821	0.184
Ungrammatical	0.345	0.275	0.452	0.338	0.428	0.318
Total	0.555	0.237	0.640	0.206	0.618	0.269

A test of ANOVA was run on the UGJT pretest scores to find out whether the groups were comparable. No statistically significant differences were found for the different components of the UGJT; $F (2, 36) = 2.109$, $p = .137$, $F (2, 36) = 0.053$, $p = .948$, $F (2, 36) = 0.917$, $p = .41$ for the grammatical, ungrammatical and total UGJT items respectively. Repeated measures of ANOVAs revealed significant time effect for the grammatical, ungrammatical and total items ($F (2, 32) = 3.367$, $p = .047$, $F (2, 32) = 8.556$, $p = .001$, $F (2, 32) = 11.946$, $p = .000$, respectively). However, there was neither a significant group effect ($F (2, 33) = 1.486$, $p = .241$, $F(2, 33)= 0.626$ $p = .541$, $F(2, 33) = 1.205$, $p= .312$) nor a group × time effect for the grammatical, ungrammatical and total items of the UGJT ($F(4, 64)= 0.695$, $p =.598$, $F (4, 64)= 0.786$, $p = . 538$, $F (4, 64) = 0.873$, $p = .485$, respectively).

4.2. Oral Narration Results

The descriptive statistics for the performance of learners on oral measures on the pretests showed that the mean score of the control group was higher than the prompt and corrective recast groups (M= 54% for the control group and $M = 40$%, and $M = 34$% for the prompt and corrective recast group respectively, see Table 2). The mean scores of both experimental groups, however, surpassed that of the control group in the immediate posttest with the corrective recast group showing a better performance over the other two groups. The ascending trend of both experimental groups in the delayed posttest was maintained although a similar trend of mean increase was observed in the control group as well.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for oral narrative task

	Pretest		Posttest 1		Posttest 2	
Groups	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Output-only prompts	0.405	0.337	0.550	0.275	0.575	0.320
Corrective recasts	0.344	0.294	0.620	0.222	0.762	0.120
Control	0.542	0.270	0.512	0.265	0.609	0.301

To find out whether the effect of the instructional intervention was significant, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run on the posttest data using learners' pretest scores as the covariate. The decision to use ANCOVA was made based on the assumption that learners' prior knowledge of the target structure may facilitate the noticeability of the corrective intent of CF, and thereby mediates with its effectiveness (see also Ammar and Spada, 2006; Sato and Loewen, 2018). ANCOVA results revealed a significant mean difference between groups in the immediate posttest, F (2, 32) = 3.887, p = .032, Post hoc Tukey pairwise comparison showed that the corrective recast group significantly outperformed the control group. No statistically significant differences were observed between the prompt and the control group or the prompt and the corrective recast group. ANCOVA run on the delayed posttest revealed that the mean differences between the groups tended towards significance; F (2, 32) = 3.112, p = .060. Mean comparison also showed a medium and a large effect size from pretest to immediate posttest for the prompt and corrective recast groups (d = 0.47, d = 1.05, respectively). A small and near-large effect size was recorded from the immediate to the delayed posttest for the prompt and corrective recast groups (d = 0.08, d = 0.79, respectively). A small effect size was recorded from the immediate to the delayed posttest for the control group as well (d = 0.34).
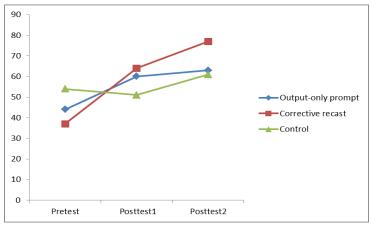

Figure 1. Mean comparison of experimental and control groups

Figure 1 shows the comparison between the performance of the three participating groups on the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest. It reveals that the corrective recast group exhibits a steadier line of improvement than the other groups. The mean score of the participants of this group increased constantly with time. The prompt group also revealed some degree of increase in their mean score in the immediate posttest. However, its rising trend was

considerably reduced on the delayed posttest, making the difference between the performance of this group and the control group less noticeable.

5. DISCUSSION

The research question asked what kind of corrective feedback (output-only prompts or corrective recasts) is more effective in helping EFL learners develop their explicit and implicit knowledge of the third person singular '-s'. To detect possible changes in the explicit knowledge of learners, their performance on the UGJT for the three testing stages was compared. The results showed that there were no significant mean differences among the three participating groups. In other words, CF regardless of type, had no significant effect on learners' explicit knowledge of the target structure. The findings echoed the results of Ellis, *et al.* (2006) and Ellis (2007) in which neither prompts nor recasts were statistically effective in changing learners' explicit knowledge of simple past tense and comparative '-er'.

The possible explanation for the UGJT results lies in the learners' prior knowledge of this structure. The participants of the study had already had a record of receiving ample instruction on simple present tense both at high school and during their nine-month instruction at the preparatory school. For example, as Table 1 showed, learners' performance on the grammatical items of UGJT was at the ceiling level before the experiment had started. The prompt, corrective recast and control group scored 85%, 69% and 76% on the grammatical items respectively. That is why even when the score of the prompt group increased to 93% in the delayed posttest, no significant among-group differences were recorded.

To detect possible effects of corrective feedback on the implicit knowledge of learners, oral narration tasks were used. As the results of data analysis showed, the differences between the mean scores of the participating groups reached significance on the immediate posttest, and the corrective recast group significantly outperformed the control group. The differences between the accuracy scores of the prompt group and control group, on the other hand, never reached significance in both the immediate and delayed posttest. Our findings are in line with those of Li (2018) where learners benefited more from recasts than output-only prompts. However, they contradict with the majority of classroom-based comparative studies where prompts were proved more effective than recasts.

How can we account for the efficiency of recasts in the immediate posttest? The answer may lie in the explicitness with which recasts were operationalized in the current study. As Lyster (1998) argued, the role of recasts in language classes is usually ambiguous. It is not always used for the sole purpose of correcting learners' errors, and at times, teachers use recasts to fulfill a dual function of asking or providing additional information as well as offering correction. Moreover, non-corrective repetition is used in almost the same proportion and follows the same functional pattern as recasts, making it difficult for learners to differentiate between them. Even if when learners succeed to perceive teachers' recasts as corrective, they may not be able to decide what language area, syntax, semantic or phonology, is addressed by teachers (Mackey, Gass and McDonough, 2000).

To avoid the inherent ambiguity of recasts, in the present study, steps were taken to make their corrective force salient. The repetition of learners' utterances with supra-segmental manipulation over erroneous verbs sent a clear signal to learners that they had made an error. It also indicated where the errors were located. Furthermore, the likelihood that learners would interpret the provided corrections as teacher's comments on the content of messages, that is, semantic feedback, was also eliminated as the instructor immediately supplied the correct exemplars with falling intonation and emphatic stress on the verbs again. Learners thus managed to map their deviant structures with those of instructor's. The recasts turned out to be effective. Our findings echoed those of Chen (2010), Doughty and Varela (1998), Nassaji

(2009) and Yongbin (2015) where it was found that explicitness can enhance recast effectiveness.

The effectiveness of corrective recasts can also be attributed to the type of language evidence that learners were provided with. As mentioned earlier, the recasts in this study consisted of repetition plus recast. Such response to learners' errors provided both negative and positive evidence for L2 learners; repetition provided negative evidence by indicating that something had gone wrong, and the follow-up recast provided the positive evidence by offering the correct form. The mixed type of evidence inherent in the corrective recasts appeared to be more effective than output-only prompts that only sent negative evidence.

As for the relatively weaker performance of the prompt group compared to the corrective recast group, several other reasons can be offered. First, our prompt group lacked one of the most explicit types of CF moves i.e. meta-linguistic explanations. The lack of this explicit feedback strategy made the nature of the errors unobtrusive, especially for the less proficient learners. In the absence of meta-linguistic clues, these learners might have recognized the locus of their errors but failed to realize the source and nature of them. The importance of meta-linguistic information is especially noticeable in meaning-oriented classes where learners' attention is channeled towards communication, and as results, they are left with few mental resources to process language forms. In one of the treatment session of the prompt group, for example, overall 15 instances of erroneous use of the target language were recorded. Judging from the audio tape, it appeared that only in five of these instances the researcher's feedback resulted in learners' self-correction. In two third of the time, teachers' prompts lead to peer-initiated correction. Example 4 and 5 below show how peer correction occurred. In example 4, the storyteller's lengthy pause created the time lapse for the second learner to intervene and conduct the correction. In example 5, the storyteller considered the researcher's feedback as a response to the content of the message thereby creating the opportunity for the second learner to do the correction. In this sense, prompts, at least the way they were actualized in this study, may not always lead into discovery-based processes as it was suggested by Lyster (1998).

4)   L1:   She hate people=
          R: =She **hate**> people?
          L1:   ………..(silence)
          L2:   She hates people.

5)   L1:   She play tennis in her free time and=
          R: =She **play** > tennis??? She >....?
          L1:   Yes, she play tennis teacher=
          L2:   =She **plays** tennis.

Second, the efficacy of CF can also be examined from a psycholinguistic perspective as well. Despite its positive impact on the acquisition process, noticing, by itself, does not guarantee a change in learners' linguistic competence. As Ellis (2010) argues, the acquisition of L2 elements requires learners' positive affective responses as well as cognitive ones. To ensure that in-depth processing of the target structure occurs, learners should be made aware of both the corrective force of feedback and the fact that the error needs to be attended to and processed. Kartchava and Ammar (2014b), for example, found a positive correlation between learners' noticing of CF and their belief of the importance of error correction. Although the decision over the importance or lack of importance of accuracy is something that learners make on their own, this does not mean that instructors have no role to play in it. The different discoursal moves and paralinguistic information accompanying CF can send various signals to learners. A teacher's swift shift of focus from language form to meaning in a communicative task could transmit equivocal messages to learners. They may get the incorrect perception that their errors are not in

fact important and could be overlooked in the first place. On the other hand, when teachers make a lengthy pause for an error and reformulate the erroneous part with an emphatic stress, it may send additional messages, besides the linguistic one, to learners that the error is important and requires their attention. The prompt group in our study apparently failed to receive this message as strongly as the explicit recast group did, and therefore, may not have ascribed much importance to their errors. Further studies are required to examine how CF effectiveness is mediated by learners' attitude towards error correction in general, and how teachers can manipulate learners' perception of CF in a positive way (see for example, Sato & Loewen, 2018).

Third, the effectiveness of CF may also have been related to CF preference of learners and cultural variables. The possibility existed that the participants of the study, whose earlier education in the secondary school was mainly grammar-based, had developed a preference for feedback strategies that were semantically more transparent and provided opportunities for the cognitive mapping of their erroneous production with correct exemplars (Long, 1996, 2007). Li (2018), for example, argued that Chinese learners' cultural value for repetition allowed them to benefit more from recasts than prompts. The former apparently provided the opportunities for a private repetition whereas the latter did not. Akiyama (2017), also, found that learners conducted more successful uptake when they received their favorable types of CF. The interaction between CF types, cultural factors and learners' preference is another area awaiting further research.

The posttest results revealed that the superior performance of learners in the corrective recast group on the oral narration immediate posttest was not fully carried over to the delayed posttest. The mean difference between corrective recasts and control group only approached significance. Several factors could affect this outcome. First, the inherent learning difficulty of the target structure may have undermined the effectiveness of feedback. Dekeyser (2005), for example, argues that the fact that in third person '-s' a single morpheme is used to express three different meanings (singular, third person, and present tense) makes this structure difficult to use. Drawing on Pienemann (1998) learning third person '-s' is difficult since it requires making the right connection between subjects and verbs. Ellis (2005) noted that when learners are under time pressure and their focus is on meaning, the accurate use of this structure is not much expected. Second, the so-called input-poor context, in which the experiment was conducted, could be the other reason. The fact that the experiment was carried out in an EFL setting where learners did not have much exposure to the target language outside their language classes may have had a negative impact on the final results. Third, the length of the instructional intervention might be another factor at work. Three treatment sessions with the total instructional intervention of two hours may not have been long enough to bring changes in the interlanguage of learners. Other studies also show that the length of instruction may be a decisive variable. For example Erlam and Loewen (2010) applied one-hour of CF instruction and Kartchava and Ammar's (2014a) feedback sessions took only two hours and none of these studies found a positive effect for CF on the acquisition process.

Overall, however, the fact that the mean score of the corrective recast group kept its upward trend between the two posttests (the effect size of corrective recast group was close to large from the immediate posttest to delayed posttest d = 0.79) and the mean score of the prompt group never experienced a downward trend, implies that both experimental groups might have benefited from a longer instruction.

6. CONCLUSION

Lyster (1998) in his earlier conclusion of the CF studies stated that "recasts may be beneficial when the learners' attention is intentionally drawn to the corrective reformulation"

(p.73). Similarly, Sheen (2006) suggested that "the more explicit recasts are, the more potentially salient they become and thus the more effective they are likely to be" (p. 367). Our findings, at least as far as the short-run effect is concerned, offered some evidence in support of these claims. They revealed that recasts once actualized in an explicit manner can be an effective feedback strategy. The findings also suggested that contrary to the current research results, prompting learners to conduct self-correction is not necessarily more effective than recasting, and that at least in some EFL contexts, explicit recasts might even be more beneficial than output-only prompts.

The mixed nature of operationalization of corrective recast in the present study (i.e. repetition followed by recast) also suggested that the most effective CF strategies might be the ones that are offered in a combined manner, where both negative and positive evidence is provided simultaneously. Further classroom-based research can be designed to examine the effectiveness of different combinations of CF. Observational studies, for example, can discover the teachers' most common used patterns of interactional moves between input-providing and output-prompting CF in language classes and their effectiveness. Studies can be designed to examine whether the negotiated feedback, for example, the ones that gradually move from indirect feedback towards direct one (Nassaji, 2016), is more effective than the none-negotiated one, like the ones used in the present study. In the long run, the findings of the study underscored the importance of structural difficulties suggesting that some language features are more difficult to learn, and may require more prolonged instruction. Future studies may also investigate whether the amount and intensity of CF make a difference in learning language elements with various structural difficulties.

The study has several limitations. First, the choice of third person singular as the target structure limited the examination of the effectiveness of CF to implicit knowledge only. As mentioned earlier, learners' earlier primary and secondary education had led them to develop a ceiling level of explicit knowledge before the onset of the study. A different language feature, passive tense for instance, may have allowed investigating the effectiveness of CF on both implicit and explicit knowledge. Second, of six recordings of the treatment sessions in the experimental groups, three were damaged and became unusable. A better picture of what went on during the instructional intervention could have been achieved if the recordings remained intact. Third, the small scale of the participants restricted the generalizability of the findings and increased the likelihood that the results might have been affected by learners' personal attitude towards feedback. Finally, a questionnaire or an interview at the end of the study could have provided some information regarding learners' awareness of or/and attitude towards the error correction. Despite these limitations, however, it is hoped that the findings of the present study would shed light on the role of CF in the acquisition process, and the way a healthy balance can be struck between form and meaning in language classes.

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Geniş Özet

Biçimlendirme en yaygın kullanılan düzeltici dönüt (CF) stratejilerinden biridir. Genelde örtük olarak adlandırılsa da, bu düzeltici dönütün açık/örtük gücünün dilbilimsel ve dilbilimsel olmayan değişkenlere bağlı olarak önemli ölçüde değişebileceği konusunda görüş birliği vardır. Örneğin, pekiştirme vurgusunun kullanılması, bu dönütün düzeltici gücünü oldukça belirgin hale getirebilir. Açık biçimlendirmelerin etkinliği lehine kuramsal destek olmasına rağmen, bu konuda özellikle denek sayısı oldukça sınırlı olan sınıf ortamında yapılmış deneysel çalışmalara yenilerinin de eklenmesine gereksinim

duyulmaktadır. Biçimlendirmeler girdi sağlayan düzeltici dönütlere örnek sayılırken, yönlendiriciler çıkış-itici düzeltici dönüte örnek teşkil etmektedirler. Karşılaştırmalı ikinci dil edinimi çalışmalarında, yönlendiricilerin biçimlendirmelere karşı göreceli etkinliğe sahip olduğuyla ilgili deneysel çalışmalar bu anlamda destek sunmaktadır. Bu araştırmalar öğrencilerin kendi kaynaklarını kullanmaya yönlendirilmeleri ve öğrenecekleri yapıları belleklerinden sürekli geri getirmeleri şeklinde düzenlenmiş yönlendiricilerin edinim sürecinde biçimlendirmelerden daha etkili düzeltici dönütler olduklarını orta koymuştur. Bununla birlikte, yönlendiricilerin yekpare bir yapı olarak işlevselleştirilmediklerini ve bağımsız değişkenler olarak kullanılan yönlendirici stratejilerin sayısının önemli ölçüde değiştiğini de belirtmek gerekir. Örnek verecek olursak, karşılaştırmalı çalışmaların çoğunda yönlendiricileri temsil eden üstdilbilimsel bilgiler ya tek başlarına ya da diğer çıktı-istemi geri bildirim stratejileriyle birlikte kullanılmışlardır. Daha önceki araştırmaların üstdilbilimsel dönütün oldukça etkin olduğuna dair belirleyici kanıtlar bulmuş olmaları göz önüne alındığında, bu çalışma, üstdilbilimsel bilgilerin dışında diğer yönlendiricilerin öğrencilerin kendi kendilerini düzeltebilmeleri için eşit derecede etkili olup olamayacaklarını bulmayı amaçlamaktadır. Araştırmanın katılımcıları, İstanbul'daki bir üniversitenin İngilizce hazırlık okulunda bulunan üç ayrı sınıfta okuyan yirmisi erkek ve on dokuzu kız olan, otuz altı gönüllü öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Öğretim elemanlarının görüşlerine göre öğrencilerin dil yeterlik düzeyleri alt-orta düzeydedir. Üç sınıf, her grupta 12 şer öğrenci olmak üzere, rastgele iki deney ve bir kontrol grubu olarak düzenlenmiştir. Çalışmada hedeflenen dil bilgisel yapı İngilizce geniş zamanda kullanılan üçüncü tekil şahıs '-s' olarak belirlenmiştir. Katılımcı gruplar hedef yapının kullanımını gerekli kılan üç iletişim oturumuna katılmış ve her oturumda öğrenciler benzer bir prosedürü tamamlamışlar: aynı hikâyelerin farklı versiyonlarını okumuş, hikâyelerini önce yanlarında bulunan sınıf arkadaşlarına sonra da bütün sınıfa yeniden anlattmışlar ve daha sonra sorulan sorulara cevap vererek görüşlerini ifade etmişlerdir. Tüm metinler geniş zamanda birinci tekil şahıs diliyle yazılmıştır, ancak öğrenciler akranlarına ve sınıfa anlatırken geniş zamanın üçüncü tekil şahsını kullanmak zorunda bırakılmıştır. Deneklerin hedef yapıyı hatalı kullanmaları durumunda, deney gruplarındaki katılımcılara açık biçimlendirme ve sadece çıktıya dayalı yönlendirici olmak üzere iki farklı türde düzeltici dönüt verilmiştir. Biçimlendirme iki ardışık aşamada gerçekleştirilmiştir. İlk aşamada, öğrencilerin cümlelerindeki hatalar yükselen bir ses tonuyla hatalı kısımlara vurgu yapılarak tekrarlanmıştır. İlk aşamadan hemen sonra gelen ikinci aşamada, öğrencilerin ifadeleri düşen tonlama kullanılarak yeniden biçimlendirilmiş ve yine fiile vurgu eklenmiştir. Sadece çıktıya dayalı yönlendiriciler tekrarlama ve çıkartım biçiminde uygulanmıştır. Süresiz dilbilgisi karar verme testleri (UGJT) ve sözlü anlatım testi ilk kez, öğrencilerin uygulama oturumlarından hemen sonra ve ikinci kez uygulamalar bittikten on gün sonra hedef yapıdaki dilbilgisi değişimlerini ölçmek için kullanılmıştır. UGJT, 7 doğru ve 7 yanlış olmak üzere 14 yazılı maddeden oluşmuştur. Sözlü anlatım testi ise üç sıradan kişinin günlük hayatı hakkında yazılmış üç ayrı öyküden oluşmuştur. Her hikâye üç test oturumundan birinde kullanılmıştır. Bütün öyküler geniş zamanda birinci tekil şahıs olarak yazılmıştır; ancak, öğrencilerin bu hikâyeleri üçüncü tekil şahıs olarak okumaları ve anlatmaları istenmiştir. UGJT testi ve sözlü anlatım testi sırasıyla açık ve örtük bilginin ölçümlerinde kullanılmıştır. UGJT verileri üzerinde ANOVA testleri uygulanmış ve sonuçlar ne birinci ne de gecikmeli testlerde çalışma grupları arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. ANCOVA ise üç katılımcı grubun sözlü anlatım testinden elde ettikleri ortalamaları ön test puanlarını ortak değişken olarak ele alarak karşılaştırmıştır. Sonuç olarak birincil testteki gruplar arasında önemli farklılıklar ortaya çıkmış; $F(2, 32) = 3.887$, $p = 0.032$ ve bağlamda biçimlendirme grubunun kontrol grubundan anlamlı bir şekilde öne geçtiği gözlemlenmiştir. Ancak, çıktıya dayalı yönlendirici grup ve kontrol grubunun arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark görülmemiştir. Gecikmeli olarak yapılan ikinci testte, gruplar arasındaki ortalama farklılıkların sadece anlamlılığa doğru eğilimli olduğu tespit edilmiştir; $F(2, 32) = 3.112$, $p = 0.060$. Bulgular, açık biçimlendirmenin etkinliğini göstermekte olup, dilbilimsel manipülasyonların biçimlendirmenin belirginliğini ve fark edilebilirliğini artırabileceğini ve böylece ikinci dil özelliklerinin işlenme süreçlerini kolaylaştırabileceğinin bir kanıtıdır. Sonuçlar aynı zamanda, hem olumlu hem de olumsuz girdilerin biçimlendirme grubunda gerçekleştirildiği gibi bir araya getirilmiş bir şekilde sunulmasının dil edinimi üzerinde olumlu bir etkiye sahip olabileceğini göstermektedir. Ayrıca Türkiye gibi İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak kullanıldığı bazı bağlamlarda, açık biçimlendirmelerin sadece çıktıya dayalı yönlendiricilerden daha yararlı olabileceği değerlendirilmektedir. Uzun vadede, bulgular üçüncü tekil şahıs '-s' sinin yapısal zorluklarının altını çizerek bazı dil özelliklerinin düzeltici dönüte karşı daha dirençli olabileceğini ve daha uzun süreli bir öğretim desteğine ihtiyaç duyulabileceğini ileri sürmektedir.

Appendix A

Untimed Grammaticality Judgment Test

A. Grammatical items targeting third person '-s'

1. My sister works very hard.
2. Maria's friend speaks two foreign languages.
3. He is a professional football player, and makes a lot of money.
4. My mother's company pays her a lot of money.
5. Watching football on TV changes students' habits.
6. A plane flies from here to London every Friday.
7. A new research study shows that young men usually drive fast.

B. Ungrammatical items targeting third person '-s'

8. The computer in my office break down every week.
9. Our country need to spend more money on sports.
10. Rice grow better in a wet climate.
11. Studying in a foreign country cost a lot of money.
12. Tom's brother smoke cigarette when he has exams.
13. Our school bus is old and make a lot of noise.
14. Their dog bark terribly at nights.

Appendix B

An example of oral narrative tasks used in the testing sessions.

Read the following short story about the daily life of Lucy. You can use the words listed below to help you remember the story.

My name is Ferzana and I am a night sister in a hospital in London. I work eight nights on, six nights off from 9 p.m. to 8 a.m. I get an hour break to drink tea and coffee, which is very welcome about midnight when I start feeling a little sleepy.

Except for some small problems, the night shifts are ok. One of the problems is that when I finish my eight-night shifts, it usually takes me two or four days to get over it and get used to sleeping at night again. The other problem is the headache that I get from the lighting in the hospital.

During the day, my job is usually physical; I change beds, give medicine to the patients…etc. but at nights it changes into a psychological one. I talk with patients and listen to their life stories. This is, in fact, the happiest part of my job when I manage to win their trust and make them share their feelings with me.

The job has not created a lot of problems for me though. I share a flat in a hospital house with a nurse on different shifts so that we could work out shopping and cleaning between us. I do all my socializing in six days when I am not in duty. I go to the movies or play tennis with my friends. But I have asked my friends not to visit me before six o'clock because if I am going to do night work, I must get a good day's sleep. If I work hard, I may become a tutor and train nurses in the future. Who knows!

- Working hours
- Two problems at work
- Her job in the morning
- Her job at night
- Socializing
- Future plan