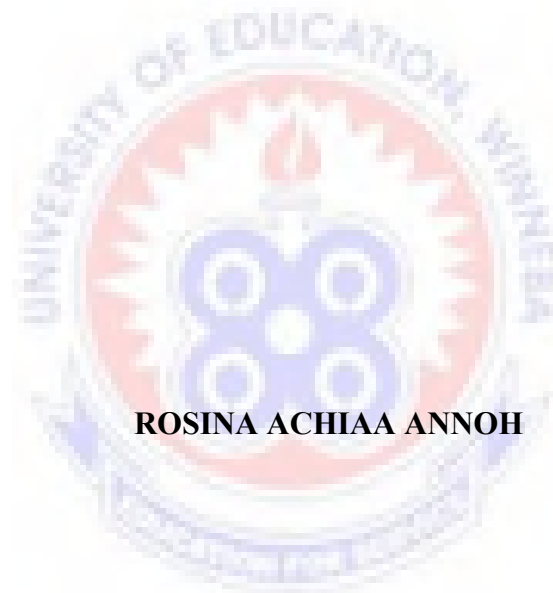


**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

**LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS OF RECASTS IN THE ESL CLASSROOM: A  
STUDY OF 3 SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE MAMPONG  
MUNICIPALITY, ASHANTI REGION**



**ROSINA ACHIAA ANNOH**

**2020**

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION WINNEBA**

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MUNICIPALITY, ASHANTI REGION**

**ROSINA ACHIAA ANNOH  
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**A thesis in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Foreign Languages  
Education and Communication, submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, in  
partial fulfilment**

**of the requirements for the award of the degree of  
Master of Philosophy  
(Teaching English as a Second Language)  
in the University of Education, Winneba**

**JULY, 2020**

## DECLARATION

### Student's Declaration

I, Rosina Achiaa Annoh, declare that this dissertation, aside the quotations and references contained in published works, which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work and it has not been submitted either in part or in whole for another degree elsewhere.

**Signature**.....

**Date** .....

### Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

**Name:** DR. CHARLOTTE FOFO LOMOTÉY

**Signature:** .....

**Date:** .....

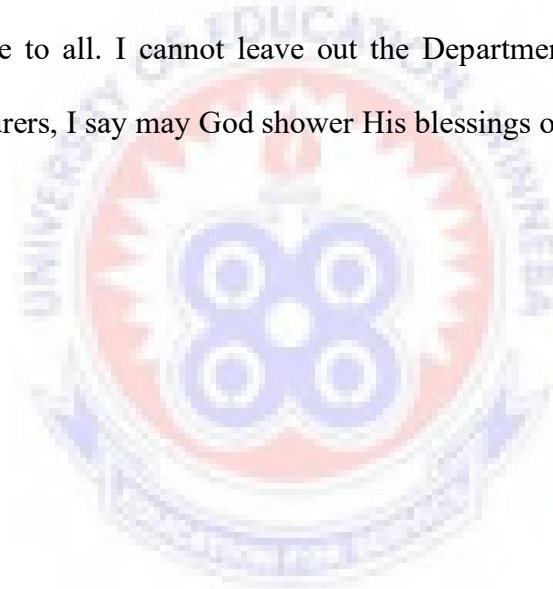
## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my husband Kwadwo Sarpong and my two wonderful children: Kwasi Nhyira Boampong Sarpong and Afia Agyemang Sarpong.



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

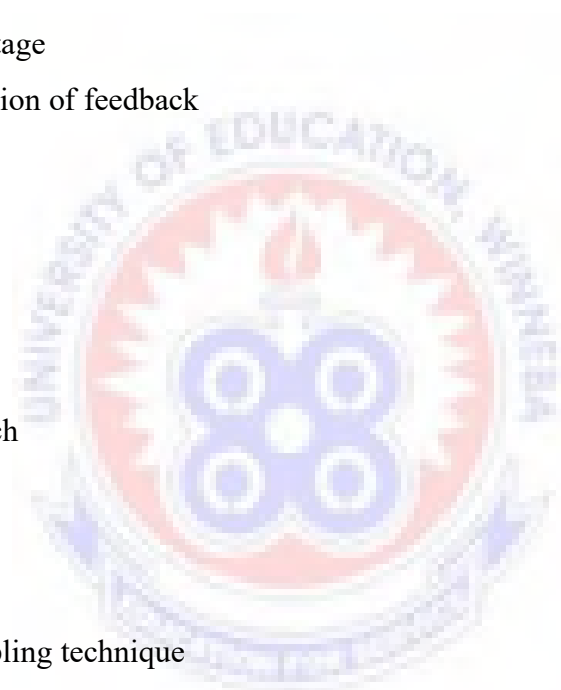
My never-ending thanks go to God almighty for the grace, strength, and knowledge He gave me throughout my study. The journey wasn't easy, but His grace has brought me thus far. To my superhero, mentor, mother, advisor, and above all my supervisor, Dr. Charlotte Fofom Lomotey, with whom my journey was guided well by her good counsel. Her zeal she put in for me to finish this work is beyond comprehension. The incessant corrections and suggestions have yielded a remarkable work which has made me dumbfounded. May the heavens open and pour out all your desires throughout your dealings. To the wonderful family, God has blessed me with, my mum and sibling; I say may the good Lord grant all your requests so you will continue to express love to all. I cannot leave out the Department of Applied Linguistics, Winneba, to all the lecturers, I say may God shower His blessings on you all.



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>Content</b>	<b>Page</b>
DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
TABLE OF CONTENT	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
ABSTRACT	ix
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Background to the study	1
1.1 Statement of the problem	3
1.2 Research objectives	4
1.3 Research questions	5
1.4 Significance of the study	5
1.5 Delimitation of the study	5
1.6 Organization of the study	5
1.7 Conclusion	6
CHAPTER TWO	7
LITERATURE REVIEW	7
2.0 Introduction	7
2.1 Corrective feedback in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)	7
2.1.1 Effectiveness of corrective feedback	8
2.2 Types of corrective feedback	10
2.2.1 Recast	10
2.2.1.1 Types of recast	14
2.2.1.1.1 Corrective recasts and non-corrective recasts	14
2.2.1.1.2 Full and partial recasts	15
2.2.1.1.3 Multi-move recasts and single-move recasts	15
2.2.1.1.4 Simple and complex recasts	16
2.2.1.1.5 Implicit recasts	16
2.2.1.1.6 Explicit recasts	18
2.2.2 Characteristics of recasts	20

2.2.2.1	The number of feedback moves	20
2.2.2.2	Prosodic cues	21
2.2.2.3	Number of changes and length of recast	21
2.2.2.4	Segmentation	22
2.2.2.5	Recasts and language acquisition	23
2.3	Prompts	25
2.4	Uptake	27
2.5	Conceptual framework: The process model of L2 motivation	30
2.5.1	Pre-actional stage	32
2.5.2	Actional stage	32
2.5.3	Post-actional stage	34
2.6	Students' perception of feedback	36
2.7	Related studies	40
2.8	Conclusion	47
CHAPTER THREE		49
METHODOLOGY		49
3.0	Introduction	49
3.1	Research approach	49
3.2	Research design	50
3.3	Population	50
3.4	Data source	50
3.5	Sample and sampling technique	51
3.5.1	Analysis of bio-data	51
3.6	Data collection instruments	52
3.6.1	Questionnaire	52
3.6.2	Interview	53
3.7	Data collection procedure	54
3.8	Data analysis	55
3.9	Ethical issues	56
3.10	Conclusion	57
CHAPTER FOUR		58
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION		58
4.0	Introduction	58
4.1	Learners' perceptions of particular types of recast	58



4.1.1	Students' views on recast by teachers	59
4.1.2	Frequency of recast by teachers	66
4.1.1.3	Summary	70
4.2	Attitudes toward recasts	70
4.2.1	Positive attitude towards recast	71
4.2.2	Negative attitude towards recast	75
4.2.3	Summary	78
4.3.1	Types of errors students want to receive recast	79
4.3.1.1	Grammatical errors	79
4.3.1.2	Lexical errors	81
4.3.1.3	Phonological error	83
4.3.2	Types of recast students prefer depending on the error they commit	85
4.3.2.1	Grammatical error	85
4.3.2.2	Phonological error	86
4.3.2.3	Lexical error	89
4.4	Extent to which learner perspectives on recast affect L2 motivation	90
4.4.1	Positive effects of recast to students	91
4.4.2	Motivation to learn English	92
4.4.3	Summary	90
4.5	Conclusion	95
CHAPTER FIVE		98
SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATION, AND CONCLUSION		98
5.0	Introduction	98
5.1	Summary of findings	98
5.1.1	Learners' perception of particular types of recasts	98
5.1.2	Students' attitudes toward recasts	99
5.1.3	Types of feedback learners prefer depending on the type of error students	
	make	100
5.2	The importance of recasts in the English language classroom	101
5.3	Pedagogical implications	102
5.4	Suggestions for future research	103
5.5	Conclusion	104
REFERENCES		105
APPENDI X		116



## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table</b>	<b>Page</b>
Table 3.5.1. Gender distribution of respondents	56
Table 4.1.1. Descriptive statistics of students' views of recast	63
Table 4.1.2. Frequency of recast by teachers	71
Table 4.2.1. Descriptive statistics on students' positive attitudes toward recast	76
Table 4.2.2. Descriptive statistics on negative attitude towards recast	81
Table 4.3.1. Descriptive statistics of recast in the field of grammar	85
Table 4.3.2. Descriptive statistics of types of errors students wanted to have corrected	87
Table 4.3.2.1. Type of preferred recast on grammatical errors	91
Table 4.3.2.2. Type of recast on phonological errors	93
Table 4.3.2.3. Preferred type of recast in lexical errors	96



## ABSTRACT

This study investigated learners' perceptions of recast in the ESL classroom of three Senior High Schools in the Mampong Municipality, Asante Region. Using a convergent parallel mixed methods design, questionnaire and focus group interview were utilized in collecting data from three hundred randomly selected students for descriptive and thematic analyses within the *Process Model of L2 Motivation* framework proposed by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998). The analysis revealed that students generally prefer explicit recast, although they would prefer other types of recast based on the error they commit. It was also revealed that students would want their errors to be corrected every time and as soon as they commit the error. Also, it was found from the study that recast indeed motivates learners to learn English.



## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.0 Background to the study

Corrective feedback is a fertile area of research for exploration. This rich area of research has received considerable attention recently in the field of second language acquisition (Ellis, 2012, p. 135). Feedback can be defined from various angles. Based on Hattie and Timperley's (2007) work, feedback can be defined as "information provided by an agent concerning one's performance or understanding" (p. 81). However, feedback also encompasses the consequences of performance. Hattie and Timperley (2007) explained further: "a teacher ... can provide corrective information, a peer can provide an alternative strategy, ... to clarify ideas, a parent can encourage, and a learner can look up the answer to evaluate the correctness of a response" (p. 81).

In the literature, it has been said that the selection of the negative feedback (NF) is not that simple and authors agree that there is not an NF type that suits all learners in all language teaching settings. Perdomo (2016) claims that difficulties to select the way to correct include the fact that factors like students' proficiency, teaching focus, and students' cognitive and affective variables need to be considered as groups and as individuals. Since numerous studies have provided evidence that indicates types of feedback to motivate language learning, feedback is therefore considered as a way to motivate students' learning, especially in L2 learning. One type of feedback is recast which is widely used by English as Second Language (ESL) / English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in their classrooms to learn a second language. Among the different options that have been widely studied recasts appear to be very popular as well as controversial. In particular, recasts (correct reformulations of a learner's utterance) have been the focus of much debate (Baleghizadeh & Abdi, 2010; Braid, 2002). Gass and Selinker (2001) state that motivation is a social psychological factor and a predictor

of success in L2 (second language) learning. They stated further, "It makes sense that individuals who are motivated will learn another language faster and to a greater degree" (p. 349).

Recast is very essential when it comes to the teaching and learning process, especially in the oral and written work. Recast can be said to be the teachers' correction of erroneous utterance or written text. This brings to fore how oral studies have shown that recast has a greater influence on students' ability to learn a second language. Recast definition has slightly varied across time. It started from being seen as a 'repetition with change' (Chaudron, 1998) and a decade later it was presented as learner's utterance minus the error(s) by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Later, it was constantly modified and about fourteen years ago a recast was seen as the teacher's partial or total reformulation of a student's utterance that contains at least one error within the context of communicative activity in the language classroom (Sheen, 2006, p. 365), but the most recent modification for this definition has trusted on adding that recast is an effort to mimic the way real-life correction happens (Mousavi & Behjat, 2014).

Recasts are a common type of feedback for many possible reasons; one of the main reasons may be that they allow the teacher to maintain a focus on meaning while still giving the non-native speaker implicit correction on the form (Han, 2002). In sum, although recast has always been seen as implicit feedback, its conception has been widened by researchers as they have gone deeper in recast study. The extent of recasts and repairs (repetition of recasts) and their successive impact on acquisition is a practical and theoretical inquiry that is open to much debate. Recasts may vary in form, size, length, and function. In this respect, Ellis and Sheen (2006) argued that recasts can be of various types including corrective or non-corrective, full or partial, single or multiple, explicit or implicit, and simple or complex recasts.

The English language has become the official language in all facets of the Ghanaian life and is considered prestigious by every Ghanaian. In a world where people interact a lot

with one another daily, one cannot only use written language but speech as well. This attests to the fact that both speech and writing play an integral role when it comes to communication. Errors committed by students are corrected through recast. The current day study was undertaken to find out learners' perceptions of recast among three Senior High Schools in the Mampong Municipal area, Asante-Mampong in the Ashanti region.

### **1.1 Statement of the problem**

Senior High School is the level where students are required to speak and write English effectively. The ability to master the English language will enable them to pass their exams and communicate effectively with people. The use of recast has been given a minimum look during the teaching and learning process. The problem with recast is all about how students see it differently in terms of their types, frequency, and attitude they develop after they have received recast. It is obvious that teachers see recast differently from how their students see it, and this, most times create a gap between what students want and what teachers provide. . Fang and Xue-Mei (2007) mentioned that there is a great gap between students and their teachers in understanding the error correction through giving feedback. It, therefore, calls for language teachers to take into consideration the preference needs of their students to enable them to learn the second language with ease and pass their exams as well communicate fluently as regards the second language

The ability of students to speak fluently depends on how they receive recast from their teachers/peers to correct their erroneous utterances. Observations made indicated that some students express different attitudes towards recast and some teachers also confirmed it. A critical look at literature depicts that, the other types of feedback have been delved into and given maximum attention in terms of research, but the perception of learners' on recast has been neglected over the years by most researchers in Ghana and Africa as a whole. With this, it is prudent to conduct a study to find out how differently learners perceive recast in Ghana

which in turn gives a clue as to how other learners also perceive recast in other parts of the world. Further observations and investigations show that most of the students feel shy to express themselves in the English language and their teachers sometimes find it difficult to use the appropriate type of recast to correct their students' erroneous utterances. They also lack the confidence of speaking the English language for the fear of being tagged dumb should they commit errors. With this, their errors are likely to be fossilised which they transfer those errors into their writing. If this problem is not solved, it will affect students' academic work and performance in the West Africa Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (WASSCE).

From the aforementioned points, there is the need to investigate the learners' perceptions of recast among 3 Senior High Schools in the Mampong Municipality, Ashanti Region. The main purpose of this study is to find out the learners' perceptions of particular types of recast; Investigate their attitudes toward recast; find out the types of recast students prefer depending on the error they commit (grammatical, phonological, and lexical), and examine the effects of recast on learners' motivation to learn English. 300 students were randomly selected to answer the questionnaire and out of that 14 were selected randomly for a focus group interview. SPSS and thematic analysis were used to analyse the data from the questionnaire and the interview questions were transcribed and descriptively analysed. In all, the confidentiality of the students was highly adhered to.

## **1.2 Research objectives**

The study seeks to examine learners' perceptions of recast in the ESL classroom. The objectives are as follows:

1. Find out the learners' perceptions of particular types of recast.
2. Investigate their attitudes toward recast.
3. Find out the types of recast students prefer depending on the error they commit (grammatical, phonological, and lexical).

### **1.3 Research questions**

The study is guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the learners' perceptions of particular types of recast?
2. What are their attitudes toward recast?
3. What types of recast do the students prefer depending on the error they commit (grammatical, phonological, and lexical)?

### **1.4 Significance of the study**

When this study is completed it would help teachers, learners of English, and all those who use English to improve their ways of correcting learners. It will also inform teachers about the problems students face when they use recast wrongly in learning and speaking English. Furthermore, it will help teachers choose from the types of recast based on the error committed. It will also enable language teachers to upgrade themselves in terms of learning to meet what their students require of them. It will help in creating a good classroom atmosphere to ensure a smooth transition of teaching and learning. The results of this research will serve as a source of reference on similar topics that they may want to write on.

### **1.5 Delimitation of the study**

The study was delimited to recast as an example of error correction. It was further delimited to the perception of recast by learners. The study was delimited to three Senior High Schools in Mampong Municipality. The target population was 300 students from these Senior High Schools. These students were chosen to find out their perception of recast.

### **1.6 Organization of the study**

The rest of the thesis is organised as follows: Chapter 2 presents the literature review. The discussion focuses on the concept of feedback, situating a discussion of recast within it. The chapter further presents a discussion of the framework and also reviews the literature on studies that are related to the present one. Chapter 3 describes the methodology and procedure

adopted for the study. Issues discussed in this chapter include the description and discussion of the participants, data collection, and analysis. Chapter 4 presents the results of the study. In this chapter, the analysis revealed that students have different perceptions regarding recast. It was clear from the results that students would prefer their teachers to use the explicit type of recast to correct their erroneous utterance. They further agreed that their teachers should correct their errors every time they are made to avoid fossilization of errors. More so, it was evident that students exhibit a positive attitude toward recast since they see recast to be helpful. They expressed that they learn more whenever they receive recast from their teachers during the focus group interview.

It was also revealed that students would want to be corrected with the explicit type of recast in the field of grammar because they would prefer their teachers tell them specifically the error they have committed, but would prefer the implicit recast when it comes to lexical errors. Finally, it was clear that recast increases the self-confidence level of students to speak fluently and accurately as students asserted. Finally, Chapter 5 presents a summary of the results. In this chapter, the researcher brings to the fore, ways by which recast could be better improved to help students learn English. One such way is by incorporating recast in the syllabus of Colleges of Education in order to expose its products to the need to use recast. Also, recast as a topic needs to be discussed among L2 teachers in order to eliminate any pre-set ideas as regards recast.

## **1.7 Conclusion**

This chapter provides a foundation within which this research study is built. It has discussed the background to the study, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, the relevance of the study, and the limitations. This work presents the past and present views on recast use. It summarizes the background of recast as a form of error, emphasis on the learners' perceptions of recast.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 Introduction

It is typical practice in many second language classrooms that teachers provide students with focused linguistic contributions to address gaps in their interlanguage and right non-target-like articulations. In the most recent decade or so, this training has become normal, not just concerning the second language (L2) classrooms but in many immersion and mainstream classrooms with students of English as an Additional Language (EAL) or a Second Language (ESL). This chapter presents a discussion of corrective feedback in second language acquisition, the effectiveness of corrective feedback, the types of corrective feedback: prompts as a form of corrective feedback is considered at in this section of the study followed by a discussion on the uptake. Another type of feedback that is recast is further discussed with sections on types of recasts - corrective and non-corrective recast, full and partial recast, multi-move and single-move recast, simple and complex recast and lastly, implicit and explicit recast. The chapter further looks at the characteristics of recast: the number of feedback moves, prosodic cues, the number of changes, and length of recast and segmentation. Also, the relationship between recast and language acquisition is discussed in this chapter. Moreover, it discusses students' perceptions of feedback. The chapter also describes the theoretical framework that underpins the study, presenting information on its underlying principles as well as its components in relation to the use of recasts in the English language classroom. Related studies as regards this study are also discussed.

#### 2.1 Corrective feedback in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Corrective feedback, which is also known in SLA as error correction or negative feedback, has been defined as “responses to learner utterance that contains an error” (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006, p.340). Additionally, Yoshida (2008) describes it as “teachers' or other

learners' responses to a second language or foreign language learners' erroneous or inappropriate products, by reformulating the forms or giving clues for corrections" (p.525). These responses can consist of individual indications that an error has been made, provision of the correct form, or provision of metalinguistic information related to the nature of the language error (Ellis et al., 2006). Furthermore, Russel and Spada (2006) also state that CF refers to any feedback strategies that provide the students from any source that contains evidence of the students' language form.

### **2.1.1 Effectiveness of corrective feedback**

Corrective feedback has been a major topic of interest among SLA researchers during the last decade and much of the research done so far suggests that it greatly contributes to L2 learning because it helps students notice the difference between their ill-formed utterances and the correct ones (Li, 2010; Sheen, 2010). Moreover, Sheen (2010) argues that the effectiveness of corrective feedback lies in "its propensity for interaction to construct a zone of proximal development (where learners are assisted to perform a linguistic feature that they are not yet able to handle independently) for the learner" (p. 170). However, she also warns that learners will be actively "involved in comparing on-line the gap between an error and a target form" only when they are cognitively ready to notice the feedback (Sheen, 2011, p. 2). Furthermore, research suggests that learner responses represent a reliable measure of the relationship between noticing corrective feedback and further L2 learning achievement (Egi, 2010). As an illustration, Lyster (2007) argues that "immersion teachers' tendency to use random implicit feedback" might correlate with immersion students' developmental plateau in their communicative ability" (p.92). This indicates that the effectiveness of corrective feedback greatly depends on how it is used and that if it is not employed constantly it might have an unfavourable effect on L2 learning.

In the last two decades, several meta-analyses have been carried out to produce the results of the great amount of research regarding the effectiveness of corrective feedback and explicit instruction on L2 learning (Li, 2010) and also (Lyster & Saito 2010). Norris and Ortega, (2000); Russell and Spada, (2006) have also researched the effectiveness of corrective feedback and explicit instruction on L2 learning. The results of these four meta-analyses, which altogether comprise more than 100 unique research studies about corrective feedback and explicit versus implicit instruction, show that corrective feedback “makes a significant impact on L2 learners’ performance” (Lyster & Saito, 2010, p. 289). Furthermore, explicit instructions, which entail corrective feedback as one of its key “particular pedagogical techniques” (Norris & Ortega, 2000, p. 462) shows to be more effective than implicit instruction. Also, Russell and Spada’s (2006) meta-analysis not only showed evident support for the effectiveness of corrective feedback for L2 learning but also revealed that “benefits of corrective feedback are durable” (p. 152). Therefore, corrective feedback has been regarded as an essential teaching tool not only for helping students notice “target exemplars on the input but also for consolidating emergent L2 knowledge and skills” (Lyster, Saito & Sato 2013, p. 5).

In terms of the most effective type of corrective feedback, Lyster and Saito (2010) found that while all three types of corrective feedback (recast, prompts, and explicit correction) have a positive effect on L2 learning, corrective feedback in “classroom settings may be more effective when its delivery is more pedagogically oriented ( prompts) than conversationally oriented (recast)” (p. 29). In contrast, Li (2010) found that the positive effect of implicit feedback (recast) was better maintained than that of explicit feedback. However, in his study, he classified recast and prompts as implicit, leaving metalinguistic correction, which is a type of prompt, and explicit correction in the explicit instruction group because they “overtly indicate that the learner’s L2 output was not acceptable” (p. 323). Equally, implicit feedback does not provide an evident indication that an error has been committed (Sheen, 2011).

Additionally, Sheen (2007) found that while explicit correction in the form of metalinguistic feedback had a positive effect on L2 learning in an intermediate communicative class with adult learners, implicit feedback, specifically recasts, was not so successful. Nonetheless, several laboratory studies have also been carried out to determine the effectiveness of implicit feedback on L2 learning, some of which have also yielded positive results (Han, 2002). Thus, it seems that the effectiveness of implicit versus explicit corrective feedback greatly depends on the linguistic and individual learner characteristics of each unique learning context (Sheen, 2011). Finally, while Lyster and Saito (2010) did not find any differences between the effectiveness of corrective feedback in the second language (SL) contexts versus foreign language (FL) contexts, Li (2010) found that studies conducted in FL contexts revealed a higher degree of effectiveness than those carried out in SL settings. This might be explained by the tendency that “learners in FL contexts have a more positive attitude toward error correction than learners in SL contexts” or that “the instructional dynamics of FL contexts might make corrective feedback more effective” (p.344).

## **2.2 Types of corrective feedback**

One of the seminal studies in SLA about corrective feedback is Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) research, which was carried out in French immersion programs in the Montreal area with students from primary school, specifically from 4th to 6th grade. In this study, they distinguished six different types of corrective feedback: recasts, explicit correction, clarification requests, repetition of error, elicitation, and metalinguistic clues (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). This present study focuses much attention on the term *recast* and the studies around it.

### **2.2.1 Recasts**

The expression *recasts* initially developed in the primary language procurement writing (Farrar, 1992, pp. 90-98) and has been applied to the Second language (L2) studies since the mid-1990s. Nonetheless, meanings of recasts change in L2 writing, making examinations

crosswise over investigations fairly difficult. The most widely recognized kind of negative feedback utilized in the study classroom is recasting (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2006). Recasting is characterized as the reformulation of a non-local speaker's off-base expression by a local speaker to address it (Gass & Selinker, 2008). With their definition, I differ because, in this present study, recast is done by non-native speakers who study English as their second language to help their students develop their confidence level when it comes to the use of English. Recasts are a typical kind of input for some potential reasons; one of the fundamental reasons might be that they enable the educator to keep up an emphasis on meaning while as yet giving the non-native implicit on the form (Han, 2002).

The interest for recasts can be ascribed to the recurrence with which they are utilized by instructors in language learning classrooms. Sheen (2004) thought about the recurrence of recasts in immersion, communicative ESL and EFL settings found that, by and large, 60 percent of all the feedback moves included recasts (p. 228). The predominant view is that recasts comprise a verifiable type of negative input. Lyster (1998) alluded to their "capacity of verifiably giving reformulation" (p. 59) while Long (2006) affirms undoubtedly that a recast is a talk move that is by definition certain. The extensiveness of recasts in the study classroom has prompted numerous examinations on the subject, yet results from the exploration have commonly not given solid proof of its adequacy.

There is a tendency in the L2 literature for a more specific definition, as opposed to the general description of recasts in the L2 classroom. Recasts establish a kind of oral remedial input. Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001) characterize recasts as an articulation that repeats a student's erroneous expression, changing incorrect expression without changing the meaning. For example,

L: The boy *have* many books on the desk.

T: The boy has many books on the desk.

L: Yeah ... has many books.

Recasts entail the reformulation of the errors committed by L2 learners in classroom interaction. Long (2006) explains teacher corrective recast as an immediate reformulation of all or part of the learner's incorrect utterance, where the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning, not form. For example,

T: Did you meet Sam yesterday?

L: Yes, I met him at the meat shop.

T: You met him at the butcher.

L: Yes.

The focus here is merely on the meaning as well as on the timing of the teacher's responses to the incorrect utterance. Long's definitions look to prohibit such structure-centred reformulations; to be a recast and his definition confirms what Nicholas et al (2001) termed as recast. VanPatten (1990) contended that students cannot process both importance and structure simultaneously and that, L2 students can deliberately concentrate on the structure of the input and are effectively comprehended. An instructor's reaction is seen as a recast if it repeats and adjusts the incorrect non-native expression including phonological, syntactic, morphological, or lexical errors (Braid, 2002). At the end of the day, recasts consistently show up when language rules are not followed in communicative exchange during classroom interaction. They seem to fix the mismatch between what has been said to what ought to have been mentioned. Teachers do not intend to explicitly attract learners' attention to the error. Instead, they keep the communicative exchange flow naturally. Sheen (2006) additionally characterizes recasts as the instructor's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance that has an error within the context of the communicative activity in the classroom. Again, recasts can be generally defined as a teacher's isolated or expanded rephrasing of a student's erroneous utterances into a target form, while retaining its original meaning (Sheen, 2006). For example:

T: Why didn't you go to the match yesterday?

L: I was really busy to do my homework.

T: ... busy doing your homework.

L: Yes, I was.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) define recast as “involving the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error”, p. 46). Larsen-Freeman (2003) points out, “recasting involves teachers reformulating all or part of what a student has just said so that it is correct” (p. 135). It is significant to notice how these authors focus on “reformulating” and “rephrasing” to maintain the original idea. According to Philp (2003), a recast is “a target like version” of a student’s utterance” (p. 100). Recasts are provided immediately after the learner’s erroneous utterances. Hence, the juxtaposition of the incorrect form and the correct form of the learner’s utterance in recasts may trigger him/her to compare the difference (noticing the gap), and this has been considered a catalyst of second language (L2) learning (Long, 2007). Also, recasts retain the learner’s initial meaning; therefore, the learner already has a prior understanding of at least, if not all, of the message. This may enable the learner to have “additional freed-up attentional resources which can be allocated to the form of the response” (Long, 2006, p. 78).

Recast can be one of the best forms of feedback. Gass and Selinker (2008) assert that “recasts are another form of feedback; though they are less direct and more subtle than other forms of feedback. A recast is a reformulation of an incorrect utterance that maintains the original meaning of the utterance” (p. 334). Recasts occur relatively frequently in conversational interactions where both positive and negative evidence are considered to be the data required by learners for the acquisition of the target language (Long, 1996). Recast is significant to the researcher basically because it is a very common tool in language classrooms. While positive evidence provides learners with the target language models, negative evidence

highlights the unacceptable language features in the target language. Generally, there are two types of recasts: (1) implicit recasts and (2) explicit recasts. But the literature on recasts is filled with a whole host of terms that describe the different kinds of recasts. These are corrective recasts and non-corrective recasts, implicit recasts, explicit recasts, full recasts and partial recasts, single or multiple, and simple or complex recasts (Farrar, 1992; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

### **2.2.1.1 Types of recast**

Recast has been classified into types according to Farrar (1992), and Lyster and Ranta (1997). Some of the types of recast they introduced are corrective and non-corrective recast; full and partial recast; multiple move and single move recast; simple and complex; implicit recast, and explicit recast. The discussion in the following sections throws more light on the types of recast and their examples.

#### **2.2.1.1.1 Corrective recasts and non-corrective recasts**

While Farrar (1992, p. 92) distinguished between “corrective recasts”, which aims to correct a target error and “non-corrective recasts” that do not correct a target but models a target, Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 37) used the same terms but defined non-corrective recasts as reformulations of learners’ error-free utterances (Examples 1 and 2).

Example 1 (Non-corrective recasts):

T: What do we call a group of teachers, Ahmed?

S: Staffs.

T: Staffs. That’s good. (Recasts are accepted with signs of approval)

Example 2 (Corrective recasts):

T: The short, thick finger on the side of your hand that makes it possible to hold and pick objects is, Frank?

S: The *thump*.

T: The *thumb*, that’s good.



### 2.2.1.1.2 Full and partial recasts

Another distinction of vital importance is that between full recasts and partial recasts. In full recasts, the whole erroneous utterance is repeated whereas in partial recasts only the part of the erroneous utterance including the error is repeated. Example (1) illustrates a full recast, in which the teacher repeats the whole erroneous utterance while Example (2) illustrates a partial recast, in which the teacher repeats only the erroneous utterance.

Example 1:

S: He is kind person.

T: He is a kind person.

Example 2:

S: I left my bag in room.

T: in the room.

### 2.2.1.1.3 Multi-move recasts and single-move recasts

Sheen (2006, p. 365) classified recasts move in the sequences of error treatment under two categories: Multi-move recasts and single-move recasts. Multi-move recasts included corrective recasts that are preceded by repetition, repeated recasts in which the teacher repeats either fully or partially and combination recasts which included recasts combined with other types of feedback except for explicit correction. In contrast to multi-move recasts, single-move recasts comprised only one recast move in a single turn. Sheen identified seven characteristics of single-move recasts:

The first characteristic involved mode (declarative or interrogative). The second one described the “scope” of recasts which included “secluded” (during which the erroneous form was secluded and reformulated) and “incorporated” recasts which were followed by additional semantic content. The third characteristic involved *reduction* in which the teacher’s corrective response could be either shorter than the wrong utterance (reduction) or just a repetition of the

learner's erroneous utterance (non-reduction). The fourth characteristic was the length of the corrective recasts which were classified as short, long, or a clause involving at least two phrasal components. The fifth characteristic included several changes which means that recasts may involve only one change or multiple changes. The sixth characteristic was the type of change depending on whether one adds or supplies a missing element (addition) or removes it (deletion). The seventh characteristic was the linguistic focus. Learners might also be corrected in different linguistic areas including grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. This means that the kind of error identifies the type of linguistic focus in recasts. The teacher can provide recasts once (Example 1) or repeats recast. Examples are shown as follows:

Example 1:

S: Abena told me, your face is rather uglier.

T: Rather ugly.

Example 2:

S: Abena told me, your face is rather uglier.

T: Rather ugly. Rather ugly.

#### **2.2.1.1.4 Simple and complex recasts**

Recasts also differ in terms of whether they are simple or complex (Philp, 2003, p. 99). This depends on whether the changes to the learner's erroneous utterance are minimal or substantial. It also seeks to determine the nature of the change, that is, whether it entails a substitution of the erroneous form, an addition, a deletion, or a reordering of the target utterance.

#### **2.2.1.1.5 Implicit recasts**

Implicit recasts are the most common type in the ESL/EFL literature. They are looked upon by Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001, pp. 732-733) as "utterances that repeat a learner's incorrect utterance, making only the changes necessary to produce a correct utterance,

without changing the meaning” whereas Carpenter et al (2006, p. 218) define them as “the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a problematic learner utterance that corrected the error(s) without changing the central meaning of the utterance. These involved the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error”. Thus, as indicated by Russell (2009), recasts are best embodied when a teacher or other more knowledgeable peer repeats a learner’s incorrect utterance and replaces the error with the correct form.

The definition of Nicholas et al (2001, pp. 732-733), which sees implicit recasts as “utterances that repeat a learner’s incorrect utterance, making only the changes necessary to produce a correct utterance, without changing the meaning” has been adopted by many researchers and would be used in this study. Recasts, as shown in examples 2 and 3, are seen as implicit corrective feedback in which the teacher reformulated all or part of the participant’s utterance but did not explicitly say that utterance was incorrect. They were generally implicit in that they were not introduced by phrases such as *you mean* and *you should say*. That is, the researcher did not indicate nor point out that the participant had made an error, but merely gave the correct form. For instance,

Example 1:

T: What did you eat on the plane yesterday?

S: I was hungry and didn't eat on the plane. [An erroneous utterance]

T: I was hungry but didn't eat on the plane. [An implicit recast]

S: Yes.

Example 2

S: Would you like some water and some fruit juice? (Error- grammatical)

T: Would you like some water or some fruit juice? (Feedback-recast, implicit)

S: OK.

As shown in the above examples, when recasting grammatical features, the researcher tended not to encourage the learners to reprocess their output. He simply reformulated the sentence in order not to break the flow of the conversation, controlling frustration when solving a problem.

#### 2.2.1.1.6 Explicit recasts

Like implicit recasts, explicit recasts can be defined as the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a problematic learner utterance that corrected the error(s) without changing the central meaning of the utterance (Carpenter et al, 2006, p. 218). They involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error. However, explicit recasts are different from implicit recasts in that the teacher reformulates all or part of the student's utterance and explicitly informs the student that his/her utterance is incorrect. They are generally explicit in that they are introduced by phrases such as *you mean*, and *you should say*. Thus, the teacher indicates that the student has made an error to encourage him or her to correct the erroneous utterance. For example,

Example 3:

S: A bee is less big than a bird. (Error- grammatical)

T: you mean "A bee is not as big as a bird". (Feedback-recast, explicit)

S: OK.

Example 4: (Repeating a comparative):

T: What happens when you get excited?

S: My heart beats fast. (An erroneous utterance)

T: You should say: My heart beats faster and faster. (An explicit recast)

S: Yes.

Hussien (2014) in his study investigated the effect of implicit and explicit recasts versus meta-linguistic feedback on EFL Saudi learners' grammar performance at the Faculty of Science and Arts. Eighty-six second-level English Department students were randomly

assigned into three experimental groups: the implicit recasts group, the explicit recasts group, and the meta-linguistic group. While studying their Grammar course, the three groups received three types of feedback respectively. The three groups were pre-post tested using a grammar test prepared by the researcher. Seven hypotheses were formulated and tested. Results obtained from Chi-square, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test and Mann-Whitney Test revealed that the three feedback techniques enhanced the participants' grammar performance. Moreover, the explicit recasts group outperformed the other two groups. The superiority of explicit recasts, theoretically, implies a beneficial role for negative evidence in grammar instruction and implies that, pedagogically, explicit recasts are a better choice for teachers than implicit recasts in grammar classes.

Furthermore, Dabaghi (2008) investigated the effects of learners' grammatical errors on language acquisition. Specifically, it compared the effects of the manner of correction (explicit versus implicit correction). It also investigated the relative effects of explicit and implicit correction of morphological versus syntactic features and correction of developmental late features. Results showed that the participants who received explicit correction gained significantly higher scores than those who received the implicit correction. Analyses of the interactions between independent variables showed that explicit correction was more effective for the acquisition of developmental early features and the implicit correction was more effective for the acquisition of developmental late features.

The prevailing view is that recasts constitute an implicit form of negative feedback. Long (2007, p. 76) asserts that "implicit negative feedback in the form of corrective recasts seems particularly promising". In Ellis et al (2006), the implicit corrective feedback in their study takes the form of recast; so is the case with Ammar and Spada (2006), Long et al (1998), and others. However, as pointed out by Ellis and Sheen (2006), recasts are not always as implicit as Long (1996, 2007) claims. For example, it might be argued that the recasts used in

Doughty and Varela (1998) study contain clear signals, such as repetition and stress, which made their corrective force quite explicit. In summary, recasts should not be viewed as necessarily implicit, but, depending on the linguistic signals that encode them, they should be taken as being more or less implicit or explicit. In Ellis and Sheen (2006, p. 583), “recasts can lie at various points on a continuum of linguistic implicitness-explicitness”. The terms “explicit recast” and “implicit recast” are only introduced by Sheen (2006, p. 388) after he studied the characteristics of recasts.

### **2.2.2 Characteristics of recasts**

There is clear verification that recasts can further acquisition; however, it is still unclear when they do so. The characteristics of the recasts help to figure out when recasts work for acquisition and when they do not. Researchers like Han (2002) and Sheen (2006) have investigated the characteristics of extensive recasts. This section considers various characteristics of recasts that may influence their effectiveness in the classroom. Although recasts are spontaneous and provide implicit negative feedback, they may range in degree of explicitness and salience depending on their characteristics (Amara, 2006).

#### **2.2.2.1 The number of feedback moves**

One way of making recasts more relevant is through the number of feedback moves. A teacher may provide more than one kind of feedback move by following a learner’s incorrect utterance. The example below shows an exchange of moves. The student first heard the correct word (Beards) nevertheless produces a different word (beer). Then the teacher elicits self-repair from the student by producing the same incorrect word (Beer?), who unsuccessfully modifies his original pronunciation (bears). After the student fails to self-repair, the student then repeats it in the following turn (Beards). For example,

T: Many NBA players have beards and tattoos on their hands.

S: Yeah, they have beer and tattoos on their hands.

T: Beers?

S: Bears

T: Beards, beards

S: Beards beards and tattoos on their hands.

It is obvious from the above example that the student is led through a series of moves to notice the recast “*Beards*”, and the student successfully incorporates the correct linguistic form into his production. Seedhouse (1997) and van Lier (1988) reminded us that recasts arise within an entire body of discourse, and it is important, therefore, to consider them within the interactional organization of the classroom. This study will maintain Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) definition of repair as *the correction of an error immediately following the teacher’s corrective turn*. Under this definition, the repair is further divisible into four types: repetition (repetition of the correct form as given by the teacher during CF), incorporation (inclusion of the correct form as provided by the teacher during CF into a longer utterance), self-repair (in which the student, not the teacher, in response to CF, provides the correct form), and peer-repair (in which a student provides the correct form in response to the corrected utterance of another student).

#### **2.2.2.2 Prosodic cues**

Another way in which the teacher may cue the learner to the particular problem is by using prosodic emphasis, whereby a particular word or morpheme is stressed. The teacher’s recast is given with a stress on the incorrect utterance so that the learner uptakes it and corrects it. This technique is used specifically for phonological problems, but it can also be used for morphosyntactic items.

#### **2.2.2.3 Number of changes and length of recast**

Other factors that appear to affect learners’ noticing and responses to recasts center on the relationship of the recast to the original utterance, including such factors as the number of changes (the degree of difference between the recast and the original utterance) and length of

the recast. Previous experimental research has suggested that the fewer the changes and the shorter the recast, the more likely one is to notice it (Egi, 2004; Philp, 2003). The distinction between the length of recast and segmentation is an important one because segmentation potentially pinpoints the problem for the learner. Although segmented recasts are always short, not all short recasts are necessarily segmented. It appears, then, that in the classroom, the ambiguity of recasts can be greatly reduced by the phrasal, prosodic, and discoursal cues that teachers provide.

#### **2.2.2.4 Segmentation**

Another feature of recasts in classrooms is segmentation. Previously identified as partial recasts (Roberts, 1995) and recasts with reduction (Lyster, 1998), segmentation may also reduce the ambiguity of a recast. The teacher segments the problematic form and recasts it in isolation. Sheen (2006) also investigated the relationship between different features/characteristics of recasts and learner uptake/repair. She examined the effect of features such as mode, that is, whether recasts were declarative or interrogative in form, linguistic focus, that is, whether recasts targeted phonological, lexical, or grammatical features and type of change, that is, whether the change involved substituting an item in the learner utterance or some other kind of change on the learner's repair. She came to the conclusion that features such as length of recasts (short versus long), linguistic focus (pronunciation versus grammar), types of change (substitution versus addition), mode (declarative versus interrogative), the use of reduction partial recasts and the number of changes (one versus multiple) affected the explicitness of recasts. Recasts used in her study were short, more likely to be declarative in mode, reduced, repeated, with a single-error focus. Besides, they involved substitution rather than deletions and additions. These features were observed to be positively related to learner uptake and/or repair. She stressed that such recasts are explicit rather than implicit and therefore more likely to be salient.



Loewen and Philip (2006, p. 336) examined five characteristics that were the same as Sheen's (2006, p. 361). The characteristics they identified were the linguistic focus, length of recast, segmentation, that is, whether recasts repeated all or just part of the learner's utterance, some changes, and complexity, that is, whether the corrective sequences were simple or complex, involving several turns. However, in their study, they went a step further to examine not only the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake but the learners' subsequent use of different recast types in terms of post-test performance. They revealed that declarative intonation, stress, one change, and multiple feedback moves were predictive of successful uptake, whereas interrogative intonation, shortened length, and one change promoted post-test performance. Accordingly, previous research investigating the different features of recasts asserted how some recasts may enhance the salience of positive and negative evidence depending on the way recasts are provided (Loewen & Philip, 2006; Sheen, 2006). Such recasts trigger uptake which provides ample opportunities for production practice. These results may lead to the conclusion that recasts can function as a catalyst in their immediate production and ideally, short and long term language learning.

#### **2.2.2.5 Recasts and language acquisition**

Since ESL language instruction has growingly become meaning-oriented, teachers have to make sure that learners are also learning the correct form of the language they are studying. One of the ways to achieve this task is to provide negative feedback-correcting learners' errors, either implicitly or explicitly. The most common type of negative feedback used in the classroom is recast (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Loewen & Philip, 2006). They are common as they allow the teacher to maintain a focus on meaning while still giving the learner implicit correction on the form (Han, 2002, p. 543). The prevalence of recasts in the classroom has led to many studies on the topic, but results from the research have generally not provided clear-

cut evidence of their effectiveness. Some researchers have questioned whether recasts, in general, are effective means of enhancing language acquisition.

The reasons for disbelief stemmed from the issues which language learners face in recognizing the corrective force of implicit recasts, that is, in recasts as providing negative evidence, due to the multifunctional nature of recasts. However, as indicated by Leeman (2003), it should be noted that the problem of identifying the corrective function of recasts does not nullify their acquisitional potential. This has been proven by many studies example, Doughty and Varela, (1998); Han, (2002), and Leeman, (2003). These studies proved that the ambiguity of recasts can be reduced by ensuring that they focus on a single linguistic feature and that their corrective force is linguistically signalled by, for example, the use of emphatic stress on the target language item.

According to Ellis (1997, p. 575) and Lyster (2004, p. 399), there are two types of language acquisition: (1) acquisition as the internalization of new forms and (2) acquisition as an increase in control over forms that have already been internalized, by using in context. The first type includes the acquisition of new declarative knowledge and the second type involves the transition from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge use. They further stated that recasts, as they provide target-like paradigms, can facilitate the encoding of new declarative knowledge. Therefore, recasts play a vital role in the cognitive process of EFL/ESL acquisition, facilitating the internalization of new knowledge and control over already-acquired knowledge. This was also supported by Doughty and Varela (1998, p. 114) when they concluded that “recasts are potentially effective since the aim is to add attention to form to a primarily communicative task rather than to depart from an already communicative goal to discuss a linguistic feature”. Since recasts can keep the learners’ focus on meaning but at the same time allow the teacher to maintain control over the linguistic form, they are described by

Loewen and Philp (2006, p. 537) as “pedagogically expeditious” and “time-saving”. Thus, the pedagogical function of recasts is to develop linguistic accuracy.

Furthermore, the semantic and discursal characteristics of recasts that repeat the information generated by learners and that are juxtaposed with the erroneous utterances make it easier for learners to make cognitive comparisons between their interlanguage and the target language (Long, 1996; 2007). That is why some descriptive studies showed that recasts are the most frequent negative feedback types, Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (1998), Panova and Lyster (2002). Other studies that found recasts effective in augmenting language acquisition are Carroll and Swain (1993), and Doughty and Varela (1998).

### **2.3 Prompts**

Repetition of errors, clarification requests, elicitations, and metalinguistic clues was grouped as prompts as they do not provide the correct form, but allow the students to self-correct (Lyster, 2007). Repetition of errors is the teacher’s repetitions of the learners’ incorrect utterances usually adjusting intonation patterns to help students notice the error and produce the correct version of it (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Clarification requests are used by language teachers to ask students for the reformulation of their incorrect sentences, being “a feedback type that can refer to problems in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or both” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). Elicitation relates to various strategies teachers use to help students find the correct answer, for instance by pausing to allow students to complete the sentence, using questions to allow students to provide the correct form, or directly asking students to rephrase their utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Finally, metalinguistic feedback contains metalinguistic questions or information about the accuracy of the student’s utterance in terms of grammatical, lexical, or phonological features which “point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). Examples of corrective feedback types are:

1. Explicit correction

Student: In December.

Teacher: Not in December, in December. We say, "It will begin in December."

2. Recast

Student: I have to find the answer in the book?

Teacher: In the book

3. Clarification request

Student: What do you spend with your sister?

Teacher: Sorry?

4. Metalinguistic feedback

Student: There are influential people who are successful.

Teacher: Influence is a noun, you need an adjective.

5. Elicitation

Student: This tea is very warm.

Teacher: It's very...?

Student: Hot.

6. Repetition

Student: I will telled you.

Teacher: I will telled you?

Student: I'll tell you.

Even though there seems to be agreement on the usefulness of corrective feedback to enhance L2 development, there is still deliberation about what type of corrective feedback is the most effective (Ammar & Spada, 2006). While recasts and explicit correction provide the correct version for the learners, which in the case of recasts is implicit, prompts do not provide

students with the correct form of the utterance, suggesting that different cognitive mechanisms need to be activated to repair the errors (Egi, 2010). In conclusion, as stated by Lyster and Saito (2010), “prompts withhold correct forms and instead provide clues to prompt students to retrieve these correct forms from their existing knowledge” (p. 268). In other words, prompting encourages students to resort to their linguistic inventory to self-repair their language errors, while recasting or explicitly correcting provides correction and repair by the teacher in one single exchange, which, in the case of recasts, might not always be perceived as a correction (Lyster & Saito, 2010).

## 2.4 Uptake

As has been generally perceived, Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) research into corrective feedback in French immersion classrooms has produced numerous investigations into student reactions to corrective feedback (e.g. McDonough & Mackey, 2006; Panova & Lyster, 2002). In their research, Lyster and Ranta coined the term *uptake* to allude explicitly to the student’s immediate response to feedback. From that point forward, L2 researchers have utilized uptake to allude to students’ reactions to corrective feedback. Lyster and Ranta (1997) characterized two kinds of uptake depending on its quality: (a) Uptake that results in the repair of the error which the feedback targeted and (b) Uptake that results in an utterance that still needs repair.

The fine-grained analysis of 18.3 hours of classroom interaction revealed that although recasts were the most frequently used type of corrective feedback, they elicited the lowest rate of learner uptake. When the quality of uptake was examined, recasts resulted in the lowest rate of repairs, and all of these repairs involved the repetition of the teacher’s recasts. This finding led the researchers to deduce that recasts may not be perceptible and that the repetitions that follow recasts do not necessarily indicate that learners notice the corrections made in recasts.

Numerous researchers have researched a similar inquiry that Lyster and Ranta (1997) investigated in their study (Panova and Lyster, 2002). A portion of this study has announced

more proof that supports such mistrust of recasts. For example, Panova and Lyster (2002), after Lyster and Ranta's (1997) research categorization of feedback and student uptake, analyzed how grown-up students in ESL classrooms in Canada reacted to various kinds of feedback. Instead of the study that uncovered the inadequacy of student uptake of recasts, other research found that a high pace of uptake and repairs followed recasts. As an example, Ellis et al (2001) analysed the data of 12 hours of communicative ESL teaching in New Zealand. Concurring with the aforementioned studies, recasts were the most frequently used type of corrective feedback. However, they also found a fairly high rate of uptake (71.6%) and repairs (76.3%, successful uptake in Ellis et al's term). A similar result was reported in Sheen's (2004) research in EFL classrooms in Korea. Ellis et al (2001) attributed the different rate of learner uptake to contextual differences – in the classrooms that are more meaning-oriented, less learner uptake occurs; in more form-oriented classrooms, learner uptake takes place. Likewise, Nicholas et al (2001) consider contextual variables as a factor that can determine the effectiveness of recasts.

Beside contextual variables, more recently, researchers have scrutinized the relationship between learner uptake and the different characteristics of recasts. More precisely, instead of looking at recasts as an entity, researchers have started classifying recasts depending on how they are provided (declarative form vs. interrogative form) and on the linguistic features recasts target (morphosyntax, lexicon, and phonology) (Kim, 2009). These attempts reveal that learner uptake of recasts is largely related to the characteristics of recasts, which implies that the salience of recasts can be manipulated by recast providers.

The lack of student uptake of recasts fuels the rareness that a few studies have about the strength of recasts in L2 learning (Panova & Lyster, 2002). In any case, the legality of this suspicion has been argued (Long, 2007). One assertion that has been used to counter-arguments against the effectiveness of recasts because of the absence of uptake is that recasts do not expect students to react. In other words, responding to recasts is an optional discourse move. By

contrast, other types of feedback which are compared with recasts – clarification requests and elicitations – require learners to respond to the feedback. Besides, students do not generally have the chance to react to recasts. Instructors, generally, keep talking after giving recasts (Kim, 2009; Nabei & Swain, 2002). Oliver (1995) shares the same view. In this regard, it is not logical to evaluate the effectiveness of recasts in L2 learning according to the frequency of learner uptake that follows recasts. It is likewise contrary to compare student uptake with L2 learning because quick reactions do not constantly mean long term acquisition. Long (2007) notes that a learner's ability to repeat a teacher's model utterance is "notoriously unreliable as an indication that the structure involved has really been learned" and "it is all too often no more than 'language-like' behaviour" (p. 99).

Likewise, Ellis et al (2001) notice that students' successful uptake doesn't show the acquisition of a feature. Learners' ability to autonomously use the feature in their later utterances without prompting (feedback) seems a more reliable indication of learning. Since research has argued for the association between the learner uptake and L2 learning, Loewen (2005) empirically researched whether learner uptake could be a dependable signal of L2 learning. He analysed 32 hours of meaning-based lessons in 12 ESL classes. He found that what was related to L2 learning was not the presence of uptake but the quality of uptake. More precisely, only successful uptake (learners' successful incorporation of the linguistic information into their responses) was reliably related to L2 development, while general uptake (any responses) was not.

In a comparative study, Shekary and Tahririan (2006) found that successful uptake was a solid indicator of L2 improvement. What these studies show is that not all uptake moves are equivalent in their commitment to L2 learning. These studies raised the question of what makes learners respond to feedback differently. One possible answer to this question is related to how learners perceive feedback. Many researchers take learner uptake as a sign of learner perception

of feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). Although the relationship between learner uptake and perception has been discussed in many studies, unfortunately, little empirical research has been conducted to prove their association. Students do not generally see recasts as redress to language; also, they do not in every case effectively see the etymological data in the recasts even though they see the criticism in the classroom (Kim & Han, 2007; Roberts, 1995). Hence, they will require a psychological examination for the last procedure (Schmidt, 1990). This distinctive degree of recognition is credited to the commitment of recasts to L2 securing unexpectedly (Schmidt, 2001). Thus, past research would seemingly bolster the speculation that student take-up might be a wonder of an alternate degree of a psychological procedure.

The essence of teacher recasting is important and aims at bringing changes into the learner's learning style as well as helping the learner to become aware of his or her erroneous utterance during classroom interactions. Some researchers concluded that recasts help learners notice the gap between their inter-language forms and the target forms, thus serving as "negative evidence" (Ellis, 1994, p. 79; Long, 1996, p. 415). Similarly, Long et al (1998, p. 17) have discussed how to recast helps students to notice "negative evidence". Thus, when the teacher reformulates a learner's error, the reformulation may draw the learner's attention to the target form by signalling to the learner that his or her utterance is deviant in some way. Thus, recasts create optimal opportunities for cognitive comparison because they are assumed to promote noticing of form while a focus on the meaning/message is maintained.

## **2.5 Conceptual framework: The process model of L2 motivation**

This study adopts *The Process Model of L2 Motivation* developed by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998). Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) introduced the model in an attempt to address the influence of contextual factors on motivation (Dörnyei, 2005). Calderon (2013) argues that the motivation model's aim was to design motivational strategies for classroom intervention in the



second language (L2) education. The basis for the project lay in the fact that the amount of emotional research devoted to investigating *how* to motivate language learners has been rather scanty. This model captures the progress of learners' motivation as they learn an L2, which can be affected by several factors such as their initial attitudes towards the L2, sense of achievement and independence, classroom atmosphere, and teacher feedback (Dörnyei, 2005). The model contains two dimensions: *Action Sequence* and *Motivational Influences*. In the action sequence, initial wishes, hopes, and desires are first transformed into goals, then into intentions, leading eventually to action and, hopefully, to the accomplishment of the goals, after which the process is submitted to final evaluation.

The second dimension of the model, motivational influences, includes all the energy sources and motivational forces that underlie and fuel the behavioural process. The first dimension of the model was used in this study to explain the three stages learners of the L2 can use to help them learn. Recast as a form of teacher feedback in a way functions as a motivating tool, which helps learners compare their initial desire to learn an L2 and the outcome they would receive. Second Language learning motivation has been defined as a learner's intrinsic readiness or wish to spend time and effort to begin and maintain the process of learning a new language (Ortega, 2009; Richards & Schmidt, 2002). This concept is of great importance in education and Second Language Acquisition (SLA) since it helps explain the different degrees of L2 learning achievement among individuals (Dörnyei, 1994). Accordingly, motivation is one of the most important individual variables which might determine failure or success in language acquisition (Dörnyei, 1994; 2005; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). However, according to Dörnyei (2005), recent studies have shown that motivation is far from being a static variable in SLA, being constantly affected by other individual and environmental factors. One of these factors is corrective feedback, which has also been extensively explored by SLA researchers in the last two decades (Lee, 2013; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). Following

Heckhausen and Kuhl's Action Control Theory, the action sequence process has been divided into three main phases: *pre-actional stage*, *actional stage*, and *post-actional stage*. These are discussed as follows:

### **2.5.1 Pre-actional stage**

The first, pre-actional phase, is made up of three sub-phases, *goal setting*, *intention formation*, and the *initiation of intention enactment*. Goal setting is described as having three antecedents, *wishes/hopes*, *desires*, and *opportunities*. It also relates to the initial desire to learn an L2, which at the same time leads to the choice of goals the person will attempt to achieve. In the ESL classroom, the students desire to learn the new language with ease; therefore, students would have a preconceived mind toward that particular language before they are formally introduced to it. Students would have different perceptions with regard to the language they are about to learn. They, therefore, think about the opportunities they would get (how often they would be allowed to answer questions or they will be asked questions) for them to get enough exposure to that particular language. Because students set goals and have their own intentions in learning the L2, the language teacher has to correct students' errors to reshape their already set goals and intentions before it becomes fossilised, which might affect their desire in learning a second language.

### **2.5.2 Actional stage**

The second important constant process is *the appraisal*. One continuously weighs the multitude of motivations (in a form of recast) coming from the environment (where the teacher is a part of the environment) and the progress one has made towards the action-outcome, comparing actual events with predicted ones (answers students will give) or with ones that an alternative action sequence would offer (where the teacher gives recast to correct students' erroneous utterances). This complex process is further complicated if we consider the multi-level nature of the stimuli one receives. The basic unit of language learning behaviour is

participation in language tasks. These tasks are embedded in many physical and psychological contexts of various breadths such as the language class, the course, the L2 as a subject matter, language learning in general, learning in the classroom in general, learning in the particular institution in general, learning in general, and achievement behaviour in general. The important point is that a person's appraisal of one level can easily be transferred to a broader or narrower level; for example, negative attitudes aroused by failure in doing a particular task can easily be generalised to the whole language course or the whole of language learning. Motivation is maintained through a set of actions which go from studying the L2 to avoiding distractions that might harm learning.

In relation to this concept, Heckhausen and Kuhl (1985) also developed a more detailed *Theory of Action Control*, which was further elaborated on by Kuhl and his associates (Kuhl, 1985, 1987, 1992; and the studies in Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994). The theory tries to explain the common observation that people's actual behaviour does not always correlate with the priorities set by their expectancy and value beliefs and that even when the expectancies and values remain constant, the accompanying motivational tendencies show a marked waxing and waning. Furthermore, there is also the phenomenon that people sometimes persist in pursuing an activity despite more attractive alternative goals. The key component of Kuhl's (1987) action control model is 'intention', which is defined as an "activated plan to which the actor has committed herself or himself" (Kuhl, 1987, p. 282).

For an action to take place, two memory systems need to be activated at the same time: *motivation memory* (which is content-independent, that is, when it is activated, it serves as a continuous source of activation supporting any structure that is currently dominant in other memory systems) and *action memory* (which contains behavioural programmes for the performance of the particular act). An activated plan with support from the motivation memory system becomes what Kuhl (1987, p. 284) calls a "dynamic plan", which means that the

execution process has been instigated. From this point on the motivation system carries out a new, chiefly maintenance role, that is, it keeps sustaining (energising) the pursuit of the intention and also protecting it against the detrimental effects of competing plans. Once the plan has been completed, the motivation system is turned off. If the execution of the plan is unsuccessful, an attempt is made to abandon the plan.

### **2.5.3 Post-actional stage**

The post-actional stage begins after either the goal has been attained or the action has been terminated. The main processes during this stage entail evaluating the accomplished action or outcome and planning possible suggestions to be drawn for future actions. Dörnyei (2005) mentions that the post-actional stage, is where there is an evaluation of the learning process after the goals have been achieved by analysing students' past experiences and setting future learning objectives. It is in this post-actional stage of the Process Model that teacher feedback is given an important role. As it is expected, after receiving feedback, students will evaluate their language development and take the necessary measures to improve their linguistic performance. Nevertheless, as learners also evaluate their whole learning know-how at this stage, if they are not satisfied with what they attained from language instruction, which involves corrective recast as one of its most important teaching schemes, they might get discouraged and decide not to continue following their goal of learning an L2.

Moreover, Dörnyei (2005) also clarifies that all of these factors which are found along the *Process Model of L2 Motivation* can relate with each other at different stages as they “do not necessarily exclude each other, but can be valid at the same time” (p. 86). Therefore, as corrective recast is one of the most frequently used teaching strategies and it is present throughout the learning process, it might affect motivation at any point in these three motivational stages, especially if the learners' objectives are not met because of insufficient or inefficient use of recast. Finally, since the model concerns motivation to learn an L2, attitudes

toward the L2 and L2 learning (captured by Gardner's concept of *integrativeness*) also play a crucial role in making any L2-related motivational decisions (e.g. language choice, the decision to start L2 learning or to visit the L2 community for learning's sake).

For example, in a study carried out by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), 200 Hungarian language teachers were asked to rank a selection of 51 teaching strategies they considered essential to motivate students. One of these strategies that Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) classified as a "teacher-specific motivational component" (p. 207) was teacher feedback. Teacher feedback in this study is seen as an influential factor in the "direct socialization of student motivation", which is defined as the ability to stimulate learners' motivation and self-confidence (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p. 211). According to Dörnyei (1994), consistent feedback is essential to maintaining L2 motivation as it "carries a clear message about the teacher's priorities and is reflected in the students' motivation" (p. 278). Nonetheless, he also advises not to overreact to language errors, but rather to focus on the students' L2 achievements (Dörnyei, 1994).

Calderon (2013) and Septiana et al (2016) adopted the model to examine teacher feedback and argued that feedback was considered the utmost priority of the student so as to evaluate their language building and take the necessary measures to improve their linguistic performance. For instance, Calderon (2013) used a mixed-methods approach to examine the beliefs of 247 high school students and their 12 EFL teachers about corrective feedback in terms of its types, frequency, and their positive and negative attitudes towards it. Data were gathered by the use of questionnaire administered and interviews conducted, teacher and learner perspectives on error correction were compared within and across schools to identify differences that might affect students' L2 motivation. The results revealed that in both research settings there were obvious differences between teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback. Whereas students expressed positive views of corrective feedback and its

effectiveness as well as preferences for explicit types of correction, teachers were uncertain of its effectiveness and concerned about its effect on learners' confidence. Therefore, teachers reported preferences for more implicit types of feedback.

Furthermore, their findings revealed that as the learners assess the learning process to what they perceive, if they are not adequately satisfied with the instructions given, it can deter them from pursuing their goal of learning a second language. In all, learner motivation has a significant role in second language learning, since learners compare what they perceive to what has been given them and thence take a stance in securing the new language they wish to learn. As learners also evaluate their whole learning know-how in this stage, if they are not satisfied with what they attained from language instruction, which involves corrective recast as one of its most important teaching schemes, they might discontinue following their goal of learning an L2.

## **2.6 Students' perception of feedback**

Some of the students might have a positive and also negative attitude toward feedback given by the teacher while he or she is correcting the errors produced by the students. Most of the students want to be corrected by their teacher while they are producing an error. They might feel frustrated if the teacher ignored them. Fang and Xue-Mei (2007) indicate that the students often feel upset after being corrected by their teacher because there is a great gap between themselves and their teachers in understanding the error correction through giving feedback. Sometimes when the teacher corrects the errors made by the students, the students do not know what has been corrected or what has to be corrected. Students are confused and this cannot enhance language learning.

Important early studies of learners' perceptions were conducted in L2 classroom contexts by researchers like Allwright (1984) and Slimani (1989). They found that learners' reports were idiosyncratic and that learners' perceptions about the same classroom event

differed considerably. Roberts (1995) also examined how much students noticed error correction provided to them by teachers in a college-level L2 Japanese class. His results showed that of 92 total instances of error correction, the students were able to identify 32 on average (35%) and understood about 19 (21%). Roberts hypothesised that the efficacy of error correction is not only related to students' perceptions about corrections, but also the understanding of the nature of those corrections, including the target of the feedback and the type of feedback. Indeed, according to Schmidt (2001), perception of recasts is a vehicle for internalizing the linguistic information in recasts (reformulation embedded in recasts). Likewise, Carroll (2000), in her detectable hypothesis, claims that for implicit feedback to be effective, learners must recognize the linguistic problems targeted by the feedback. Mackey (2006) empirically proved a positive relationship between learner perception of feedback and subsequent L2 learning.

Using a method similar to that of Roberts (1995), Mackey et al (2000) found that learners' perceptions about corrective feedback were influenced by the linguistic target of the feedback. Ten learners of English as a second language (ESL) and seven learners of Italian as a foreign language (IFL) participated in dyadic interactional tasks with native speakers and were provided with corrective feedback in the form of negotiations and recasts. Immediately after the completion of the task activities, each learner viewed the recorded interaction and took part in a stimulated recall interview. Gass and Mackey (2000), provide a complete detail about the stimulated recall. This study found that learners were most accurate in their perceptions about lexical and phonological feedback, and much less accurate in terms of their perceptions about morphosyntactic feedback. Morphosyntactic feedback was often perceived as about semantics for the ESL learners and lexis for the IFL learners.

Mackey et al (2000) proposed that inaccurate perceptions about morphosyntactic feedback stemmed from the fact that morphosyntax often does not interfere with understanding

in the same manner as incorrect pronunciation or inaccurate lexical usage. In a conceptual replication of Mackey et al (2000), Gass and Lewis (2007) examined Italian heritage and non-heritage learners' perceptions about corrective feedback. Their results showed that both non-heritage language learners and heritage language learners perceived phonological and lexical feedback much more accurately than morphosyntactic feedback. Perceptions about semantic feedback differed between the two groups. The non-heritage learners were generally not accurate in terms of their perceptions about semantic feedback, whereas the heritage learners perceived semantic feedback accurately approximately 70% of the time.

Also using the stimulated recall method, Kim and Han (2007) found a significant relationship between students' perceptions about corrective feedback and the type of linguistic target. They investigated the extent to which teacher intent and learner interpretation (perceptions) overlap. They also explored the extent to which learners accurately perceive the gap between their non-target-like output and the linguistic information contained in the recasts, and whether their recognition is affected by the types of linguistic. The same study by Kim and Han (2007) also investigated the relationship between students' perceptions about the linguistic target of corrective feedback concerning different types of recasts. They found that learners perceived teachers' corrective intentions when corrective feedback was provided through declarative recasts more often than when interrogative recasts were used. They argued that an interrogative recast may be interpreted as either corrective or as a request to confirm the intended meaning (Kim & Han, 2007).

Egi (2010) also examined how types of feedback, specifically the particular characteristics of recasts in terms of length and number of changes, might be related to learners' perceptions about recasts. Forty-nine learners of Japanese as a foreign language participated in dyadic communicative interactions with a native speaker who provided recasts of their non-target-like production. Immediate and reflective comments were gathered from the learners to



examine how they interpreted recasts. Their perceptions about recasts were significantly related to recasting length and the number of changes made to the learner's original problematic utterance. Learners were less likely to understand that they were being corrected when recasts were longer and involved multiple changes. In contrast, they were more likely to understand they were receiving negative and positive evidence when recasts were shorter and involved minimal changes. These findings suggest that examination of the relationship between different types of recasts and other types of feedback, on the one hand, and perceptions about the linguistic target, on the other, would be helpful. In addition to the target of feedback and the type of feedback, research has focused on the effects of the nature of learner participation on learners' perceptions about corrective feedback.

In a study, Nabei and Swain (2002) discovered that their participants often did not attend to feedback if it was targeted towards other learners. However, Ohta (2000) reported the contradictory finding that learners were most likely to react to recasts that were not addressed to them. Kim and Han (2007), revealed that learners were found to perceive the target of teachers' corrective feedback equally well irrespective of whether they were the direct or indirect addressees. Due to these contradictory findings, the relationship between the nature of learner participation and learners' perceptions about corrective feedback is still unclear. While previous studies have examined learners' perceptions with the type of feedback, the target of the feedback, and the nature of learner participation, a common limitation of many of them are rooted in the lack of attention given to teachers' perceptions about their corrective feedback intentions.

Only one study, Kim and Han (2007), considered the degree to which teachers' and learners' perceptions overlapped. Some researchers have investigated teachers' and students' perceptions of error correction and found mismatches between them. For example, Schulz's (1996, 2001) studies revealed that students' attitudes and preferences toward grammar

instruction and error correction were more favourable than their teachers' preferences; that is, learners want more error correction. Also, Katayama (2007) investigated Japanese students' preferences toward classroom oral error correction. The results indicated that students preferred teacher correction and having their pragmatic errors corrected over the other types of errors. Yet, one would readily admit that it is important for learners to feel that their perceived needs are being catered for if they are to develop a positive attitude toward what they are learning.

More preference for explicit recast was also revealed in a study by Amador (2008) who surveyed twenty-three beginners of English from the University of Costa Rica's School of Modern Languages. Students were presented with twenty different correction techniques for errors that took place in interactional dialogue between teacher-student and student-student. Students were asked to indicate their preference by circling the letter of their choice. The results were in line with Sheen's (2006) study, indicating a preference for explicit recast techniques. Schulz's (1996) study also revealed that 90% of the learners had a positive attitude towards error correction and grammar instruction more than their teachers' attitudes. In the same vein, Ancker (2000) surveyed teachers' and students' perceptions in 15 countries, focusing on whether teachers should correct every error students make when using English. The results showed a 25% positive response for teachers and a 76% positive response for the students. The negative impact of the correction on students' confidence and motivation was the teachers' concern though the students wanted corrections to speak English correctly.

## **2.7 Related studies**

Kim (2009) study examined how learners respond to recasts provided in the classroom. The study investigated whether or not learner uptake was related to learner perception of recasts and how the quality of learner uptake was associated with the depth of learner awareness. Nine intact English classrooms were observed and videotaped. Eighty-eight students participated in either oral or written stimulated recall sessions. They viewed the video clips of their classes

and recalled the moments when they received recasts. The analyses of classroom interaction and students' comments indicated that they responded to recasts to a considerable extent when they had an opportunity for uptake. Learner uptake of recasts was found to be related to learner perception of recasts. It was also revealed that the students much more frequently perceived the gap when they showed successful uptake compared to the cases where they did not. Teachers, oftentimes, continue talking after providing recasts (Kim, 2009; Nabei & Swain, 2002). In this regard, it is not logical to evaluate the effectiveness of recasts in L2 learning according to the frequency of learner uptake that follows recasts.

Amara (2016) in his paper discussed the characteristics of recasts that influence their effectiveness in the classroom. It was stated in his work that, although recasts are incidental and provide implicit negative feedback, they may range in degree of explicitness and salience depending on their characteristics. His result refutes all previous studies that teacher recasts may go unnoticed by ESL learners when he used 10 undergraduate students from the department of English at Sabratha University. Teacher recasts might be known to be less capable of eliciting uptake than other feedback types. But, in fact, according to his study, some recasts may enhance the salience of positive and negative evidence depending on how they are provided (Loewen and Philp, 2006; Sheen 2006).

On the other hand, Kim (2009), Nabei and Swain (2002), and Oliver (1995) argue that learners do not always have the opportunity to respond to recast. The teacher oftentimes continues to talk after he has provided recasts. As regards this, it is not logical to evaluate the effectiveness of recasts in L2 learning according to the frequency of learner uptake that follows recast. He adopted two test instruments in his work: (a) classroom observation and (b) a follow-up semi-structured interview. The classroom observation was purposely used to closely monitor student's interaction with their teacher and to check on student's uptake. Also, the

follow-up semi-structured interview was conducted to obtain in-depth information about the students' reactions.

That is, these self-reported data were elicited to see whether the students could notice the recasts or not and whether they were able to repair their original form. The interviews have been used in such studies to examine whether a learner could recognize the teacher recasts. Gass (1997) justified the use of this approach by the role of noticing in L2 learning, and that noticing is argued to be the condition under which language learning could take place. His findings were that the teachers in his study used recasts that were mainly short, unstressed, and aimed at a single change. It was demonstrated that teacher recasts are noticed despite the absence of intonation and stress. Based on the interview, all participants noticed the teacher recasts during the interaction without even using the intonation or stressing the erroneous part.

Hawkes (2007) investigated the ability of adult ESL learners to detect, correct, and the speed at which they detect errors in their speech. Her findings demonstrated that recasts do not necessarily need to be provided intensively to be effective even a single recast can be of benefit to students. This result affirms Loewen and Philp's (2006) findings that spontaneous and extensive recast can benefit students. An experimental within-subject design was employed where each participant served in more than one experimental condition. She conducted a pilot study with 4 students two months before the main study to test on the procedure (this was to help her make adjustments to the procedure and she discussed this at the pre/post-test and individualised studies. The students were all enrolled in intermediate-level classes at the English Language Centre at the University of Victoria at the time of the study. Intermediate-level students were chosen as their English proficiency is high enough to allow for a fair amount of discussion but low enough that they were predicted to make errors during the oral interaction.

Hawkes (2007) work penned down lots of pedagogical implications that highlighted on complex and complicated key areas. Previous studies that have examined intensive recasts may

have made teachers feel that recasts could only be beneficial if they were provided intensively. Her study showed that recasts can be effective when provided in response to a wide range of linguistic errors, even if some linguistic forms receive only one recast. As such, teachers should not be discouraged from incorporating spontaneous, extensive recasts into communicative-based oral interaction with their students. Besides, the benefit of recasts demonstrated in her study motivates the inclusion of instruction on recasts in teacher training programs. Specifically, teachers-in-training should be made aware of what recasts are, their benefits to students, and how they can be incorporated into meaning-based student-teacher interaction to achieve focus-on-form goals within the classroom.

Carpenter et al (2006) showed that learners were significantly less successful at distinguishing recasts from repetitions. Egi (2007) found that when recasts were long and substantially different from their problematic utterances, learners tended to interpret them as responses to content. So, the researcher suggested that the length of recast and number of changes might partially determine the explicitness of recasts and thus affected the learners' interpretation. Nakatsukasa (2012) investigated the perceptions about feedback in Arabic foreign language classrooms. Corrective feedback was provided during authentic lessons on a range of linguistic targets (e.g. phonology, morphology/lexis, and syntax) in many different ways (e.g. explicit feedback and implicit feedback, including declarative/interrogative recasts and negotiation). Shortly after the language classes, the teachers and their students viewed video clips of feedback episodes and provided comments about the episodes. These comments were analysed for evidence as to whether or not the learners understood the intentions of the teachers who provided the corrective feedback. The results demonstrated that learners' perceptions and teachers' intentions about the linguistic target of corrective feedback overlapped the most when feedback concerned lexis and was provided explicitly. Also, the

linguistic targets of the feedback were perceived more accurately when feedback was directed at the learners themselves rather than at their classmates.

Aghaei (2013) designed a study to figure out the Iranian EFL learners' general attitudes and preferences toward the effect of recast on the quality of their oral output. The results indicated a positive attitude toward recast as one strategy of error correction in speaking. Most of the students reported that they want their teacher to correct all the oral errors they make. Also, the findings suggested that the students insist on the quality of their oral output by weighting accuracy more than fluency. The results indicated that they prefer to be corrected even if the correction interrupts their flow of communication. Besides, they maintained that extensive error correction in the form of recast by the teacher had improved the quality of their speaking. Furthermore, they believed that if their errors were not corrected in the form of restatements, their oral output quality would have decreased because their productions would have been less accurate.

The results of Aghaei (2013) study suggested a positive and favourable attitude toward error correction in the form of recast and illustrated that recast can have positive effects on the quality of EFL students' oral output. The findings of the study proved that, it can contribute to developing a clearer understanding of students' perceptions toward recast strategy as one type of error correction. In a different exploratory study that involved 824 American FL students and their 92 teachers, Schulz (1996) examined student and teacher perception of grammar instruction and corrective feedback. According to this author, several applied linguists and teachers have reservations about corrective feedback due to the assumption that "it may activate the 'affective filter' by raising the students' level of anxiety which, in turn, prevents the learner from actually acquiring community ability" (p. 344).

The supporters of this view claim that due to universal grammar, L2 learners will eventually acquire grammatical forms regardless of the type of instruction or corrective

feedback. However, in his research, Schulz (1996) found that while students might be afraid of making errors, they were surprisingly receptive to corrective feedback. Indeed, 90% of them expected to have their oral errors regularly corrected, while only 34% of their teachers agreed with that statement. These results show a notorious disparity between teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback, which Schulz (1996) considers an important pedagogical implication since “students whose instructional expectations are not met may consciously or subconsciously question the credibility of the teacher and/or the instructional approach in cases where corrective feedback is not provided” (p. 349).

In a follow-up study which included 607 Colombian FL students and 122 language teachers as well as the 824 students and 92 teachers who participated in the first study, Schulz (2001) intended to compare teachers and learners perspectives on the role of corrective feedback, and explicit grammar instructions in two FL contexts; EFL in Colombia and German, French, Italian, Spanish, Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian as a foreign language in the U.S. on this occasion, she found that, while there were no significant differences between the two cultural groups, there was again striking disagreement between the teacher and learner perspective on corrective feedback, showing “evidence of a strong positive belief on the part of the students of both cultures that explicit grammar study and corrective feedback play a positive role in FL learning” (pp. 253-254).

In another descriptive inquiry-based study about student and teacher perspectives on different aspects of grammar instruction, Jean and Simard (2011) investigated the beliefs of 2,321 high school French as a second language (FSL) and English as a second language (ESL) students and 45 teachers in Canada. One of their main findings was that teachers prefer to correct only those mistakes that impede communication to not interrupt the flow of language and not to affect their students’ confidence. Conversely, learners expressed that they “should get their oral errors corrected all the time” (Jean & Simard, 2011, p. 474). The results suggest

that corrective feedback does not necessarily have a detrimental effect on student motivation considering that in fact “students believed even more than teachers in the value of error correction” (p. 478). However, teacher and learner beliefs about corrective feedback seem to be completely dissimilar.

Lee (2013) carried out another study regarding teacher and learner preferences of corrective recast in a large public university in the USA. His study involved 60 graduate students with a high level of English proficiency and four native-speaker ESL teachers. Data were collected through Likert-scale questionnaires and follow-up interviews. Similarly, the results showed great inconsistency between teachers’ and learners’ preferences in terms of types of feedback and frequency of feedback. While students expressed that they would like to be corrected all the time, teachers did not agree to that statement and they even expressed that “they did not feel an obligation to provide recast for all the students’ errors” (p.8). Regarding types of recast, students preferred to receive immediate explicit correction, whereas teachers were more inclined to use implicit recast and delayed correction even though they were “aware of the significance of their recast feedback and the effectiveness of immediate correction to correct the students’ errors and improve their speech” (Lee, 2013, p. 8).

In another study, Kaivanpanah, Alvia & Sepehrinia (2012) investigated the views of 154 EFL Iranian learners and 25 EFL teachers about oral corrective feedback through questionnaire and in-depth interviews. They aimed to compare the learners’ preferences among three groups with different proficiency levels, and also between students and their teachers. Results yielded significant differences between students and teachers regarding the immediacy of feedback and attitudes towards peer correction. Regarding the latter, learners felt more positive about peer feedback than their teachers due to the educators’ assumption that “teachers are conventionally seen as the primary source of knowledge” and that students might receive peer feedback as criticism (p. 10). In terms of immediacy of feedback, whereas learners again



had a positive attitude towards immediate feedback, teachers seemed concerned about “undermining learners’ self-confidence and damaging their self-esteem in front of their classmates by on-the-spot correction” (p. 14).

Many factors contribute to the choice and the tendency of corrective recast. One of these factors is gender. With this, Khorshidi and Rassaei (2013) state that gender is one of the aspects of psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic mechanisms. When considering the students’ gender, the students’ preferences on CF might also be different. Here, a different gender between male and female students may have different preferences. They will accept and respond to the teachers’ OCF in different ways. In this case, Havnes et al (2012) argue that individual and situational characteristics can have a potential effect on how the students prefer those Oral Corrective recast strategies. Thus, in providing OCF for correcting the students’ errors, the teacher needs to understand what the male and female students expected in the learning process.

## **2.8 Conclusion**

Errors serve as a subtle means of evaluation of the teaching-learning act to determine its success or otherwise. If students commit more errors during or at the end of the lesson, in some aspects of the language, it shows that the objective set by the teacher has not been achieved. On the contrary, if fewer errors are committed, the teacher is encouraged to build on what the learners have learnt after he/she has corrected the errors exhibited. Recast is one form where a teacher can give feedback to students to maintain the smooth transition of teaching and learning and to help students develop self-confidence in their attempt to learn the second language.

It has been suggested by Gass and Selinker (2008) that “in any learning situation, not all humans are equally motivated to learn languages, nor are they equally motivated to learn a specific language” (p. 165). Thus, teachers should be sensitive to students’ attitudes to

language, particularly to error correction although it might be argued that learners' preference may not be what is best for acquisition (Truscott, 1996). For this reason, this study aims to find out the students' perception toward recast by teachers in correcting oral errors and also the types of recast the students prefer depending on the type of error students make (grammatical, phonological or lexical errors) at Senior High School level in three Senior High Schools in the Mampong Municipal area in Asante Mampong in the Ashanti region. The next chapter presents the methodological aspects of this investigation, which include information about the participants, the instruments, the data collection, and the data analysis.



## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.0 Introduction

Freeman (2011) states that research can shed light on issues we did not even know. He further emphasizes that research is a systematic way of asking questions we had considered unnecessary. This chapter discusses the methods and procedures employed in the gathering of data for the study. The discussion focuses on the approach, research design, data source, and population of the study, the sample size, and the ethical issues. The rest of the discussion focuses on sampling techniques, and data collection procedures, and data analysis.

#### 3.1 Research approach

To gain an in-depth understanding of the topic, this study used the mixed-methods approach. This research process can be seen as qualitative and quantitative (Morse, 1991). Mixed methods is defined as “research in which the investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study” (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2000, p. 4). Quantitative versus qualitative debates have resulted in a deception that the two approaches are mutually exclusive (Sandelowski, 2001), and the practice disciplines are sometimes overly concerned with “methodological acrobatics” (Sandelowski, 2001, p. 335). Some researchers believe that competition between paradigms is not helpful and focus on ways in which traditional rivalries may be usefully combined (Sale, et al, 2002; Stevenson, 2005). It is proposed that mixed methods is the third paradigm, capable of bridging the gap between the quantitative and qualitative positions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This type of mixed methods approach also has a primary method for collecting data and a secondary one to support it. In this case, there is a primary focus on quantitative data, which were collected through questionnaires and a secondary (qualitative one), which was an in-depth interview with students and observation.

### **3.2 Research design**

The study adopted a convergent parallel design. It entails that the researcher concurrently conducts the quantitative and the qualitative elements in the same phase of the research process, weighs the methods equally, analyses the two components independently, and interprets the results together ( Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. Creswell (2009) observes that the purpose of this design is to answer different questions that require different types of data. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) add that the collection and analysis of the second data set may occur before, during, and/or after the first data collection.

### **3.3 Population**

Best and Khan (1995) intimate that a research population is a group of individuals that have one or more characteristics in common and of interest to the researcher. It also refers to the group of interest to the researcher, the group to which they would like the results of the study to be generalized. The target population of this study consists of Senior High Schools in the Mampong Municipal area, Asante Mampong in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The study involved 300 Ghanaian ESL learners from three Senior High Schools in the Asante Mampong Municipal area. The researcher chose these schools because she wanted to have fair knowledge about the work, so any of the schools qualified to be a part of the work. According to Walter (1998), the advantage of drawing a small sample from a larger target population is that it saves the researcher the time and expenses of studying the entire population.

### **3.4 Data sources**

Gay (1992) indicates that all research studies, which involve data collection, are designed to either test hypotheses or answer research questions. This study aimed at answering research questions with data from the basic source, students. Data were collected with

questionnaire and interview. The researcher administered 300 questionnaire; the model of questionnaire items that the researcher used in this study was adopted from Calderon (2013) which contained 15 statements with four alternative options namely 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'agree' and 'strongly agree' and four multiple-choice questions. Also, some of the questions in the questionnaire were inspired by Kartchava (2016).

### **3.5 Sample and sampling technique**

The sample of this study comprised 300 students. The sampling technique of a study as advanced by Given (2008) is dependent on the objectives of the study. For the quantitative data, the researcher used the random sampling technique to select three out of the five Senior High Schools in the municipality. With this, the researcher wrote the names of the schools on pieces of papers, folded them, and asked someone to pick randomly. The name of the schools picked were then used for the study. According to Lindolf and Taylor (2002), sampling technique guides researchers in their choices of whom to observe or whom to interview. The random sampling method is a part of the sampling technique in which each sample has an equal probability of being chosen. A sample chosen randomly is meant to be an unbiased representation of the total population. The rationale behind having three different research settings is the comparison of learner views within and across schools. Again, a simple random sampling was used to select two classes each from SHS1 and SHS 3 in each school. All the students in the selected classes who were willing to participate in the study constituted the sample for the study. In all, 300 students comprising 125 SHS 3 and 175 SHS 2 students were selected across the three SHS for the study. Fifteen (15) students were randomly selected from the 300 students for the focus group interview.

#### **3.5.1 Analysis of bio-data**

The result of the distribution of participants by gender is presented in Table 1. From Table 1, it can be observed that 165 out of the 300 students representing 55.0% were males

while the remaining 135 representing 45.0% were females. This means that the male students in the study outnumber the females. This is because the male students are more than their female counterparts in the school.

*Table 3.5.1. Gender distribution of respondents*

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Male	165	55.0
Female	135	45.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>300</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### **3.6 Data collection instruments**

The instruments that were used in the study were questionnaires and interviews.

#### **3.6.1 Questionnaire**

A questionnaire is a very convenient way of collecting useful comparable data from a large number of individuals. However, a questionnaire can only produce valid and meaningful results if the questions are clear and precise, and if they are asked consistently across all respondents. A questionnaire is defined as “a document containing questions and other types of items designed to solicit information appropriate to analysis” (Babbie, 1990, p. 377). The model of questionnaire items that the researcher used in this study was adapted from Calderon (2013) and Kartchava (2016). The questionnaire had 29 Likert-type items related to students’ perception of recast with six alternative options namely *strongly disagree*, *fairly disagree*, *disagree*, *agree*, *fairly agree*, and *strongly agree*. A Likert scale is commonly used to measure attitudes, knowledge, perceptions, values, and behavioural changes. Also, Likert-type scales are easy to construct and as much provide the researcher with the opportunity to compute frequencies and percentages, as well as statistics such as means and standard deviation of scores. This invariably, allows for more sophisticated statistical analyses of variance and factor

analysis to be performed on the data (Page-Bucci, 2003). Again, Likert-type scales are often found to provide data with relatively high reliability (Gable & Wolf, 1993).

Robson (2002) indicates that Likert-scales look interesting to respondents and people enjoy completing a scale of this kind. The 29 Likert-scale was designed to collect information about student preferences regarding a) the type of recast, b) the frequency of recast, as well as c) their attitude towards recast. It was also geared towards finding out the areas students would want to receive recast in. The second part of the questionnaire contained five multiple-choice questions, which were included to collect information on the type of recast students prefer depending on the type of error they make (grammatical, phonological, and lexical). With the fourth research question, data were collected through an in-depth focus-group interview to find out the effect of recast on learners' motivation to learn English.

### **3.6.2 Interview**

According to Kvale (1999), an interview is an interchange of views between two people on a topic of mutual interest. In addition, Best and Khan (1995) assert that an interview is in a sense, an oral questionnaire, and its major reason is the fact that many people are willing to talk than to write. Therefore, it is foreseen that more data would be readily provided with an interview than with a questionnaire. To complement the primary quantitative data source, post-questionnaire focus-group interviews were carried out at the three research sites with volunteer participants. The interviews were semi-structured and consisted of six questions. The content of the questions focused primarily on the effect that recast had on the students' motivation to learn English. Nonetheless, the interviews also provided information to confirm students' preferences regarding the type and frequency of recast. Therefore, all the guiding interview questions were inspired by the students.

The researcher established good rapport with the respondents to put the respondents at ease as suggested by Lindolf and Taylor (2002). This helps to set the tone that relaxes people

and to make them share their intimate thoughts. In all the interviews, the researcher interacted with the interviewees in English. This was intentional and strategic so as to see how well they express themselves in the English language and can accept recast even when it is not coming from their teacher. English language was used to inform students that language learning does not only end in the classroom environment but does continue even outside the classroom and that the more we speak, the more we become fluent.

### **3.7 Data collection procedure**

Before administering the instruments, the researcher sought permission from the heads of the various schools and made her intentions (objectives) known to them. The researcher also randomly selected the teachers who would help in the administering of the questionnaire to the students and explained to them the purpose of the study. In all, three teachers were selected; one teacher for each school. The time allotted for answering the questionnaire, as well as all the necessary procedures they would have to follow, was made known to them. Students were briefed and exposed to the dos and don'ts as far as the questionnaire is concerned. The questionnaire administration took approximately 35 minutes; 5 minutes for instructions and 30 minutes for answering and collecting them.

The role of the researcher was to ensure that every student understood the instructions and to collect all of the questionnaires once answered. As regards the interview, 5 students who answered the questionnaire were randomly selected from each school to take part in the focus-group interview. Students were assured of the confidentiality of whatever will transpire between them and the interviewer. The allotted time for the interview was made known to the students to psych them to at least spend some time with the researcher to answer some questions. Approximate time of 12:43 seconds was spent with students from School A; 10:31 seconds for School B; 12:31 seconds for School C. Six questions were asked in the interview section, with each student given the chance to express his /her view on each question. Although



the questions were semi-structured, follow-up questions came in as and when students answered the questions. All interviews were audio-recorded to facilitate transcription. All focus-group interviews took place in the classroom with only the students who volunteered to take part in the interview.

### **3.8 Data analysis**

The data collected through the questionnaire were analysed employing descriptive statistics. The first part of the questionnaire which corresponds to the 15 Likert-scale questions was analysed via the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Data on Research Questions 1, 2, and 3 were analyzed with descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation). This is because while Research Question 1 sought to find out students' views on types of recast; Research Question 2 sought to describe their attitude on recast, and Research Question 3 sought to find out types of recast depending on the type of error. Gyamfi (2019) opines that descriptive statistics are used to analyze data that seek to explain, describe, and help to understand the variable being investigated. The second part of the questionnaire, which consisted of multiple-choice questions, was descriptively analyzed utilizing frequency distributions. This is a form of data tabulation that indicates the number of times participants choose one of the three or four possible answers on the multiple-choice section (Hinkle et al, 2003). Frequencies and percentages were used because the Research Question sought to find the type of recast students prefer depending on the error they make.

Finally, the in-depth interviews were analyzed by the use of coding to prepare the data for content analysis and, thus, identifying the emerging themes for further interpretation. The coding process involved labelling recurrent words and ideas that were common to all three interviews as they emerged from reading, and making notes to keep a record of some early interpretations. Following this, the content analysis entailed a thorough comparison of the main ideas found in the three interviews. More specifically, the interviews were compared between

students from the three schools. Based on this analysis, the most important and recurrent themes were categorized and interpretations were made emphasizing differences and similarities between the group samples. The qualitative method was used to analyse responses from and students during the interview. The responses of the interview were transcribed and grouped to answer Research Question 4 specifically, and the other research questions. Data were analysed using the narrative approach. Braun and Clarke (2006) state that narrative analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting verbatim the responses of the respondents.

### **3.9 Ethical issues**

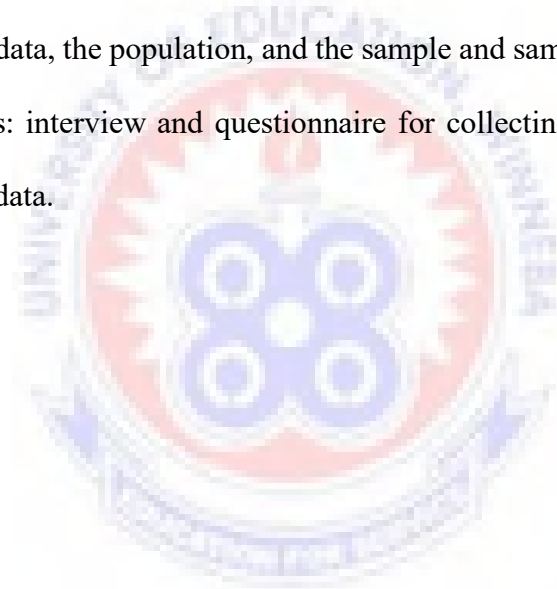
Ethics, when applied to research, is concerned with the creation of a trusting relationship between those who are researched and the researcher. To ensure that trust is established communication must be carefully planned and managed, that risks are minimised and benefits are maximised. In developing a trusting relationship, researchers adhere to several ethical principles that they apply to their work - namely beneficence; autonomy; non-maleficence; justice; veracity; and privacy. In this research I respected the confidentiality and anonymity of my research participants - it is an extension of privacy but relates specifically to the agreements made between the researcher and participants about what can and cannot be done with the information collected throughout a project. Also, I sought their well-informed consent before I carried out any plan. Informed consent is best understood by looking at what it means to be informed and to give consent. Being informed means that participants are told everything that might or will occur during a study in a way in which they can understand.

Giving consent implies that a) the agreement to participate is voluntary, free from coercion and undue influence, and b) that the person providing the consent is competent to make a rational and mature judgment about taking part. If the criteria of being informed and giving consent are met, then informed consent is said to be given. The participants were also

allowed to participate in this study voluntarily without any coercion or monetary gains. Lastly, I made sure not to do any harm to my participants. The principle of non-maleficence places an obligation on researchers not to harm others or expose people to unnecessary risks. Harm can come in many forms, from blows to self-esteem to looking bad to others, to loss of funding or earnings, to boredom, frustration, or time-wasting. It is good practice to assume that every research project will involve some form of harm and to consider in advance how best to deal with it.

### **3.10 Conclusion**

This chapter discussed the procedure adopted for the study. It discussed the design for the research, sources of data, the population, and the sample and sampling technique as well as the research instruments: interview and questionnaire for collecting data and the techniques used in interpreting the data.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter presents the results obtained from the analysis of data: questionnaire and interview. It deals with the presentation and analysis of the data collected from the students that participated in the study. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. The data were analyzed and discussed according to the research questions. The results indicated that some students prefer explicit recast to other types of recast and that they would want to be corrected always even if it will interrupt learning. On the other hand, some students also preferred the implicit type of recast since it does not interrupt the learning process. Seedhouse (1997) found that a reactive focus on the form could be effectively provided in the classroom through the use of implicit recast. Implicit recast, as opposed to explicit recast, is less intrusive to the flow of communication or focus on the task. They expressed a positive attitude towards recast as a way of helping them learn the new language (English Language). This chapter looked at the learners' perceptions of particular types of recast: students' views on recast by teachers; frequency of recast by teachers. It further looked at the attitudes towards recast: positive attitude towards recast; negative attitude towards recast. Also the types of recast students prefer depending on the error they commit: Grammar; phonology; Lexical. The chapter again looked at the extent to which learner perspective on recast affect L2 motivation: Positive effects of recast to students; Motivation to learn English. It ended with a summary and a conclusion.

#### **4.1 Learners' perceptions of particular types of recast**

This section presents findings on different perceptions for particular types of recast methods among students. Students were asked to agree or disagree with the stated type of recast methods their teachers use during classroom interaction. During the focus group interview,

students were asked to reply to questions on the particular type of recast they prefer their teachers use during classroom interaction.

#### 4.1.1 Students' views on recast by teachers

Under this study of students' views on recast by teachers, results from the questionnaire were analyzed using means and standard deviation. The results shown in Table 4.1.1, which correspond to students' responses, indicate that there is a significant difference between students regarding the type of recast that students want.

*Table 4.1.1. Descriptive statistics of students' views of recast*

S/N	Statements	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	I like it when my teacher explicitly tells me I made a mistake and gives me the right version of what I said.	300	5.01	1.078
2	I like it when my teacher corrects my English without letting me know she/he is correcting me.	300	2.65	1.573
3	When correcting speaking errors, the teacher should not use negative words (e.g.: "All that you are saying is wrong" or "You don't understand anything" or "You don't know anything").	300	3.99	1.837
4	I like it when my teacher asks me to correct myself.	300	3.88	1.560
5	I like it when my teacher tells me what kind of mistake I made in a single turn.	300	4.09	1.623

The mean marks for the various types of recast proved that students' preference for explicit recast feedback (M= 5.01, SD= 1.078) is higher than the rest of the recast types. Their reasons for this particular type are that teachers point out their mistakes to them, indicating the particular part of error committed and correcting them. Also, the use of explicit recast comes with a directive that informs students that they have erred. This is in line with Amador (2008) and Sheen (2006), where the preference of recast type of students was known to be explicit

recast. Also, the current study affirms Lee's (2013) research regarding types of recast. The students preferred to receive immediate explicit correction, whereas teachers were more inclined to use implicit recast and delayed correction even though they were "aware of the significance of their recast feedback and the effectiveness of immediate correction to correct the students' errors and improve their speech" (Lee, 2013, p. 8).

Calderon's (2013) study which examined the beliefs of 247 high school students and their 12 EFL teachers about corrective feedback in terms of its types is also in line with this particular study where students in this current research and that of the former accept explicit recast feedback as the most important feedback. In contrast to what I found, Li (2010) had observed that recasts may be more beneficial for implicit knowledge only. From the interview, students expressed how they would prefer the use of explicit recast by their teachers as:

I like my teacher to correct me by pointing out my mistakes and improve them to give me the correct form. This will help me identify the particular error I committed.

I don't like it when my teacher repeats my mistakes and corrects me without me necessary knowing he/she is correcting me.

They repeat the mistakes. For example when you say 'he have' instead of he has, then he will correct you by telling you why the 'he have' is wrong.

They usually tell you the mistakes. For instance, 'the girl came here yesterday,' then we say 'the girl come here yesterday.' So they usually correct you by repeating the sentence for you to know the correct thing.

From the remarks, it could be said that students want their teachers to explicitly point out their erroneous utterance during classroom interaction. This will help them identify the various errors and improve upon them when the need comes to use the same expression again. This study confirms Calderon (2013), where the students she understudied also expressed interest in the use of explicit recast by their teachers. Schmidt (2001) also points out that it is necessary

to draw learners' attention to the formal properties of language to help them notice L2 form if they are to successfully learn them. Therefore, explicit recast is just a way to draw learners' attention to language form within the communicative context.

Explicit recast calls the learners' attention specifically to their having committed an error. Implicit feedback does not. For instance, Dabaghi (2008) investigated the effects of learners' grammatical errors on language acquisition. Specifically, it compared the effects of the manner of correction (explicit versus implicit correction). It also investigated the relative effects of explicit and implicit correction of morphological versus syntactic features and correction of developmental late features. Results showed that the participants who received explicit correction gained significantly higher scores than those who received the implicit correction. Analyses of the interactions between independent variables showed that explicit correction was more effective for the acquisition of developmental early features and the implicit correction was more effective for the acquisition of developmental late features.

Furthermore, students chose the single-move recast representing ( $M= 4.9$ ,  $SD = 1.623$ ) as the second type of recast they prefer. A single recast is embedded in a single teacher turn; typically operationalized as short, one-turn response moves following a learner's erroneous utterance (Loewen, 2009). Additionally, Sheen (2006, p. 365) mentions that single-move recasts comprised only one recast move in a single turn. Single recasts prevent disrupting the communication flow, such that learners' cognitive resources can be distributed effectively, and attention can be simultaneously directed to meaning and form (Long, 2007). One contribution of recasting to L2 learning is the provision of both positive and negative evidence. Unlike Doughty (2001), Long (2015), and Goo and Mackey (2013), who argued that the corrective function of recasts is too implicit to be understood by learners (positive evidence), the current results indicated that Single- move recast could go a long way towards achieving this aim. These findings square with Hassanzadaeh, Marefat, and Ramezani (2019) who found that there

is a great impact of Single-move recast on L2 learner's implicit and explicit knowledge. The single-move recast is quite similar to implicit recast because the teacher will not explicitly point the erroneous part of the sentence but will correct the student by repeating only the correct version of the erroneous part. A student had this to say during the focus group interview:

I like it when my teacher corrects my incorrect part of an answer only once. When he does that it will not disrupt my attention.

This particular student believes that when the teacher uses the single-move recast, the flow of communication will not be interrupted.

Additionally, students selected the implicit recast next to single-move with a mean of 3.99. Students fully support the idea that teachers ought to refrain from using negative words whenever they are correcting them. More so, students would not want to feel bad in the presence of their peers when they are being corrected. As uttered by a student during the interview:

I want my teachers to correct my mistakes but I don't want them to point out the particular mistake I committed. If they do that I will not feel shy.

I want my teacher to correct me, but I don't want her to use negative words to tell me I have committed an error.

Sheen (2006) observes that the most common type of negative feedback used in the classroom is recasting. Long (2007, p.76) asserts that "implicit negative feedback in the form of corrective recasts seems particularly promising". In Ellis et al (2006), the implicit corrective feedback in their study takes the form of recast. So is the case with Ammar and Spada (2006), Long et al (1998), and so on. However, as pointed out by Ellis and Sheen (2006), recasts are not always as implicit as Long (1996, 2007) claims. For example, it might be argued that the recasts used in Doughty and Varela's (1998) study contain clear signals, such as repetition and stress, which made their corrective force quite explicit.



Now, Long (2007) asserts that implicit recast seems particularly promising. This was confirmed by Ellis et al (2001) as they mention that in a meaning-oriented language classroom teachers are more likely to use implicit than explicit recast. It allows the teachers to correct students' errors but will not say the utterance was wrong. Li (2010) found that the positive effect of implicit feedback was better maintained than that of explicit feedback. Moreover, he classified recasts and prompts as implicit, leaving metalinguistic correction, which is a type of prompt, and explicit correction in the explicit instruction group because they “overtly indicate that the learner’s L2 output was not acceptable” (p. 323). Conversely, the implicit correction does not provide an evident indication that an error has been committed (Sheen, 2011).

Though implicit recast is less abrupt and carries less risk of intimidating or embarrassing the student (Yoshida, 2008), it is by nature ambiguous in that it relies on the student identifying it as corrective feedback and identifying the error that prompted it (Ammar & Spada, 2006), and identifying the correct form with which to replace the error before the correction can be assimilated into the student’s interlanguage. With item four on the questionnaire, some students chose the non-corrective recast where the teacher does not correct a target but models a target (Farrar, 1992, p. 92). The teacher accepts an erroneous answer with a sign of approval. Some researchers like Panova & Lyster (2002) have wondered how learners distinguish recasts from non-corrective repetitions if they do so at all.

My teacher approves any answer I give when he asks you a question, and I like that.

I like my teacher to accept any answer I give when she asks me a question because if I am wrong and he corrects me my friends will laugh at me.

Lastly, students selected the full recast with a mean of 2.6 as a type of recast their teachers should use when correcting them. In full recasts, the whole erroneous utterance is repeated. When students were asked why they prefer the full recast they had this to say:

I want my teacher to repeat the whole sentence I give as an answer. If he does that, I will be able to correct myself when I am to use that expression again.

This study attests to Egi (2010) that while recasts and explicit correction provide the correct version for the learners, which in the case of recasts is implicit, prompts do not provide students with the correct form of the utterance, suggesting that different cognitive mechanisms need to be activated to repair the errors. Ellis (1994, p. 79) affirms that recasts create optimal opportunities for cognitive comparison because they are assumed to promote noticing of form while a focus on the meaning/message is maintained. To make recasts more explicit, one can adopt exaggerated intonation, excessive use of gesture, slowing down, and repetition (Littlemore, 2009, p. 187). It has been observed in many research works that, the lack of directives make recast go unnoticed by the students as a correction (Jensen, 2002; Yamamoto, 2003).

Gass (1997) on the other hand justified that, the role of noticing in L2 learning is a condition under which language learning could take place. If recasts are mainly short, unstressed, and aimed at a single change, recasts are noticed despite the absence of intonation and stress. A student from the focus group expressed interest in teachers using short, unstressed type of recast where she mentioned that:

I always prefer when my teacher uses short answers, a calm voice to correct my mistakes. I don't feel tensed when I receive such correction.

The current study proves that students notice recast when teachers use short and simple words during feedback. The characteristics of recast make it clear for students to identify the implicit or explicit type of recast. It was shown in an utterance made by a student during the focus group interview when some students said:

I always know when my teacher is correcting me when he or she uses simple and short words. The nature of the correction draws my attention to my mistakes.

Amara (2016) mentioned that although recasts are incidental and provide implicit negative feedback, they may range in degree of explicitness and salience depending on their characteristics. Sheen (2006) cautions, however, against assuming that all recasts qualify as implicit feedback, stating that recasts can be “made” explicit through factors such as emphasis and repetition. He again mentions that some types of recast may enhance the salience of positive and negative evidence depending on how they are provided.

Recast comes with correcting the specific areas where students have erred. Students would want their teachers to explicitly mention the type of error they have committed. They, therefore, have chosen the explicit recast over other types of a recast because explicit recast allows the teacher to reformulate all or part of the participant's utterance and will explicitly say that utterance was incorrect. In other words, it does not overtly mark the learner's production as non-target-like. It has been found that in meaning-oriented language classrooms, teachers are more likely to use implicit feedback than explicit feedback (Ellis et al, 2001).

Individual differences in second language learning have been explored from various angles, such as variation in learner IQ, different learning styles, personality, motivation, and attitude. Affective elements like learner anxiety have also been explored. What these areas have in common is that they can vary widely by individual. Considering these individual variations can lead to a better understanding of learners and how they learn. Having a deeper understanding of learner beliefs and preferences is important for both the learner and the instructor; “knowing what learners think about recast will help teachers to plan for and present information about learners' phonological, grammatical, or lexical accuracy that is in line with their contextually specific expectations and needs” (Kartchava, 2016, p. 20).

The beliefs that learners hold, according to Wenden (1999), can be defined as learners' metacognitive knowledge of learning. These beliefs, which influence their preferences about many things in the classroom, including how much recast is most desirable, can also influence

the way learners go about learning (Horwitz, 1999; Mori, 1999). It is through a better understanding of instructional practices and how they affect learner beliefs that teachers can help enable students to become more “thoughtful, independent, strategic language learners” (Mori, 1999, p. 410). Barcelos and Kalaja (2011) confirm that while some beliefs are common among learners, teachers, and age groups, these beliefs are highly dynamic because they can change depending on one’s situation, emotional state, and company. As students exhibited they would want their teachers to correct them using the various types of recast, it prompted the researcher to find out how they would want to receive the recast.

#### **4.1.2 Frequency of recast by teachers**

The frequency level at which students would want to be corrected was discussed under this particular section. Students were given the chance to agree or disagree with the stated options on the questionnaire to prove their level of agreement or disagreement. In terms of frequency, the results proved that students have various ways they would want to be corrected. Responses from the focus group discussion were also analysed. In Table 4.1.2, the various levels by which students want their recasts to show that students would always want their errors to be corrected, which might be due to the positive nature of recast. The mean rank of 4.91 indicates that teachers should correct students every time they make a mistake when speaking English. It is a fact that language instructors should not ignore students' erroneous statements whenever they are made, instead, they should correct them always to help in second language learning.

Table 4.1.2. Frequency of recast by teachers

S/N	Statements	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	Teachers of English should correct spoken errors as soon as they are made.	300	4.62	1.400
2	Teachers should correct students every time they make a mistake when speaking English.	300	4.91	1.368
3	The teacher should correct all errors of speaking even if they interrupt communication.	300	3.77	1.573
4	Teachers should correct students only when students cannot communicate clearly.	300	3.10	1.665
5	Teachers should never correct their students' mistakes when speaking English.	300	1.73	1.333

Statements from students during the focus group interview indicated that indeed they prefer their teachers to correct them every time they make mistakes. The students had this to say:

I want my teacher to correct me every time I make a mistake because it motivates me to learn more.

When my teacher corrects me every time I make a mistake, it will help me know the correct form to use when I am asked the same question next time.

The current study supports that of Lee (2013) who carried out a study regarding how students should be corrected and found that students desired to be corrected all the time. It is clear that the idea of students being corrected their errors is not limited to Ghanaian students but other countries. Students also expressed that their errors should be corrected as soon as they are made. With a mean mark of 4.6, from the analysis of the questionnaire, it portrays that students agree that their errors should be corrected immediately. Long (2007) notes that recasts are provided immediately after the learner's erroneous utterances. Hence, the juxtaposition of

the incorrect form and the correct form of the learner's utterance in recasts may trigger him/her to compare the difference (noticing the gap), and this has been considered a catalyst of second language (L2) learning. Students affirmed during the interview that teachers should correct their errors as soon as they are made. One student had this to say:

My mistakes should be corrected as soon as I make them so that I will compare the wrong and the correct one. It will help me identify the differences easily. But if the teacher waits for a while or even after the lesson before correcting me, I may not remember the wrong answer I gave earlier, and I will find it difficult to compare both answers.

Abdollahzadeh and Maleki (2011) intimate that “leaving learners’ errors unnoticed might result in the fossilization of erroneous structures; hence, they should not be neglected, instead, learners’ errors should be corrected either on the spot as in this study or with delay” (pp. 64-65). The results of the study link that of Egi (2010) who stated that immediate and reviewing comments are useful for error correction because learners were less likely to understand that they were being corrected when recasts were longer and involved multiple changes. In contrast, they were more likely to understand they were receiving negative and positive evidence when recasts were shorter and involved minimal changes. More so, Ancker (2000) surveyed teachers’ and students’ perceptions in 15 countries, focusing on whether teachers should correct every error students make when using English. The results showed a 25% positive response for teachers and a 76% positive response for the students. The negative impact of the correction on students’ confidence and motivation was the teachers’ concern though the students wanted corrections to speak English correctly.

With a mean of 3.0, students agreed that teachers should correct students only when students cannot communicate clearly. Students expressed that their errors should be corrected

when they are unable to communicate clearly. With this a student remarked during the interview that:

I like it when my teacher corrects my mistakes if I cannot clearly state what I intend to say. I like it because I can contribute to class discussions always.

Lastly, students disagreed with the item which states that teachers should never correct their students' mistakes when speaking English. They were in total disagreement because they would like their teachers to correct them even if it will interrupt communication. During the focus group interview one student mentioned that teachers' correction is very necessary and that they should never stop correcting their students. He affirmed this when he said:

My teachers should always correct my mistakes. When they correct me I learn new things but if they don't correct me I will keep the wrong things and always see them as right.

From Jean and Simard's (2011, p. 474) work, which confirms the current study that learners expressed they "should get their oral errors corrected all the time". Another statement during the discussion by one student expressed why she would want to frequently receive recast and it was shown in an utterance she made:

There is a common view that repair takes place in our classroom with regular use of recast. Also, I like it when my teacher corrects me than my friends do.

The results of the current study conflict with the study of Kaivanpanah, Alvia & Sepehrinia (2012) which aimed to compare the learners' preferences among three groups with different proficiency levels, and also between students and their teachers. Results yielded significant differences between students and teachers regarding the immediacy of feedback and attitudes towards peer correction. Regarding the latter, learners felt more positive about peer feedback than their teachers due to the educators' assumption that "teachers are conventionally seen as the primary source of knowledge" and that students might receive peer feedback as

criticism. About repair that is perceived to take place in the classroom as mentioned by the student above, Sheen (2006) believes that the characteristics of recast affect explicitness and are positively related to learner uptake/ repair. Kim's (2009) study examined how learners respond to recasts provided in the classroom and it showed that they responded to recasts to a considerable extent when they had an opportunity for uptake. Learner uptake of recasts was found to be related to learner perception of recasts. This result affirms Gas and Selinker's (2008) that "in any learning situation, not all humans are equally motivated to learn languages, nor are they equally motivated to learn a specific language" (p.165).

#### **4.1.3 Summary**

The results in the section have revealed that teachers must give recast in the classroom as it helps students to learn more. The frequency at which students receive recast will determine how swift they would learn the L2. Though repair might not take place immediately, it is believed that students will produce their corrected errors in their subsequent lessons. It is assumed that students would develop both a positive and negative attitude towards recast. Kaivanpanah, Alvia & Sepehrinia (2012) posit in their study that, in terms of immediacy of feedback, whereas learners had a positive attitude towards immediate feedback, teachers seemed concerned about "undermining learners' self-confidence and damaging their self-esteem in front of their classmates by on-the-spot correction" (p. 14). In this disposition, the researcher explored to find out some of the positive and negative attitudes students have toward recast.

#### **4.2 Attitudes toward recasts**

This particular section sought to find out the attitudes among ESL Senior High School students in Asante Mampong Municipal Area. The attitudes under this particular section were grouped into two: Positive attitude and Negative attitude and students were to agree or disagree



by responding to the questions of the questionnaire. In the same vein, responses from the focus group discussion were analysed alongside the data from the questionnaire.

#### 4.2.1 Positive attitude towards recast

A positive attitude is a state of mind that predicts and expects favourable results. A positive attitude lets you relax, remember, focus, and absorb information as you learn. When one develops a positive attitude towards learning, he/she is ready to recognize many different kinds of learning opportunities. In the case of education, students' positive attitude may influence their academic achievement. Table 4.2.1 represents results of analysis regarding students' positive attitude toward recast.

*Table 4.2.1. Descriptive statistics on students' positive attitudes toward recast*

SN	Item	N	Mean	Std Dev.
1	I always know when my teacher is correcting me even if she/he doesn't tell me.	300	3.08	1.463
2	Error correction is good for language learning	300	4.68	1.565
3	I think my speaking would be less accurate if my teacher had not corrected me.	300	4.03	1.567
4	If the teacher does not correct my speaking errors, my determination to learn English will diminish.	300	4.29	1.691
5	Every time my teacher corrects me, I feel I learn more.	300	5.06	1.277
6	Error correction helps me identify my weak areas in English.	300	4.84	1.372
7	I learn when the teacher corrects the errors of other students in the class	300	4.67	1.372

In Table 4.2.1, students agreed to questionnaire number 15 with a mean of 5.06 because they see recast very helpful since it makes them feel they learn whenever they receive recast. Studies conducted in classroom settings have also generally been supportive of the claim that

corrective recast positively affects learning. The researcher probed further to find out why they feel they learn more when a recast is given. One of them had this to say:

I fell positive when I'm corrected because I will learn from my mistakes and others will also learn from me.

Students believe recast helps them attain different ideas anytime they are corrected. Not only do they learn when they are corrected, but it also motivates them to always participate in classroom interactions. They feel others benefit from their correction and they also benefit when others are corrected. The outcome of questionnaire number 16 with a mean of 4.84 proves that, in an ESL classroom, whenever students are corrected, it enables them to identify their weak areas in the target language. As a result, recast is considered to be helpful for L2 learning by most researchers in the field of SLA (Long, 2006). One student mentioned that:

When my teacher corrects me, it helps me identify the areas I need to improve. When I can improve upon my weak areas, I feel proud when it comes to using the English Language.

Concerning question number 12 on the questionnaire which attracted a mean of 4.68, students agreed that error correction is good for learning a language. That is, it has a general benefit of helping students to become familiar with new structures in the new language. They see this as a positive attitude because it is seen as a powerful tool in which people get on track. Good recast does not only do the above, but it also benefits the giver and the receiver. Some students confirmed that when it comes to language learning teachers should always assist them by correcting their mistakes. They expressed themselves:

Teachers should always correct our mistakes since we are not familiar with some of the structures in the English language. Also, they should correct us since there are different aspects when it comes to the English Language.

When teachers correct us we fell motivated and want to learn more.

Conversely, if the feedback is not produced well, it impedes motivation. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) posit that teacher feedback in this study is seen as an influential factor in the “direct socialization of student motivation, which is defined as the ability to stimulate learners' motivation and self-confidence” (p. 211). Additionally, questionnaire number 17 with a mean 4.67 proved how students learn new things based on the corrections teachers make of which they are not the direct recipients of the corrected error. It was believed that some students pay attention to teacher recast even though they are not direct beneficiaries. This implies that when teachers are recasting other students' errors they pay attention though they might not be the direct beneficiaries. When students were interviewed some revealed that:

Sometimes I listen attentively when my teacher is correcting the mistakes of others. This will help me not to repeat the same mistake.

I am always attentive when teachers are correcting mistakes because I learn from others. About item 14 on the questionnaire and with a mean of 4.29, students agreed that their determination to learn the English language will diminish if teachers refuse to correct them. One student mentioned that:

I am not perfect at the English language, so if my teacher doesn't correct my mistakes the love I have to learn the English Language will reduce.

Also with a mean of 4.03, students agreed with item 13 that their speaking would be less accurate if teachers do not correct them. Recasts aid second language learning because it motivates students when they are corrected. They expressed that their level of accuracy and fluency has improved because their teachers correct them.

Because teachers correct us there is always an improvement in the English language.

We can use the new things the teachers tell us whenever we are speaking or writing.

Motivation theory halts the development of learners' motivation as they learn an L2, which can be affected by several factors, such as their initial attitudes towards the L2, sense of

achievement and autonomy, beliefs, learning strategies, classroom atmosphere, and teacher feedback (Dörnyei, 2005). Thus, teachers should consider recasting a major motivation tool to enhance appropriateness in terms of language learning. Item number 11 on the questionnaire attracted a mean of 3.0 to express that always students know when their teacher is correcting them even if she/he doesn't tell me. This proves some sort of awareness on the part of students in terms of recast. When students notice their own mistakes, they may be able to correct themselves or would accept recast easily. Research suggests that learner responses represent a reliable measure of the relationship between noticing feedback and further L2 learning achievement (Egi, 2010). Previous research has suggested that the fewer the changes and the shorter the recast, the more likely students are to notice (Philp, 2003).

The results revealed that the students generally agreed to the statements on their attitude towards recast. This implies that students have a positive attitude towards error correction. The result indicated that students' positive perception towards recast is held, as recast helps them learn more, identify their weak areas in English and that error correction is good for language learning. In a focus group interview with the students, this was what some of them had to say as to why they feel positive towards recast.

I feel positive because I would know there is more room for improvement

I feel positive because it will help me to know the right thing

The results of Aghaei (2013) study suggested a positive and favourable attitude toward error correction in the form of recast and illustrated that recast can have positive effects on the quality of EFL students' oral output. The findings of the study proved that it can contribute to developing a clearer understanding of students' perceptions toward recast strategy as one type of error correction.

Li (2010) study equates this current study as it might be explained by the tendency that “learners in FL contexts have a more positive attitude toward error correction than learners in

SL contexts” or that “the instructional dynamics of FL contexts might make corrective feedback more effective” (p. 344). This result is, in one hand, in line with (Loewen et al, 2009) who found learners of Chinese and Arabic with a more positive attitude about grammar instruction and error correction than were learners of other languages. It also lends support to (Schulz’s, 1996) who found 90% of the participants had a positive attitude towards error correction. Also, the study is in line with Faqein's (2012) study which found similarities as learners’ attitudes towards the interaction tasks alone scored (73%).

Calderon’s (2013) finding also supports this study because she found that students expressed positive views of recast and its effectiveness as well as preferences for explicit types of correction. That is the students in the study of Calderon (2013) like the students of this study share a common positive perception of error correction emanating from the effectiveness of error correction on students learning of the English language. The researcher searched further to find out if students have any negative attitude toward the use of recast by their teachers.

#### 4.2.2 Negative attitude towards recast

Table 4.2.2 presents results of analysis on the students’ negative attitude toward recast.

*Table 4.2.2. Descriptive statistics on negative attitude towards recast*

S	Item	N	Mean	Std Dev.
1	I usually feel embarrassed when my teacher corrects me in front of the whole class.	300	3.40	1.816
2	The correction of spoken errors in English makes me nervous.	300	2.90	1.667
3	Generally, I feel frustrated, after my teacher corrects me.	300	3.01	1.549
4	Generally, I feel interrupted every time my teacher corrects me.	300	2.78	1.528
5	I would feel much more comfortable if my teacher never corrected me.	300	2.77	1.632

With the negative attitudes which are likely to emerge as a result of giving recast, students agreed to descriptor 18 as one that leads to embarrassment. This negative attitude occurs when students are not able to produce the correct answer when asked a question and the teacher tries to correct them. Normally, when the teacher prompts, and the students have little knowledge of what to produce, it leads to humiliation. Students who feel embarrassed might not be able to learn a language for the fear of being mocked. During the focus group interview, students explained the negative attitudes toward recast as:

I mostly have a negative reaction when my teacher corrects me in front of my class. This is because I feel embarrassed because of the way he will correct me. I normally lose interest in the lesson when it happens that way.

Dörnyei (2005) clarifies that all of the factors which are found along the Process Model of L2 Motivation can relate with each other at different stages as they “do not necessarily exclude each other, but can be valid at the same time” (p. 86).

Students expressed a level of frustration after they have been correct with a mean of 3.0 because they agreed to the test item on the questionnaire number 20 which mentioned that they feel frustrated when the teacher corrects them. This occurs as a result of they being tagged as unwise and also feel they have been deprived of what they desired to learn as a student stated her view as:

It is good for my teacher to correct me, but sometimes I become annoyed when my friends laugh at me or the teacher herself laughs at me before she corrects me.

If the environment they find themselves in is not conducive or convincing enough, it will impede their level of learning. Because students have different levels of learning styles and these different levels may either motivate or demotivate them. For example, Orts and Salazar (2016) note that “differences in the learning styles of the students will affect the learning environment by either supporting or inhibiting their intentional cognition and active

engagement” (p. 109). The level of nervousness increase when teachers give feedback during classroom interaction. This was confirmed when students agreed to test item number 19 on the questionnaire that the correction of spoken errors in English makes them nervous. It was further revealed during the focus group discussion that they sometimes feel anxious when teachers correct them as it was seen in one of the comments as:

Some of the teachers, hmmm, the way they will correct you, you will feel troubled in the class. I, for instance, become uncomfortable when they correct me in a harsh voice. It appears like I am stupid.

I would like my teacher to correct me in low tone anytime I make a mistake. When they shout, I become nervous.

From this student’s assertion, they believe recast is good but the manner in which it occurs will determine whether it will yield positive or negative results. Some students expressed that they feel interrupted when their teachers correct them with a mean of 2.78. Some explained the level of interruption that, they are unable to grasp whatever thing they had planned to say and this makes them lose concentration. With this a student said:

I always become disturbed when my mistakes are corrected because to me I feel what I want to say is correct. When it happens I don’t even want to continue with whatever thing I want to say.

Some students thought they receive recast find it very difficult to absorb the new knowledge they have acquired. They, therefore, want to produce the same erroneous utterance when the need comes for them to use it again. This shows that though uptake takes place it does not necessarily mean repair has also taken place. Lyster and Ranta (1997) characterized two kinds of uptake depending on its quality: Uptake that results in the repair of the error which the feedback targeted and Uptake that results in an utterance that still needs repair.

Lastly, with a mean of 2.77, it was clear that some students would feel comfortable if their teachers never corrected them to avoid all these negative attitudes toward recast. It will be difficult to learn a new language without correction therefore during the interview one expressed why she would not want to be corrected as:

When my teacher doesn't correct my mistakes, he will correct someone else's mistake so I will learn from those people. As for me I cannot stand the embarrassment from my teachers.

Fang and Xue-Mei (2007) assert that students feel upset after being corrected because there is a great gap between themselves and their teachers in understanding the error correction through recast. Loewen and Philip (2006) confirm that recast may enhance positive and negative salience according to how they are provided. On the other hand, Schmidt (1990, 1995) and other advocates of focus-on-form believe that negative evidence is also needed for language learning, no one would deny that language learning would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, without positive evidence.

#### **4.2.3 Summary**

The results revealed that students' positive perception regarding error correction is to speak accurately, boost students' determination to learn English and as a means of helping other students to learn. Likewise, Roberts (1995) hypothesised that the efficacy of error correction is not only related to students' perceptions about corrections, but also the understanding of the nature of those corrections, including the target of the feedback and the type of feedback as supported by Mackey et al (2000) who found that learners' perceptions about corrective feedback were influenced by the linguistic target of the feedback. However, Ellis and Sheen (2006) point out that recasts can only be considered to provide negative evidence if learners interpret them as corrective. Also, even if recasts can provide negative evidence, it is not beneficial (or not as beneficial as some other aspects of recasts) in promoting



L2 learning (Leeman, 2003). At this point, the possibility that recasts provide negative evidence to learners and that this negative evidence could be beneficial for L2 learning continues to motivate researchers to examine recasts.

#### 4.3.1 Types of errors students want to receive recast

Data for this particular section were analysed using data from the questionnaire and responses from the interview questions. The questions on the questionnaire 23-29 sought to find out if students agree or disagree to be corrected in terms of grammatical, phonological, or lexical errors. Mean mark and standard deviation were used to answer the questionnaire items. The mean mark for this section was 3.5, so, any figure below 3.5 is a disagreement, and any figure above is an agreement.

##### 4.3.1.1 Grammatical errors

According to Thornbury (1999), grammar is partly the study of what forms (or structure) are possible in a language. Traditionally, grammar has been concerned almost exclusively with analysis of the level of the sentences. Thus, grammar is the description of the rules that govern how a language's sentences are formed. Grammar is a term used to mean many different things. When teachers and administrators grow frustrated over an error in students' writing, they often call for a return to "the basic" which they define as grammar (Williams in Adu, 2012, p. 25). Table 4.3.1.1 shows the results of the analysis of items regarding grammatical error correction.

*Table 4.3.1.1. Descriptive statistics of recast in the field of grammar*

SN	Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	I expect my teacher to correct my grammatical errors in English.	300	4.84	1.422
2	Without the teacher's correction of my spoken errors, I cannot make the connection between the grammar rule and its use	300	4.16	1.655

Findings from the study indicated the preferred area where students would want to be corrected is grammar. Students were in favour of the question item 23 with a mean of 4.48 that, they want their teachers to correct their grammatical errors. Similarly, they agreed to item 24 indicating without the teacher's correction of their spoken errors, they cannot make the connection between the grammar rule and its use. As to why they would want to be corrected in the field of grammar, some students had this to say:

Grammatical errors are very essential because when it comes to public speaking, you will need to be careful with your grammar.

I want to be corrected in the field of grammar because I want to know more about the structures of English

The above statement means that though students perceive grammar to be the backbone of every language, thus, learning the rules and structures well, mastering them perfectly will help you meet the standard of others in the language world. This statement is in agreement with the study of Calderon (2013), where students in her study also agreed to be corrected in the field of grammar. In the same vein, the current study follows Schulz's (2001) study.

Hinkel and Fotos (2002) suggest that during the learning process learners might find it more reasonable to talk about grammar structures rather than general topics as the grammar is an integral part of the language. The basic components and features of language entail the need for grammar. Wang (2010, p. 87) states that although contemporary linguists have objections on what is the language, they all agree that language consists of sounds, lexicon and grammar, and these three elements interact with and affect each other and constitute the main basis of the language system, that is, the content of language can be expressed through sounds which have to use lexicon and grammar to achieve their functions. Thus, grammar is the sound, structure, and meaning system of language, and only through grammar can sounds and lexicon form a

meaningful language system. That is why linguists emphasize that grammar is the most important part of a language system. For instance, if the learner level is intermediate or above, they might discuss the grammar rules in the target language. This not only helps them to learn grammar but also contributes to their speaking skills.

On the contrary, Schulz (1996) examined the teacher and learner perceptions of grammar instructions which may activate the “affective filter by raising the students’ level of anxiety, which in turn, prevents the learner from actually acquiring communicative ability.” (p.344). The supporters of this view claim that due to universal grammar, L2 learners will eventually acquire grammatical forms regardless of the type of instruction or feedback.

#### **4.3.1.2 Lexical errors**

Ander and Yildirim (2010) describe lexical errors are prevalent in the vocabulary learning process, especially when another language is concerned as the most common type of errors in students' output. Lexis is sharply different from grammar. Grammar is said to be organized in closed systems, to be systematic and regular. Lexis, by contrast, is said to consist of open systems, to be irregular and unsystematic. Lexis has begun to take a central role in language study. There are several reasons for this. In the first place, the boundaries between lexis and grammar are now seen to be less clear-cut than was assumed. Morphological aspects of words, which used to be treated as part of grammar, can just as well be viewed as part of the word. For instance, words of different form classes can be derived from the same root: calm→ calmness→ calmly. Table 4.3.1.2 presents the analysis of items regarding lexical error correction.

*Table 4.3.1.2. Descriptive statistics of types of errors students wanted to have corrected*

SN	Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	The teacher of English should repeat my spoken error by adjusting the intonation of his/ her voice to highlight the error and to ensure that I correct myself.	300	4.51	1.423
2	I expect my teacher to correct my vocabulary errors in English.	300	4.23	1.534
3	Having a teacher provide the correct form is the best technique to correct vocabulary errors in English.	300	4.38	1.512

From Table 4.3.1.2, students agreed to the item number 1 with a mean of 4.51 that, the teacher of English should repeat their spoken error by adjusting the intonation of his/her voice to highlight the error and to ensure that they correct me. Loewen and Philip (2006) mentioned that declarative intonation, stress, one change, and multiple feedback moves were predictive of successful uptake, whereas interrogative intonation, shortened length, and one change promoted post-test performance. For some learner groups, lexical errors constitute the most frequent category of error. Also, native speakers consider lexical errors in learners' L1 to be more disruptive and irritating than other types. Finally, vocabulary carries a particularly heavy functional load, especially in the early L1. To add to this, learners themselves believe that vocabulary is very important in language learning. It is the building blocks that ease the learning and speaking any language. When students were asked as to why they preferred their teachers to correct their lexical errors, some of them said this:

When the teacher corrects my vocabulary mistakes, it builds my vocabulary. I will get enough words when speaking or writing.

I will learn how to write good essays if I have enough words when writing so my teacher should always correct my vocabulary errors to help me gain enough words.

Students believe they can improve their writing and speaking skills when their teachers correct their lexical errors because it will increase their vocabulary span. Schmitt, (2000, p. 55) posits that lexical knowledge is explicit to communicative competence and acquisition of a language (p.55). The findings of the study concur that of Katayama (2007) whose participants preferred they are corrected in the field of their lexical errors.

#### 4.3.1.3 Phonological error

Phonological errors are errors that have to do with the incorrect and inappropriate way of pronouncing words. Such errors may be due to the interference of the mother tongue of the individual or the inability of the individual to correctly articulate the sounds of the L2. In cases when the same letter represents different sounds, an error is bound to occur. Some common pronunciation errors include pronunciation of "ed" after a 't' and 'd'; "es" after "s", "tʃ", "dʒ", "z", and "j"; when "o" is pronounced as "ʌ"; in the word some. In Table 4.3.1.3, the study showed that students agreed to the items 25 & 26 that they would want their pronunciation errors to be corrected.

*Table 4.3.1.3. Phonological errors students wanted to have corrected*

SN	Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	I expect my teacher to correct my pronunciation errors in English	300	4.02	1.538
2	Having the teacher provide the correct form is the best technique to correct pronunciation errors in English.	300	3.79	1.731

They agreed that they expect their teachers to correct their pronunciation errors in English and also the best technique they want to correct pronunciation errors in English is when the teacher provides the correct form. It was evident during the focus group interview that students would want to be corrected when it comes to pronunciation errors. They expressed their thoughts on why they would want to be corrected as:

Some teachers pronounce words differently from the others and that makes pronunciation confusing. Examples, a word like ‘direct’, my JHS teachers pronounced it as /d(a)r'ɪɛkt/, but over here, they pronounce it /dɪrɛkt/.

Some words are confusing like *academic*, it is pronounced /ækə'demɪk/ but since I was little, I have been hearing /akʌdʌmɪk/.

They pointed out that pronunciation is confusing due to how teachers pronounce words. Due to this, it obvious students need constant practice and correction from their interlocutors to equip these students to pronounce words well. But according to Delataa-Keli (2007), English words are not spoken as they are written. The spelling of words has little or no bearing at all on the way they are pronounced. Unlike most of the local languages that the students speak, there is a high rate of incompatibility between English sounds and spelling. The outcome of this study as regards the areas students would want to be corrected is in line with Katayama’s (2007) study where a mean of 4.25 was seen to represent students who would like to be corrected in the area of phonology, as against a mean of 4.02 representing those who wanted to be corrected their lexical errors in the current study. These mean marks from both studies represent an agreement by students to receive correction in the field of phonology.

The second part of the questionnaire comprised five multiple-choice questions targeted at identifying learner preferences for types of recast according to different error categories; grammatical, phonological, and lexical, and also at confirming the results of the first part of the questionnaire. These questions targeted common mistakes Ghanaian speakers make when speaking English. Questions 1, 3, 4, and 5 had three answers; Questions 2 had four answers which participants could choose from that described the way that specific error would be corrected employing explicit correction, implicit corrections, full, and single, etc. These five questions were analysed through frequency distributions expressed in percentages.

Additionally, the responses from the interview were also analysed together with the responses from the multiple-choice items.

### 4.3.2 Types of recast students prefer depending on the error they commit

Students would want to receive recast depending on the error they commit. The discussions below brought to light the areas students affirmed their teachers should correct them, and the reasons why they need to be corrected. With the multiple-choice questions, students were asked to pick the particular type of recast they prefer when it comes to grammatical, phonological, or lexical errors. Data for this particular section were analysed using data from multiple-choice questions and responses from the interview questions. Frequency percentages were used to analyse the multiple-choice questions.

#### 4.3.2.1 Grammatical error

As seen in Table 4.3.2.1, learner order of preference regarding the type of recast for grammatical error is explicit recast (55.7%). Students confirmed that they learn grammatical structures with the explicit recast faster than the other types of a recast because the teacher explicitly explains why the answer was wrong. From the focus group discussion, one student had this to say:

Because I want to know more about English, I need to learn the structures well. When the teacher is correcting my grammatical errors, I want my teacher to tell me where the error I committed is and help me correct it.

*Table 4.3.2.1. Type of preferred recast on grammatical errors*

<b>Error Type</b>	<b>Type of feedback</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Grammatical	Saying the correct form after me without telling me she/he is correcting me.	102	34.0
	Telling me that “he have” is wrong and that the correct version is “he has	167	55.7

The teacher replies to answer a target error in my utterance.	31	10.3
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Explicit correction is more likely than implicit correction to lead to repair (Suzuki, 2004). Also, Lightbown and Spada (1999) have cautioned “allowing learners too much ‘freedom’ without correction and explicit instruction will lead to early fossilization of errors” (p. 119). Another type of recast students will want to receive is the implicit recast (34.0%). Some preferred the implicit because they would not want a break in communication and one student mentioned that:

During a grammar class I like it when my teacher corrects me by correcting only the part I erred but will not tell me the anger I gave was wrong. When this happens it will save time.

When a teacher corrects me without letting know he is correcting me, my other colleagues will not recognize I have made a mistake and it will save me from mockery. Finally, students chose the corrective recast (10.3%) which aims to correct a target error. This study links Calderon’s (2013) work, where the students preferred to be correct in the field of grammar using the explicit recast (41.48%). It also supports Dabaghi’s (2008) study on learners’ grammatical errors in language acquisition. The results showed that students who received explicit correction gained significantly higher scores than those who received the implicit correction. It further proved that explicit correction helps developmental early features while implicit was more effective for the acquisition of developmental late features. Also, Ferris (1995) found that ESL tertiary students were interested in comments on grammar and content.

#### 4.3.2.2 Phonological error

Table 4.3.2.2 presents results of analysis of preferred recast on grammatical errors.



Table 4.3.2.2. *Type of recast on phonological errors*

<b>Error Type</b>	<b>Type of feedback</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Phonological	Correct me and ask me to say it again correctly	89	29.7
	Tell me the word is mispronounced and provide the right pronunciation.	172	57.3
	Repeat the word twice with the correct pronunciation without telling me she/he is correcting me.	39	13.0

With regard to learner preferences for the type of recast in a phonological error, the results again showed that students prefer the explicit type of corrective recast (57.3%), where students would want teachers to reformulate their erroneous utterance taking into consideration the erroneous part. This was confirmed by a student during the focus group interview when a student asserted:

I like my teacher to correct my pronunciation errors immediately I make them by specifically mentioning the part I erred, and telling me the correct form.

With this student's exclamation, it avows Long's (2006) definition of recasts as an immediate reformulation of all or part of the learner's incorrect utterance, where the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning not form. Furthermore, the semantic and discoursal characteristics of recasts that repeat the information generated by learners and that are juxtaposed with the erroneous utterances make it easier for learners to make cognitive comparisons between their interlanguage and the target language (Long, 1996, p. 415; 2007, p. 361). However, some students preferred the implicit type of corrective recast (29.7%) about phonological errors, because, they sometimes want to avoid the situation where other colleagues would realize they made a mistake. With the implicit, the teacher would correct either full or part of the erroneous

utterance without mentioning that the student has erred. Nicholas et al. (2001, pp. 732-733), sees implicit recasts as “utterances that repeat a learner’s incorrect utterance, making only the changes necessary to produce a correct utterance, without changing the meaning”. A student remarked why they would prefer the implicit recast as seen in the speech:

When my teacher corrects me by telling me the mistake I made, they sometimes shout at me before telling me the answer. I felt shy when he does that, so I want him to correct me, but he should not mention my mistake for my friends to know I made a mistake.

The above statement indicates how students want to be corrected, they preferred the teacher uses the implicit form of recast where their errors will not be known by all. Lastly, full recast weighed (13.0%) of how students would want to be corrected in terms of phonology. In adult EFL classrooms, Sheen (2006) noted that although pronunciation-focused recasts occurred much less frequently (21.0% of the total number of recasts) than morphosyntax-focused recasts (51.5%), students repeated the former with a higher rate of successful repair (91.8%) than the latter (70.8%). Additionally, Carpenter et al (2006) ascribed learners’ sensitivities to pronunciation-focused recasts to the relative importance of pronunciation in successful comprehensibility: pronunciation errors are “higher in communicative value and more likely to cause communication breakdown” than morphosyntactic errors (p. 228). As confirmed by a student during the FGD, she had this to say:

When you speak and your pronunciation is not good, people will not understand what you are saying, because of this, communication will be bad.

Explicit articulatory knowledge is defined as the conscious knowledge of the articulatory configurations of L2 sounds. This concept corresponds to similar constructs in L2 phonology research such as “phonological awareness” (Venkatagiri & Levis, 2007, p. 265) and “phonological form” (Derwing & Munro, 2005, p. 388). According to the gestural theory of speech perception and production (Fowler et al, 2003), phonetic categories are gesturally-

defined (manner and place of articulation). That is, explicit knowledge about relevant articulatory gestures is assumed to help adult L2 learners extract linguistic information from new L2 sounds with modified input (recasts) quickly and thus establish new phonetic categories effectively. As these studies indicate, recasts might be highly facilitative of L2 pronunciation development because of their perceived saliency.

#### 4.3.2.3 Lexical errors

Lexical knowledge is one of the essential components of language learning. Limited vocabulary and wrong choice of lexical items are major obstacles in successful communication. Folse (2004) states that “with poor vocabulary, communication is constraint considerably. You can get by without grammar; you cannot get by without vocabulary” (p. 2). Concerning the types of recast to be used to correct the lexical errors, the first preference of students in the previous areas changed. Table 4.3.2.3 illustrates this.

In this field, they preferred the implicit recast (55%) because it will enable them to learn a lot of words within a lesson than any the explicit recast will do. It was followed by full (35%) which has similar features like the implicit recast, and lastly they resorted to the explicit recast (9.7%). Students expressed higher interest in the use of recast when it comes to the correction of lexical issues due to its saliency.

*Table 4.3.2.3. Preferred type of recast in lexical errors*

<b>Error Type</b>	<b>Type of feedback</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Lexical	Say “soursop” after me without letting me know she/he is correcting me.	165	55.0
	Ask me “what is the word for ‘aluguntugui’ in English?”	29	9.7
	Tell me: “In English, the word is ‘Sour sop’”.	106	35.3

Factors affecting or mediating the relationship between recasting and learning could be enumerated as the type of recast, the linguistic form, the context, language proficiency, learners' developmental readiness, and other individual learner differences such as language anxiety (Sheen, 2008), gender (Ross-Feldman, 2007), working memory capacity (Goo, 2012; Révész, 2012), and language aptitude (Li, 2013; Sheen, 2008).

#### **4.3.3 Summary**

It has been revealed from the analysis that clearly, students agree as to the types of recast to be used, the frequency level that recast should be given, and the area they would want to receive feedback, and lastly, the impact of L2 motivation on language learning. Students would learn new things if teachers would give recasts. Generally, recast as a form of motivation will urge students intrinsically or extrinsically to learn the target language.

#### **4.4 Extent to which learner perspectives have on recast affect L2 motivation**

This section presents findings on the fourth objective which seeks to find out the extent to which learners' perspectives of recast affect L2 motivation. Under this section, findings differ from student to student. Findings from the focus group discussion were used under this section and were analysed using descriptive analysis with the help of the Process Model of L2 Motivation Framework, the theoretical framework for this study developed by Dörnyei and Ottó. According to Dörnyei and Ottó, this model comprises three temporal motivational stages. They are the pre-actional, actional, and post-actional. In analysing this study, the third stage, which is the post-actional, was taken into consideration. It is in this post-actional stage of the Process Model of L2 Motivation that teacher feedback is given an essential role as it is estimated that after receiving feedback, students will assess their language development and take the required measures to improve their linguistic performance.

#### 4.4.1 Positive effects of recast to students

According to Ferris (1997), three-quarters of error corrections and advice about structure and content proposed by teachers were incorporated into the subsequent draft. This points to the fact that students take teacher recast and comments seriously hence his statement “feedback is helpful, or at least does no harm” (Ferris, 1997, p.18). The studies showed that most of the students found the teacher recast very helpful. This was confirmed by one of the students during a focus group discussion.

Teacher recast makes me know where I went wrong so that when I say that particular word another time, I will not make the same mistakes.

It is really helpful because it motivates me in the habit of speaking English fluently and freely.

The students’ statements show that teacher recast is very helpful to the students and should be continued. They pointed out that, every time the teacher corrects them, they learn a new thing and this in a way boosts their confidence. This to them was seen as an opportunity to learn a new thing as well debunk wrong utterances, thus, incorrect grammar and pronunciation. Speaking good English is in a way showing an appreciation to their teachers and letting others know how well versed their teachers are in the L2 language. A student confirmed this by saying that this makes people respect your teacher. With her direct quote, she declared that:

You see when you can speak good grammar and fluent English, people would be asking, eii who is your English teacher? Who is your English teacher?

Other responses indicated that not all students under the FGD found the teacher recast very helpful as stated by Ferris (1997). This to them was seen as an opportunity for teachers who they feel don’t like them, disgrace them. They pointed out the fact, that they sometimes become the topic for teasing amid their peers and this draws them back. Data showed that most

of these students are the shy types who would rather the teacher corrects them privately than in the presence of their peers. As a student substantiated;

When a teacher corrects me, I feel positive. But I don't like the situation whereby the teacher makes fun of my errors before correcting me. This is because it dampens my spirit and stops me from speaking in class since I have the view that the teacher might make fun of me and my classmates will follow suit.

It could be concluded from the above findings, that teacher recast is very beneficial to the students. This is because it increases the fluency level of the students as well as motivating them to speak it wherever and whenever. On the contrary, if the teacher recast comes in at the wrong time and place, it discourages the students by dampening their spirits. This action stops them from being vocal both in the classroom and outside the classroom since their peers might make fun of them.

#### **4.4.2 Motivation to learn English**

Recasts are a common type of feedback for many possible reasons; one of the main reasons may be that they allow the teacher to maintain a focus on meaning while still giving the non-native speaker implicit correction on the form (Han, 2002). The main finding regarding learner beliefs about error correction was that while the quantitative results only yielded a few differences between students from the various diverse research sites, the qualitative analysis showed some divergences between them. A face-to-face interview was conducted with the selected students. Their responses were recorded and transcribed for analysis. A narrative analysis was used for the analysis of the data. Nonetheless, the FGDs revealed that students felt comfortable receiving recasts. This suggests that the amount of exposure to the target language and the level of proficiency these students have might influence their error correction preferences. The students expressed their opinion as:

It motivates me when the teacher corrects me in my pronunciation. Because it will make me want to know more and to become fluent.

It will motivate me because when the teacher corrects me, the next time I will speak it freely because I know I'm sure.

It motivates me because when a teacher corrects me, you'll be able to know the word and be able to replace the word with any other word you want.

Findings of this study also showed that in terms of learner perspective to recasts, students do not always recognize them as correction due to reasons like mood interference, lack of attention, or because the recast was not striking enough. This was confirmed by a student that:

I don't like it when my teacher repeats my mistakes and corrects me without me necessarily knowing she (teacher) is correcting me.

I mostly have a negative reaction when my teacher corrects me in front of my class. This is because I feel embarrassed.

I would like my teacher to correct in me in low tone anytime I make a mistake.

The results of this study are in line with Fang and Xue-Mei (2007) that, students often feel upset after being corrected by their teacher because there is a great gap between themselves and their teacher in understanding the error correction through feedback. This finding suggests that recast itself may not certainly affect students' motivation, but the teacher's behaviors might do that. The students also expressed that error correction helps them in all aspects of the English language while some expressed that it motivates them in speaking, and in writing. This was confirmed by a student in a focus group discussion;

When the teacher corrects me, it helps me to pronounce some words. For instance, if a teacher pronounces a word and the student doesn't know, he/she can spell the word on the board for the student to know that this is how it is spelt.

The result of the study shows resemblance to the studies of Han (2002) and Long et al (1998) who found out that recast has a positive effect on L2 learning and that recasts yielded positive results. This means that one of the surest ways to cause Ghanaian students to be motivated to learning the English language is to resort to recast and preferably, the explicit recast as expressed by the students. This means that students percept error recast to be effective for learning the English language and that students across countries irrespective of gender have somehow the same perception of error correction as found by this study.

One example of studies focused on subjective variables relate to recasts effectiveness was Kayi's (2010) who published a qualitative investigation aiming to investigate the relationship between recasting and intrinsic motivation. It was placed on the foreign language learning context, specifically Turkish as a foreign language. Interactions between teachers, teachers' assistants, and students were observed. Some interviews were performed with students. Results were mixed as long as the researcher found that even when some students reported that recasts developed intrinsic motivation in them, some other said that their motivation was inhibited when they were provided with a recast as they felt unguided, overwhelmed, and did not have control over language use (i.e., recasts would not help foster their motivation for various reasons). Kayi (2010) claimed that those results revealed that recasts seemed to foster intrinsic motivation only if students felt that the teacher focuses on communication rather than form and seemed to be willing to build a mutual understanding with the student.

Lastly, students commented that motivation does not affect the learning of the second language but the teacher's behaviour does. It is therefore obvious that recast as a form of motivation has a positive impact on students learning of L2. With the above assertion, one student had this to say:



I like it when my teacher corrects me because it motivates me. But I would like my teacher to change his behaviour, because when I make a mistake the teacher will insult me in front of the class and will feel embarrassed. When it happens that way, I will not learn anything

Dörnyei (2005) claims motivation can be affected by several factors; a sense of achievement and independence, classroom atmosphere, and teacher feedback. Similar to Dörnyei (2005), Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) mentioned that motivation is also one of the most important individual variables which might determine failure or success in language acquisition.

#### **4.4.3 Summary**

It has been revealed from the analysis that clearly, students agree as to the types of recast to be used, the frequency level that recast should be given, and the area they would want to receive feedback, and lastly, the impact of L2 motivation on language learning. Students would learn new things if teachers would give recasts. Generally, recast as a form of motivation will urge students intrinsically or extrinsically to learn the target language.

#### **4.5 Conclusion**

In this chapter, data were analysed based on the test instruments used to collect data. The research instruments comprised a questionnaire and an interview. This research brings to the fore the need for teachers to use recast always in their classrooms because it helps in second language learning. It was revealed from the analysis that students have a different perception of recast. A general view of the study disclosed the types of recast students preferred, where they exhibited a massive interest in the explicit type of recast with a mean of 5.0, followed by single recast (4.09), implicit recast with a mean of (3.99), and also non-corrective recast (3.88) and lastly full recast (2.65) based on a particular error committed by students. As regards the positive attitude toward recast, it was found that students learn more (5.0) when they receive recast. On the other hand, some mentioned that they feel embarrassed (3.0) when they are

corrected. In the area of grammar, 55.7 % of students expressed their interest in the explicit type of recast over the implicit recast (34.0 %) as a technique for error correction. In regards to the attitude towards recast, students expressed an enormous agreement in line with how positive they feel when they receive recast with mean of (5.06). It was evident that students find recast helpful, effective and it creates awareness in them. More so, some expressed how negative they feel when recast does not go well. They agreed that they feel embarrassed, frustrated, nervous, interrupted, and rejected. Lastly, it was realized that motivation does not affect the learning of the second language but the teacher's behaviour does.

Since recasts can keep the learners' focus on meaning but at the same time allow the teacher to maintain control over the linguistic form, they are described by Loewen and Philip (2006, p. 537) as "pedagogically expeditious" and "time-saving". Thus, the pedagogical function of recasts is to develop linguistic accuracy. Moreover, Long (2007) perceive the implicit form of feedback in a form of recast to be particularly promising, as Ellis et al suggested that, in meaning-oriented classroom teachers are likely to use implicit more than explicit since the teachers in a way of correcting erroneous utterance do not point out erroneous part. This, some teachers believe will maintain a positive attitude and not affect students' emotions. Alternatively, Sheen (2006) confirms that some types of recast may enhance the salience of positive or negative evidence depending on how they are provided and that, the characteristics of recast affect explicitness and are positively related to learner uptake/ repair. Relating to the said opinions, the students in this particular study believe the type of error they commit will determine the particular type of recast to be used by their teachers to correct them.

Generally, students would prefer the explicit type of recast to implicit types of a recast because of its explicitness, not in all situations will they choose the explicit recast. Dabaghi (2008) affirms the preceded utterance when the findings of his study proved that learners' grammatical errors, those who received explicit recast gain higher scores than implicit

corrections. Likewise, Calderon (2013) study exhibited how students in her study preferred the explicit type of recast in the field of grammar so as the students in this current study. On the contrary, the students in this study preferred the implicit type of recast to explicit in the field of phonological errors and this avows Sheen's (2006) assertions. Motivation is key in every leaning situation which can cause either a failure or successes in language acquisition (Dörnyei, 2005), thus, recast which fosters intrinsic motivation must be built on mutual grounds.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATION, AND CONCLUSION

#### 5.0 Introduction

This study investigated the learners' perceptions of recast, using three hundred (300) students from three Senior High Schools in the Asante Mampong Municipal area. The study used a mixed-method approach and a convergent parallel design to ensure that there is an in-depth understanding of the topic. Data were collected from three hundred (300) students using a questionnaire and they were analysed using SPSS. Also, a focus group interview was conducted using 14 students with the data analysed using the thematic approach. The chapter begins with a presentation of the summary of findings, and discusses the importance of recast in English teaching classrooms. The chapter also outlines some pedagogical implications per the findings of the study, and concludes with suggestions for future research.

#### 5.1 Summary of findings

The findings support the notion that students of the three Senior High Schools in Asante Mampong have a perception of recast as a method of error correction. As a result of this, they have a preference for a particular type of recast they would want their teachers to use depending on the type of errors they commit. They also prefer a level of frequency at which their teachers should correct them should they err in class. Lastly, they strongly believe that recast affects the motivation to learn English. The summary is presented as follows:

##### 5.1.1 Learners' perception of particular types of recasts

The analysis revealed that most of the students prefer the explicit type of recast to be used by their teachers in the classroom. This was because when the teacher explicitly points out their errors, it will enable them to identify the errors and would make use of the new form they have been provided with in subsequent interactions. With this, it was clear that students prefer the explicit type of recast to be used by their teachers. It was also clear that students

prefer the implicit recast to non-corrective recast and full recast. This suggests that the amount of exposure to the target language and the level of proficiency these students have might influence their type of recast preferences. Asari (2012) describes the extent to which each type of recasts gives rise to uptake. The author concludes that recasts go beyond being just an implicit form of feedback and that instead, should be considered as an implicit-explicit continuum. From the analysis of the interview responses, it was revealed that students actually prefer the explicit recast as some of them indicated that it enables them to identify their errors and work toward it.

The findings revealed that students like their errors to be corrected every time. When they agreed to be corrected every time, students also declared that they would want their errors to be corrected as soon as they are committed. Abdollahzadeh and Maleki (2011) maintain that leaving students' errors unnoticed may lead to fossilization of erroneous structures; therefore, they should not be neglected. It also came to light that they prefer a continuous correction, that is, they always want their errors to be correct. When it comes to communicating clearly, it was found that students want their teachers to correct them only when they cannot communicate. They agreed that correction should come from their teachers only when communication is not clear and indicated that teachers should never correct their students' mistakes when speaking English.

### **5.1.2 Students' attitudes toward recasts**

The responses from the questionnaire revealed that students have both positive and negative attitudes toward recasts. For example, they expressed that recast is helpful because they feel they learn whenever their teachers correct them. Also, they affirmed that error correction helps them identify their weak areas in English. It was observed that students do agree to the fact that recast helps in language learning. This is because it brings out the structures of a particular language and they also get the chance to learn from their peers during

recasting. Students also felt that their speaking would be less accurate if their teacher does not correct them. Lastly, the findings revealed that there is some kind of awareness among students whenever they are corrected. They have the feeling that their teachers are correcting them when they receive recast.

Despite the number of positive attitudes recorded, there were negative attitudes toward recasts. The study brought to light how students feel embarrassed when they receive recast. Some of them argued that they sometimes feel uncomfortable when they are corrected. To them, such corrections suggest that they are either dumb or unwise and academically weak, and their friends may tag them when such happens. It was also revealed that students feel frustrated, nervous, and interrupted whenever they receive recast. The analysis showed that they would feel much more comfortable if their teachers never correct them because they don't want to go through that embarrassment and the other unpleasant situations.

### **5.1.3 Types of feedback learners prefer depending on the type of error students make**

Analysis of data to answer the third research question suggests that students would want to be corrected with the explicit type of recast in the field of grammar with a percentage of 55.7% and 57.3% in phonological errors but would prefer the implicit recast when it comes to lexical errors with a percentage of 55.0%. They argued that this is so because they would not want to be interrupted when speaking. It was obvious from the findings that students prefer a particular type of recast based on the error they commit. Bitchener and Knoch (2010) claim that explicit correction provides for correction of linguistic form or structure at or near the linguistic error.

The analysis of the interview revealed that recasts have positive effects on students. With this, they pointed out that every time the teacher corrects them, they learn a new thing, and this in a way enhances their self-confidence. This to them, is an opportunity to learn a new thing as well as discredit wrong utterances; incorrect grammar and pronunciation. It was also

revealed that speaking good English is a way of showing gratitude to your teachers and allowing others to know how well-skilled they are in the English language. Lastly, students confirmed that it allows them to identify their weakness and improve upon them. Ferris (1997) asserts that feedback is helpful, or at least it does no harm. The analysis from the focus group discussion revealed that indeed recast motivates students to learn the English language which makes them build their accuracy and fluency in the language. Tanner (2012) notes that a child who is motivated to learn a language learns best or will acquire it better than one without motivation. Accordingly, motivation was one of the most important individual variables which might determine failure or success in language acquisition (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

## **5.2 The importance of recasts in the English language classroom**

Recasts are used by teachers all over the world as tools that help to recognise what the learners have already mastered or what issues or structures remain problematic to them. Also, pedagogically speaking, researchers use recasts to examine how languages are learnt. Besides, they are helpful in the process of self-correction; this happens when learners are to discover the rules of the language they are learning by themselves by obtaining feedback on their errors. Furthermore, they help teachers to choose the right teaching/learning materials for particular lesson delivery. Lastly, the use of recast helps teachers to vary their teaching strategies. Recasts may have a positive impact on one's second language learning as long as they are not overused. It is important to become aware that recasts are not the failure in English, but, if used appropriately, would result in a positive effect on the process of self-correction, acknowledging the rules of language, and can become helpful in English. Recasts therefore prompt teachers to create conducive atmosphere for their students during teaching and learning. Creating a conducive environment also entails that students are motivated. In this sense, Dörnyei (2005) claims that motivation can be affected by several factors; a sense of achievement and independence, classroom atmosphere, and teacher feedback. Thus, English language learning

would become a fun activity when these factors are taken into consideration in the ESL classroom.

### **5.3 Pedagogical implications**

The findings of this study have implications for theoretical development and practical applications. In considering the theoretical development, it may be interesting to see how incorporating the topic of recasts in the syllabus of a course in an ESL teacher training programme might change the views of beginner teachers regarding recasts when compared to their already experienced counterparts. Barwell (2004) has expressed an opinion that all instructors and language educators ought to give ESL students who are in the process of learning with suitable language backing and help in language advancement. Hawkes (2007) intimates that teachers-in-training should be made aware of what recasts are, their benefits to students, and how they can be incorporated into meaning-based student-teacher interaction to achieve focus-on-form goals within the classroom. Secondly, recasts could be integrated into the teachers' guide to help them choose the correct type of recast, and how frequent they must use them when delivering a particular lesson without feeling insecure about the effect it may have on students' L2 motivation.

In terms of practical applications, the findings of this study can act as a clear model to assist both learners and teachers in English language learning and teaching. For this reason, and taking into consideration that differences between learners' beliefs about such an important teaching strategy as recast might have a malicious effect on L2 motivation. There need to be an urgency to address this topic in the classroom and discuss it with students. This could be done by having an open conversation with learners, hopefully at the beginning of a new course, in which teachers state the importance of recasts for L2 learning and ask students about their preferences. This could also be attained through the administration of a brief questionnaire, like the one designed for this investigation, which could shed light on students' general



appreciation of recasts and their preferences for different varieties of feedback according to the type of errors they commit. Thus, teachers should be sensitive to students' attitudes to language, particularly to error correction, although it might be argued that learners' preference may not be what is best for acquisition (Truscott, 1996).

For educators to have this conversation with students, they need to be convinced of the importance of recasts themselves. Therefore, another pedagogical implication would be the need to discuss this topic among L2 teachers to eliminate any predetermined ideas they may have about error correction. This can adequately be done through an informed reflection on their teaching practice and sharing of experiences. It would also be advisable to encourage teachers to get involved in relevant SLA discussions by attending conferences or workshops that might address this topic and thus help them get accustomed to the latest trends in L2 teaching and learning, especially concerning a topic that is seemingly not frequently dealt with in ESL teacher training programs in Ghana.

Finally, teachers of English in Ghana should take these individual and environmental factors into account when implementing different types of recasts in their classrooms. This would help them to not only be effective in their corrections but also to make students feel that their opinions matter. It is in this way that learners will be able to sustain their motivation throughout the process of L2 learning, by seeing their teachers concerned about their needs and by having space to clearly state what they find beneficial from their learning. As a result, teachers will not just be gathering information about learner beliefs about recasts, but they will also be fostering students' reflection on their own learning experiences.

#### **5.4 Suggestions for future research**

The present study examined the learners' perceptions of recasts. This is a very sensitive aspect of second language learning. Although a lot has been done on recasts, improvement of the study is still possible by researching other areas concerning this study. Future researchers

showing interest in the learners' perceptions of recasts should consider looking into the teachers' perceptions of recasts. Future research work could also add observation to the research instruments to obtain more data concerning views on the learners' perception of recasts.

Furthermore, the research sheds light on students' opinions about the effect recasts might have on L2 motivation and how their disparities might eventually affect it, which is a topic that has not yet been investigated in SLA. Due to this, it might be beneficial to continue researching the interrelationship of L2 motivation and recasts to help decrease teachers' feelings of insecurity by empirically showing that recasts, when employed properly, might be a positive factor in increasing students' motivation. Last but not least, research could be conducted in Colleges of Education to find out how tutors prepare pre-service teachers on how to offer recasts as a way of creating awareness of the need to train teachers on recasts strategies. Finally, it may also be useful to continue researching learners' perceptions for recasts in a greater variety of learning contexts and geographical areas, as each of them is unique, and have the potential to yield different results.

## **5.5 Conclusion**

The use of recasts has become necessary in our ESL classrooms because they are seen as tools that help the teachers to correct students' erroneous forms. Although they are useful, they can mar the interest of the student in acquiring the new language if not delivered well. In light of the findings of the present study, teachers of English are advised to prioritize the interest of their students above all things when it comes to recasting usage.

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## APPENDIX X

We would like to invite you to answer this questionnaire about some aspects of second language learning. You do not have to write your name. We are interested in your personal opinion, so there is no right or wrong answer. Please answer sincerely as this will guarantee the success of this research study. However, you do not need to answer any question you do not want to.

Do you agree to answer this questionnaire? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

I. We would like you to indicate your opinion after each statement by putting an “X” in the box that best represents the degree to which you agree or disagree.

		Strongly Disagree	Fairly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Fairly Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I like it when my teacher explicitly tells me I made a mistake and gives me the right version of what I said.						
2	I like it when my teacher corrects my English without letting me know she/he is correcting me.						
3	When correcting speaking errors, the teacher should not use negative words (e.g.: “All that you are saying is wrong” or “You don’t understand anything” or “You don’t know anything”).						
4	I like it when my teacher asks me to correct myself.						
5	I like it when my teacher tells me what kind of mistake I made in a single turn.						
6	Teachers of English should correct spoken errors as soon as they are made.						
7	Teachers should correct students every time they make a mistake when speaking English.						

8	The teacher should correct all errors of speaking always even if they interrupt communication.						
9	Teachers should correct students only when students cannot communicate clearly.						
10	Teachers should never correct their students' mistakes when speaking English.						
11	I always know when my teacher is correcting me even if she/he doesn't tell me.						
12	Error correction is good for language learning						
13	I think my speaking would be less accurate if my teacher had not corrected me.						
14	If the teacher does not correct my speaking errors, my determination to learn English will diminish.						
15	Every time my teacher corrects me, I feel I learn more.						
16	Error correction helps me identify my weak areas in English.						
17	I learn when the teacher corrects the errors of other students in the class.						
18	I usually feel embarrassed when my teacher corrects me in front of the whole class.						
19	Correction of spoken errors in English makes me nervous.						
20	Generally, I feel frustrated, after my teacher corrects me.						
21	Generally, I feel interrupted every time my teacher corrects me.						
22	I would feel much more comfortable if my teacher never corrected me.						
23	I expect my teacher to correct my grammatical errors in English.						

2 4	Without the teacher's correction of my spoken errors, I cannot make the connection between the grammar rule and its use.						
2 5	I expect my teacher to correct my pronunciation errors in English.						
2 6	Having the teacher provide the correct form is the best technique to correct pronunciation errors in English.						
2 7	The teacher of English should repeat my spoken error by adjusting the intonation of his/ her voice to highlight the error and to ensure that I correct myself.						
2 8	I expect my teacher to correct my vocabulary errors in English.						
2 9	Having teacher provide the correct form is the best technique to correct vocabulary errors in English.						

Thank you very much for your help!

II. In this section, please circle the alternative that best represents your preference.

1. When I am speaking English and I make a grammar mistake, such as “he **have** a car”, I would like my teacher to correct me by:

- d) Saying “he has a car” after me without telling me she/he is correcting me.
- e) Telling me that “he have” is wrong and that the correct version is “he has”.
- f) Asking me “could you say that again?” so that I can correct myself.

2. When I am speaking English and I mispronounce a word, I would like my teacher to:

- a) Ask me to say it again correctly.
- b) Tell me the word is mispronounced and provide the right pronunciation.
- c) Repeat the word with the correct pronunciation after me without telling me she/he is correcting me.



3. When I am speaking English and I say a word I do not know in English, as in “I love eating ‘aluguntugui’”, I would like my teacher to:

- a) Tell me: “In English, the word is ‘Soursop’”.
- b) Ask me “what is the word for ‘aluguntugui’ in English?”
- c) Say “soursop” after me without letting me know she/he is correcting me.

Thank you very much for your help!

### **Interview Questions for Students**

1. How beneficial do you think corrective feedback is for learning English?
2. How often would you like your teacher to correct your mistakes when speaking?
3. How does your teacher usually correct your mistakes? Please provide an example.
4. Do you like your teacher to repeat your mistakes and correct them with or without you necessarily knowing you’re being corrected or do you like it when he allows you to correct yourself?
5. Based on your opinion, what way of correction do you think you learn the most with? Why?
6. How do you feel when you are corrected in front of the class? Do you have a positive or negative reaction?
7. Do you think that error correction keeps you motivated to continue learning?  
Why?