

7-2015

# Verbal and Gestural Recasts Impact on L2 Development

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**Verbal and Gestural Recasts Impact on L2 Development**

by

Xiao Han

B. A., Capital University of Economics and Business, Beijing, China, 2012

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of

St. Cloud State University

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the

Master of Arts Degree in

Teaching English as a Second Language

July, 2015

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### **Abstract**

This paper examines the impact of verbal and gestural recasts on L2 development. Recasts are the most commonly studied type of corrective feedback in classroom interaction research (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). It is one of the most common ways to give feedback in an instructional context. However, recasts require the double processing of semantic and syntactic information by the learner (Doughty & Varela, 1998). Therefore, students may misunderstand it as meaning negotiation, which may affect students' noticing (Amar & Spada, 2006). Gestures, as a way to assist people to get the meaning across in interaction, are known for their easy-to-notice feature (Schegloff, 1984). This study investigates the impact of verbal and gestural recasts in isolation and in combination on second language (L2) development, specifically for an ESL context.

### **Acknowledgments**

I would like to acknowledge a number of individuals who offered me a tremendous amount of help to make this thesis possible. First of all, I would like to thank my chairperson Dr. Michael Schwartz, who was willing to meet me countless times to offer different perspectives on my topic and gave me so much inspiration. Second, I would like to thank my committee members Dr. John Madden and Dr. Shawn Jarvis, who gave me so much constructive feedback. Last but not least, I want to thank my parents, Chunwang Han and Wenli Jia, and my host parents, Marlys Tanner and Doug Tanner, for giving me so much support in pursuing my dream.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Language learning is facilitated through authentic communication, according to Long (1996). In a conversational interaction, providing appropriate feedback is critical. Numerous studies have been done on “corrective feedback” by educators in the field of Second Language Acquisition. The discussion on the role of corrective feedback is part of a larger discussion on the role of ‘focusing on form’ in foreign language teaching (Doughty & Williams, 1998). There are various types of oral corrective feedback. According to Han (2002), “Recasts, due to their capability to model and correct, have been considered to be most effective in drawing learners’ attention to gaps in linguistic knowledge evidenced in their output and also appear to be the most common strategy” (p. 545). The effectiveness of recasts is usually evaluated based on the rate of learner uptake (Egi, 2010). There are many studies that have been done on the immediate uptake of L2. However, Oliver (1995) reported that the uptake may not happen until later discourse for L2 due to a delayed response phenomenon. Some studies have shown that the effects of recasts were more apparent days or weeks after the treatment (e.g., Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Muranoi, 2000). It will take time for the L2 learner to process the feedback and immediate reactions to the feedback may not be a good measure of how well recasts can facilitate L2 development. Thus, there is a gap in the field of SLA in which there have been very few studies examining the usefulness of recasts over time.

Gestures, another way to communicate and interact with people, have frequently been used in ESL classrooms. The critical role that gestures play in social interaction and in ESL classrooms has been discussed from various perspectives. McNeill’s study (2000) has shown

how gestures affect ongoing interactions and how interactions affect gestures. Lazaraton (2004) also demonstrated that gestures, as a part of nonverbal behavior, can assist learners' language development. Lazaraton did a study on how gesture and speech help L2 learners learn vocabulary and found that gestures and other nonverbal behavior are forms of input in the classroom which must be considered to be a salient factor for L2 in classroom-based second language acquisition research (Lazaraton, 2004). Gestures can also initiate repair. Koshik and Seo (2002) reported on results of a conversation analytic study of gestures used to initiate repair in ESL conversational tutoring sessions. They focused on sequential organization of the unfolding interaction as it is affected by the target gestures and found out how gestures without accompanying speech can perform social actions, specifically, initiate repair (Koshik & Seo, 2002). However, as McCafferty (1998) pointed out, "Gestures and other nonverbal forms of communication have been considered potentially important for some time, however, as yet, their connection to second language learning largely remains to be elucidated" (p. 94). In other words, there are not enough studies conducted on gestures and L2 development.

Given that both verbal recasts and gestures are ways of providing input with students in ESL classrooms, I propose to investigate how recasts together with gestures will influence L2 acquisition on morphosyntactic features over the long term. Based on the previous studies, I will contribute to the ongoing research of how gestural recasts, i.e. a type of feedback involving gestures to mediate the error, verbal gestures and a combination of both will affect L2 development, especially on the morphosyntactic features, i.e., "-s" in simple present tense and "be + V. ing" in present progressive tense.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### **Interactional Feedback**

The relationship between interactional feedback and second language learning has been the focus of much recent research (Mackey & Oliver, 2002). Many studies have been done on the type and the effectiveness of interactional feedback under different context. Learners' responses often have been viewed as a cognitive window into their mental activities as noted by Egi (2010) and a number of SLA researchers have seen learners' responses as indications that they have noticed feedback. According to Gass and Selinker (2008), feedback is the information which either highlights the success, or lack of success, of learner utterances. That is to say, the feedback is meant to modify the output to contribute to the learning process. Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis proposes that learning happens through communication and the feedback from conversational interaction contributes to interlanguage development. "Interlanguage," according to Selinker (1972), is a language created by learners of a second language that is between the target language and the learner's first language (L1). So an interlanguage is an emerging linguistic system that has been developed by the L2 learner who has not grasped fully the language but is approximating the target language (Selinker, 1972). The relationship between interaction and L2 acquisition is described by Long as, "Negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interaction adjustments by the native speaker or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (pp. 451-452). That is to say the teacher's intentions have to be noticed by the learners through feedback to make learning

happen. The recognition of the correction is related to the effectiveness of the interactional feedback. As Han (2001) pointed out, “Corrective feedback is a two-way interdependent process, involving the giver and the receiver, with both being information providers” (p. 591). In this scenario, the teacher is the giver and the learners are the receivers. It requires both parties to negotiate the meanings to make the feedback effective.

There are different types of interactional feedback, e.g. recast, prompt or negotiation, etc. Numerous studies have been done on the impact of different types of interaction on comprehension, production and L2 development (e.g., Mackey, 1999). Mackey and Oliver (2002) did a study on interactional feedback and children’s L2 development. In their study, they distinguish the negotiation and recast as different feedback types. The difference is shown as follows in these examples of interactional feedback (Mackey & Oliver, 2002):

Negotiation with modified output:

Child: *Do you have a man . . .big spaceship?*

Adult: ***Pardon? Do I have-?***

Child: *Do you have a man near a big spaceship?*

Recast with modified output:

Child: *Do you have a boat has like si. . .?*

Adult: ***A boat with a sail?***

Child: *Do you have a boat with a sail?*

Negotiation/ Recast without modified output:

Child: *Do you have a boat with a sail?*

Adult: A *boat with a sail?*

Child: *Yes.* (p. 464)

In the posttest, results showed that more participants in the interaction and feedback group made more progress than the interaction control group, which demonstrated that interactional feedback can facilitate second language development for the child learners (Mackey & Oliver, 2002).

Negotiation is also known as prompts, which do not provide learners with the correct form of their ill-formed sentences. Prompts are more direct than recasts. It tells the learners that there are mistakes in the sentences without telling them how to correct those mistakes. Learners have to think about it and come up with answers on their own. Yang and Lyster (2010) used the examples of different types of prompts in their study:

Clarification Request

Student: *Why does he fly to Korea last year?*

Teacher: ***Pardon?***

Student: *Why did he fly to Korea last year?*

Repetition

Student: *Mrs. Jones travel a lot last year.*

Teacher: ***Mrs. Jones travel a lot last year?***

Student: *Mrs. Jones traveled a lot last year.*

Metalinguistic Clues

Student: *I went to the train station and pick up my aunt.*

Teacher: *Use past tense consistently.*

Student: *I went to the train station and picked up my aunt.*

Elicitation

Student: *Once upon a time, there lives a poor girl named Cinderella.*

Teacher: *Once upon a time, there . . .*

Student: *There lived a girl.* (pp. 243-244)

As we can see from the examples above, in the clarification request, the teacher asked a question using rising tone to ask students to clarify the information, hoping uptake will occur. In the repetition example, the teacher just repeated the information, but using a rising tone to help the student notice. Metalinguistic clues are more direct compared to other forms of prompts. The teacher told the student to use the past tense consistently to remind the student where he/she a non-standard utterance. The last example, elicitation, the teacher stopped repeating at the point where the error occurred, signaling the learner to continue but produce the correct form of the word. The student apparently noticed and corrected the mistake. Prompts allow the learners to actually think, so it will help L2 produce the modified output (Yang & Lyster, 2010).

### **Recasts as Feedback**

Recasts are the most commonly studied type of corrective feedback in interaction research (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). According to Han (2002), a noticeable increase of interest in recasts as a means to draw L2 learners' attention to formal properties of their attempted output has been seen in the recent SLA research. The emphasis on studying recasts is motivated by the fact that recasts have been shown to be the most common feedback given to learners in classroom settings (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). As defined in the literature (e.g., Long, Inagaki, &

Ortega, 1998), recasts are reformulations of “all or part of a learner’s utterance so as to provide relevant morphosyntactic information that was obligatory but was either missing or wrongly supplied in the learner’s rendition, while retaining its central meaning” (p. 358). Yang and Lyster (2010) provided the following interaction as an example of the use of recasts (p. 243):

Student: *And they have a happy life after and many years they have a lot of kids around the . . .*

Teacher: ***They had . . .***

Student: *They had a lot of kids around the palace.*

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), recasts were operationalized as a semantically contingent “reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error” (p. 46). Gass and Selinker (2008) pointed out that an immediate response to recasts may “not be revealing, in that learners may be mimicking or repeating without true understanding” (p. 335). Given the feature that recasts do not point out the errors directly, recasts are commonly regarded as implicit feedback. However, recent research suggests that depending on how they are delivered, labeled recasts as “implicit feedback” can be misleading (as cited in Egi, 2010).

**Recasts and noticing.** According to Schmidt (1995), noticing refers to the learner’s state ‘of being aware’ of the difference between his or her utterance and the target language. However, according to Al-Surmi (2012), the definition of noticing is very broad. It remains unclear what awareness means and whether learners attend to form versus meaning. Also, the way to tell if learners notice recasts or not is by the learner’s self-reports after watching the videotaped episodes. From the self-reports, we can tell if they had either paid attention to, or attended to the recast.

Compared with explicit forms of negative feedback, recasts are less likely to raise learner's awareness (Han, 2002). Sharwood Smith's (1986) characterization of negative input enhancement indicates that recasts fall at the lower end of the elaboration continuum, which means they have a low degree of elaboration (Han, 2002). Moreover, recasts require double processing, namely, "semantic processing and syntactic processing," which is more likely to further reduce the possibility of noticing (Han, 2002). Doughty and Varela (1998) also further elaborated a corrective recast as a two-step procedure: (a) repetition (usually with rising intonation) to draw attention followed by (b) a recast to provide, contrastively, the necessary target exemplar, as illustrated below:

Jose: *I think that the worm will go under the soil.*

Teacher: ***I think that the worm will go under the soil?***

Jose: (no response)

Teacher: ***I thought that the worm would go under the soil.***

Jose: *I thought that the worm would go under the soil. (p.124)*

Lyster (1998) noted, in addition to their function of implicitly providing a reformulation of all or part of an ill-formed utterance, recasts serve to respond to the semantic content of a learner's utterance by a) providing or b) seeking confirmation of the learner's message, or by c) providing or d) seeking additional information related to the learner's message.

Therefore, it might be confusing for the learners to get exactly what the teacher is trying to accomplish given there are several possibilities. Amar and Spada (2006) also found that "the corrective nature of recasts may be obscured by their formal and functional overlap with repetitions" (p. 545). So learners may misinterpret recast as a confirmation of meaning. What's

more, Al-Surmi (2012) noted in his research that the process of making recasts effective, learners have to recognize the corrective nature of the recasts and have to attend to the linguistic problems in their utterances (Gass, 1997; Schmidt, 1995). This view rests on Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990, 1995, 2001), "which suggests that when learners notice the gap between what they produced and the corrective input they receive, learning occurs, and that detection, processing, and storage of input in the long memory is restricted by learners' awareness at the time of learning" (as cited in Al-Surmi, 2012, p. 226-227). In other words, learners have to notice the gap or that there is a difference between the sentence they produce with the target sentence. Gass (1997) also stated, "An initial step in grammar change is the learner's noticing (at some level) a mismatch between the input and his or her own organization of the target language" (p. 28). Egi (2010) pointed out that learners tend to notice recasts less than other types of feedback. However, recasts are relatively beneficial for L2 development.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) examined corrective feedback and learners' uptake in 4 immersion classrooms at the primary level. They transcribed 18.3 hours of classroom interaction, which includes 14 subject-matter lessons and 13 French language art lessons. The transcript was analyzed using a model developed for the study and comprising the various moves in an error treatment sequence. The results included the frequency and distribution of six different feedback types used by the four teachers. The research showed that recasts are the commonly used form of feedback in classroom interactions, but the least to be noticed. It is ambiguous for the learners compared to other feedback types. Four other feedback types discussed in the study are: elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition. Lyster and Ranta also

pointed out that the relationship between feedback and error types makes recasts unclear, which affects noticing.

Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000) found that learners attend least to feedback on morphosyntactic errors and that linguistic content of errors could be a factor that plays a role in noticing recasts as corrective feedback. So Al-Surmi (2012) did a study on whether learners attend to recasts on morphosyntactic errors or not. The participants were 12 adult ESL learners enrolled in an English language program in a large university in the southwest of the United States. Their L1 background was different (including Arabic, Chinese, Vietnamese, Taiwanese, and Nepalese). There were nine males and three females whose ages ranged from 19 to 24 years old. Their English proficiency was intermediate to high intermediate level. The study used a post-test design to determine whether learners noticed recasts of morphosyntactic errors. Al-Surmi did a spot-the-difference task and a picture sequencing task. The spot-the-difference task was a two-way task involving two pictures of the space shuttle that had landed on an alien planet. The participants and the researcher sat in a quiet room together for about 40 minutes to find the difference between the two pictures. The participants were stopped three times and were asked to write down the comments. The picture sequencing task was also a two-way task that included eight pictures. The participants were asked to choose four pictures out of eight and the researcher worked together with the participants to put the story into the right order using the clues that they gave each other. This study showed that learners did notice the recasts on morphosyntactic errors. Learners reported noticing morphosyntactic errors in 18.27% of the total reports. Although this percentage was not the lowest, it is still a low ratio when compared to vocabulary, for example (52.68%). Al-Surmi also examined whether recast types (i.e., declarative vs.

interrogative) affected learners' noticing of morphosyntactic recast or not. The result was learners reported noticing 10.73% of the total declarative recasts and 9.35% of the total interrogative ones. Given that the numbers are very similar, he concluded that regardless of type, declarative or interrogative, the recasts had no great effect on learners' noticing morphosyntactic recasts.

Other factors were discussed by Philp (2003). He found that recast length, learners' proficiency level, and the extent to which the recast was different from the learners' utterances had an effect on immediate recall of recasts.

**Recast and uptake.** Uptake, according to Lyster and Ranta (1997), is defined as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (p. 49). Allwright (1984) defined uptake as the "learners' reports about what they have learned from a lesson" (p. 7). The extent to learners' response to recasts are various from simply acknowledgment to reformulations of the errors (Egi, 2010). Learners may simply give a nod or "ok" to show that they have noticed the recast or they could reformulate the entire sentence to produce the target language. The output can be more or less target-like. The way to evaluate the effectiveness of recast is usually by the uptake (Egi, 2010). However, there are different factors that may affect the rate of uptake: there might not be opportunities for the learners to produce responses under certain situations, the learners might not have time to respond, or the teacher does not offer a chance to respond. Oliver (1995) did a study on the pattern of interaction in child native speaker (NS)-nonnative speaker (NNS) conversation to determine if the NSs provide negative feedback to their NNS conversational partners. In her

study, Oliver demonstrated that the rate of uptake was affected when the analysis excluded cases in which its occurrences were precluded by discourse contextual considerations. In Egi's (2010) research, he summarized that other factors that can influence the rate and quality of uptake are "learning context (e.g., second vs. foreign language learning), the instructional focus (e.g., form vs. meaning-oriented), the focus of classroom discourse (e.g., classroom management vs. communication), and the interlocutor (e.g., native speakers [NS] vs. nonnative speakers [NNS])" (e.g., Lyster & Mori, 2006; Mackey, Oliver & Leeman, 2003; Sheen, 2004; Shehadeh, 1999), which demonstrated that the rate of uptake cannot simply reflect the effectiveness of the recasts. Therefore, we must take other factors into account when examining the effectiveness of recasts.

Egi (2010) conducted a study that analyzed the relationship between uptake, modified output, learner perceptions of recasts, and L2 development. The participants in this study were 24 foreign language learners of Japanese with different L1 backgrounds (including 20 English, 2 Korean, 1 Chinese and 1 French). The Japanese proficiency is high-beginning to intermediate classes at universities or private language schools in North America. There were 10 males and 14 females, ranging from 18 to 40 years of age. There were also two native Japanese speakers involved in the data collection. Each participant took part in a series of dyadic task activities with a NS. The tasks the participants had to carry out were the tasks usually used in foreign language teaching classrooms. The one-way tasks were color drawing of scenes before and after a crime. The learner had to describe the pre-crime scene to the NS. The NS had the post-crime scene and had to write a police report based on the learner's description. In the two-way tasks, each task participant had a picture similar to his or her partner's. They had to exchange information and find the differences. During the tasks, the NS corrected the participants in the form of recasts.

The results of the study showed that learners recognized recasts more frequently when they notice the interlanguage and L2 mismatch. According to Egi, learners were “more likely to not only report understanding recasts as corrective feedback, but also to explicitly identify the mismatch between the interlanguage and L2” in feedback episodes in which learners successfully modified their errors (p. 17). Therefore, whether uptake occurs or not depends on the recognition of the recasts.

### **Gestures as Feedback**

Gestures is an area which has received empirical attention among applied-linguistics researchers, according to Lazaraton (2004). “Gestures occur only during speech and gesturing is almost entirely a phenomenon of the speaker in interaction” (Schegloff, 1984, p. 226), in other words, gestures, as a part of nonverbal behavior, are a n way to assist people to get the meaning across in an interaction. Neu (1990) studied the role of nonverbal behavior in analysis of two oral interviews used for English as a second language (ESL) course placement purposes. She found that nonverbal communication can help L2 learners expand their linguistic competence. Nonverbal communication even helps the discourse management of topic initiation, topic maintenance, and turn taking. Therefore, nonverbal communication plays a significant role in helping people get the meanings across and reinforce what they intend to convey (Mori, 1998).

There are several common hand movements people usually use to give feedback. The McNeil system classified hand movements that happen in face-to-face interaction. The McNeil system identifies the following categories (as cited in Lazaraton, 2004):

1. *Iconic* gestures are closely related to the semantic content of speech, or as Schegloff (1984) put it, “shape links them to lexical components of the talk” (p. 275). Iconic

- gestures may be kinetographic, representing some bodily action, like sweeping the floor, or pictographic, representing the actual form of an object, like outlining the shape of a box.
2. *Metaphoric* gestures may be pictographic or kinetographic like iconics, but they represent an abstract idea rather than a concrete object or action. An example is circling the finger at the temple to signify the “wheels of thought.”
  3. *Deictic* gestures have a pointing function, either actual or metaphoric. For example, we may point to an object in the immediate environment, or we may point behind us to represent past time.
  4. *Beats* are gestures that have the same form regardless of the content to which they are linked. In a beat gesture, the hand moves with a rhythmical pulse that lines up with the stress peaks of speech. A typical beat gesture is a simple flick of the hand or fingers up and down, or back and forth, the movement is short and fast. Although beats may serve a referential function, their primary use is to regulate the flow of speech. (p. 84)

Allen (2000) did a study analyzing the nonverbal behavior of a high school Spanish teacher in six 55-min second-year class sessions she taught. Allen concluded that almost all the SLA research on comprehensible input concerns verbal input, with no attention to the nonverbal aspects of talk directed at L2 learners. Allen (as cited in Lazaraton, 2004) found that:

This teacher used seven different emblems (for example, thumbs up [good], yawn [boring]) and eight types of illustrators (iconics in the McNeill system, but also including deictic markers), such as ‘batons and underliners’ that accent or emphasize a word or

phrase (beats). Kinetographs were especially common with the target verbs being taught, and the teacher often used pictographs and deictics. (p. 10)

As for teacher gestures in L2 classrooms, Mori (1998) investigated the gestures used in an ESL classroom by a teacher in a 45-minute lesson covering the topic of shopping. Mori recorded the gesture types and the frequency. The results demonstrated that “the teacher’s gestures reinforced her speech by adding redundancy to the spoken message.”

### **CHAPTER III**

#### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Given that the previous studies showed verbal recasts are commonly used strategies for giving feedback, and gestures are used in L2 classrooms as a way to reinforce verbal feedback, I conducted a research project that combined the two types of recasts. I investigated how verbal and gestural recasts influence L2 development. Thus, my research questions are:

1. Do L2 learners initiate self-repair after recasts?
2. Which recasts, verbal, gestural, or a combination of both, do learners tend to orient toward?

These two questions will be applied to the two bound morphemes, i.e., “-s” and “be+V.ing.”

## CHAPTER IV

### METHODOLOGY

#### **Participants**

There were eight participants (N=8) in this study in total. The participants possessed low to intermediate English proficiency. They were all enrolled in a Level 3 English course in an Intensive English Program (IEP) in a Midwest university in the United States. They were all from Saudi Arabia and have been here for 1 to 2 years. Six males (N=6) and two females (N=2) participated in this study. Among the eight students (N=8), all of them participated in the 6-week treatment, and six (N=6) of them finished both pretest and posttest. The ages of the participants ranged from 21- to 28-years-old. They had been studying in IEP for at least two semesters. Moreover, as the researcher, I also participated in the tasks as well by giving participants both verbal and gestural recasts. Born and raised in China, I studied English as a second language for 12 years from fourth grade to college. I do not take English classes any more but, as a second language learner myself, I am still learning English. I possessed an advanced level of English. I am currently employed as a graduate assistant in a MA TESL program in a Midwest university in America where I have taught ESL in a university bridging program and a pre-academic IEP. Additionally, I taught English in China for 2 years. By the time the study was done, I had taught two semesters in the IEP.

Table 1

*Participant Information*

Name	Country	Time in USA	Time in IEP
T	China	5 years	2 semesters
Z	Saudi Arabia	2 years	3 semesters
R	Saudi Arabia	2 years	4 semesters
A	Saudi Arabia	2 years	2 semesters
A2	Saudi Arabia	1.5 years	3 semesters
H	Saudi Arabia	1.5 years	3 semesters
N	Saudi Arabia	1.5 years	3 semesters
J	Saudi Arabia	1 year	2 semesters
G	Saudi Arabia	1.5 years	4 semesters

**Description of Data Collection Instruments**

There are several instruments that were used to answer the research questions. First of all, to investigate how gestural recasts affect L2 (second language) development, students were asked to complete a picture description task. Each participant took a pre- and post-test to assess the participants' acquisition and use of the third person singular "-s" in the simple present and the present participle "-ing" in the present progressive. The pre- and post-tests were audio-recorded by an iPhone and then transcribed by the researcher. The researcher used this data to determine the awareness of the target morphemes by the participants. The participants were asked to describe two pictures at both the beginning and end of the summer semester, which was

the first week and the eighth week. These pictures were from *The Oxford Picture Dictionary: Monolingual Edition* by Adelson-Goldstein and Shapiro (1998, 2008).

The second set of data is from a 6-week treatment with the participants using both verbal and gestural recasts. For the purpose of this study, I am defining recast as what Mackey and Oliver (2002) stated previously in this paper. The participants were given verbal recasts like “pardon?” or repeated sentences with a rising tone, or told specifically what tense they should have used. They also received gestural recast. When participants made a mistake by not adding “-s” to an utterance that required it, e.g. “She like pizza,” the researcher took out a yellow card to indicate participants made a mistake. When they made a mistake about “be + -ing,” the researcher moved her hand up and down like a wave as a visual prompt or “gestural recast” for students. The yellow card gesture is adapted from the soccer game where a referee will take out the yellow card to warn the players whenever they foul. According to the McNeil system (2000), this gesture is metaphoric gesture because it represents an abstract idea rather a concrete object or action. Another gesture, the researcher moves her hand up and down like a wave to indicate mistakes with the present continuous tense (be+ “-ing” form), is deictic gesture according to McNeil System, because it has a pointing function, either actual or metaphoric, just as when we point behind us to represent past time. The classes were video recorded to capture the gestural and verbal recasts the researcher used and the participants’ reactions.

The last set of data is from interviews. Three of the eight participants agreed to meet with the researcher for a one-on-one 5- to 10-minute interview. The selected participants were asked to watch a few episodes of the class video that were recorded and answer what they were

thinking by the time the recasts happened and what they thought of recasts. The entire interview was audio recorded.

## **Procedures**

This study lasted for a total of 8 weeks. There was a pretest and posttest for each participant. At the very beginning of the semester, the researcher met with each participant to carry out the picture description task. The two sets of pictures used were both from *The Oxford Picture Dictionary: Monolingual Edition* (Adelson-Goldstein & Shapiro, 1998, 2008) that was used by Intensive English Program. The participants were given two sets of pictures, each aimed at having the participants produce “-s” and “-ing” respectively. The first set of pictures was “Mary’s typical day.” Participants were given a series of pictures that showed what Mary does at a certain time every day. They were told explicitly that they only needed to describe the pictures that were numbered, e.g., Mary usually gets up at 8 a.m. Participants were given the following prompt by the researcher, “I would like you to look at these pictures that are labeled 1-8. This is Mary’s typical day. I would like you to tell me what Mary does every day. You will have 2 minutes to prepare. You can start when you are ready.” The second set of pictures was a street scene of the city. Participants were asked to describe what each person that was labeled was doing in the picture. This allowed participants to produce “be +-ing” form. The researcher prompted the question, “This is a picture of a street scene. So this picture describes what everybody is doing in the street now. You have to produce eight sentences as labelled. I would like you to take a look at the picture and tell me what everyone is doing now. You will have 2 minutes to prepare. You can start when you are ready.” After the question was asked,

participants had 2 minutes to prepare and then started describing the pictures. The entire session lasted about 30 minutes and was audio recorded.

Then, as the researcher, I started the treatment in class for 6 weeks. In class, I used gestural recasts, verbal recasts and the combination of both to give corrective feedback. The recasts were given on two morphemes: “-s” in simple present tense and “be +-ing” in present progressive tense. The classes were videotaped. I used the gestures (yellow card, hands move, as described above) to indicate a mistake when participants produced an utterance containing one or more of the previously described morphosyntactic errors (“-s,” “-ing”). Participants were told the meaning of each gesture explicitly at the beginning of the treatment. All the recasts were transcribed by the researcher. This set of data was used to determine if participants initiate self-repair or not and how much uptake, if any, occurred.

Upon the completion of the 6-week treatment, the researcher met with each participant again to do the posttest in order to learn how well each has grasped these two morphemes. Each participant was given pictures as described above to carry out the task. The pictures used in pretest and post-test were the same pictures from different editions of the Oxford Picture Dictionary. In the post-test, the pictures were from *The Oxford Picture Dictionary: Monolingual Edition* (Adelson-Goldstein & Shapiro, 2008, pp. 38-39, pp. 128-129). Participants were asked the same questions as in the pretest. The data collected in the pretest and post-test were compared in how many sentences they produced right.

Last but not least, three participants agreed to participate in a follow-up interview. All three selected participants showed self-repair in class interaction. They also prompted other participants when they made mistakes. The three participants were asked to watch the chosen

episodes of class videos and asked what they were thinking when recasts happened. The selected episodes were the episodes where these three participants were given recasts by the researcher and where they gave recasts to their classmates. They were also asked what they thought of verbal and gestural recasts, moreover, if recasts in general helped or not.

### **Analysis**

From this study, three sets of data were coded and analyzed. First, the number of the correct morphemes (“-s” and “-ing”) under obligatory contexts that the participants produce was counted in the pretest. According to Lightbrown, Spada, Ranta, and Rand (2006), obligatory contexts for each morpheme are “the places in a sentence where the morpheme is necessary to make the sentence grammatically correct” (p. 83). Lightbrown et al. (2006) gave an example of obligatory contexts, “Yesterday I played baseball for two hours,” the adverb “yesterday” creates an obligatory context for a past tense, and “for two hours” tells us that the required form is a simple past (“played”), rather than a past progressive “was playing”). Similarly, “two” creates an obligatory context for a plural -s on the “hours” (Lightbrown et al., 2006, p. 83). The pictures provided created obligatory contexts for participants to produce the morphemes. The first set of pictures was “Mary’s typical day.” Participants were asked to describe what Mary does every day. “Mary” as third person singular and the time phrase “every day” created an obligatory context for the participants. They needed to pick up on the cue and use it as frame of reference for describing what Mary usually does during a typical day, thus, the simple present tense was the preferred form. Therefore the morpheme “-s” should be added after the verb. The second set of pictures was used to ask participants to describe “what is happening in the street now.” The word “now” is the obligatory context, which requires the morpheme “-ing.” Also, the present

progressive wh- question, what is happening, also framed the exercise in the progressive, again encouraging the production of the present progressive structure, BE + v-ing. The number of morphemes that each participant produced was counted along with the number of the morphemes that each participant produced correctly. Each morpheme was counted separately. This is the initial assessment of the participants. As mentioned above, each participant produced at least eight sentences as labeled in the pictures. The entire process was recorded and transcribed by the researcher. I used an easy transcription convention pattern as suggested by Mackey (1999) so that that data is easy to review. Among the eight participants, six finished both pre-test and post-test. The other two students did not show up the last day of the class. Therefore, the data collected from the other two students for both pre-test and post-test were dropped.

The second set of data is from the post-test. After the 6-week treatment, the participants did the same task as in the pretest with different but similar pictures, as mentioned before these pictures were from the *Oxford Picture Dictionary: Monolingual Edition* (Adelson-Goldstein & Shapiro, 2008) that was used by IEP. This set of data was coded the same way.

The third set of data was the verbal and gestural recasts collected from class for 6 weeks. The recasts on the two grammatical morphemes were transcribed to analyze if participants oriented towards verbal recasts, gestural recasts or a combination of both, which addressed the second research question. The class was videotaped and the interaction was also transcribed by the researcher. The transcription convention used was the same for the first and second sets of data. This third set of data is from the 6-week treatment was collected from all eight participants given that everyone participated in class.

The last set of data, as described above, was the interview from the selected participants. The entire interview was transcribed by the researcher as well using the same transcription convention methods. Finally, these four sets of data were used together in an effort to relate verbal and gestural recasts to L2 development.

To protect participants' privacy, all the names appearing in this thesis are pseudonyms. The pseudonyms were chosen randomly. In addition, capitalized letters are used to represent the names of the participants. The convention keys for the transcript are shown below:

T: teacher

(...): Pause that is longer than one second

?: Rising intonation

WORD: Loudness and emphasis

(word): Indicates a likely hearing of something that's not clear

## CHAPTER V

### RESULTS

#### Pre-Test Results

The data collected from the six participants is very helpful in analyzing the impact of verbal and gestural recasts in L2 development. To restate, there were eight participants who agreed to participate in the study; however, two did not finish the pre-and post-test. Therefore, only the data for pre-test and post-test from the six participants was used. All of the participants were told they needed to describe two sets of pictures. For each one, they would have 2 minutes to get ready. The researcher prompted the questions the same way as shown below:

Picture set 1: Third person singular “-s”

I would like you to look at these pictures that are labeled 1-8. This is Mary’s typical day.

I would like you to tell me what Mary does every day. You have 2 minutes to prepare and let me know when you are ready. (The Oxford Picture Dictionary: Monolingual Edition, 1998, pp. 26-27)

Picture set 2: “be+ V.ing”

This is a picture of a street scene. So this picture describes what everybody is doing on the street now. You have to produce eight sentences as labeled. I would like you to take a look at the picture and tell me what everyone is doing now. You have 2 minutes to prepare and let me know when you are ready. (The Oxford Picture Dictionary: Monolingual Edition, 1998, pp. 90-91)

Even though I told students that they needed to produce only eight sentences for each set of pictures, some of them still produced more than eight sentences which contained the morphemes in the obligatory contexts. Tables 2 and 3 show how well everyone did.

Table 2

*Pre-Test Picture Set 1: Third Person Singular “-s”*

Participant	The Number of Correct Morphemes	The Number of Total Morphemes	Percentage of the Correct Morphemes
Z	4	13	30.77%
R	0	9	0%
A	9	9	100%
H	2	8	25%
N	6	8	75%
A2	5	8	62.5%

Table 3

*Pretest Picture Set 2: “be + V.ing”*

Participant	The Number of Correct Morphemes	The Number of Total Morphemes	Percentage of the Correct Morphemes
Z	5	9	55.56%
R	4	7	57.14%
A	9	9	100%
H	4	8	50%
N	8	8	100%
A2	8	8	100%

In the pretest for the first picture set, two participants mixed the tense, which means that they did not stick to one tense and used different tense randomly.

*Excerpt 1*

- 1 Z: ok. At the beginning, the wife...umm...wake up and tell her husband to wake  
 2 up. After that, they take a shower. After that, she made the breakfast for the  
 3 family, for her family.  
 4 T: um-huh  
 5 Z: The...third, the picture told the woman go to the supermarket. After that, she  
 6 cleaned up...the kitchen.  
 7 T: um-huh  
 8 Z: after that, she made delicious lunch...for... um..., her family  
 9 T: uh-huh  
 10 Z: After that, they sit down and just enjoy...the..um.... After that, they have some  
 11 rest and the husband watched TV and the woman read the newspaper. After that,  
 12 they got to the bed, The man talked about her, talked with his wife, and talk  
 13 about, the things. After that, they go to bed.

*Excerpt 2*

- 1 H: alright. She just woke up now. And the second picture, she...she try to make  
 2 breakfast for her child and her husband. And the third picture, she was shopping,  
 3 like Walmart or (Cashwise?) And the four pictures, she cleaned her kitchen. And  
 4 fifth picture, she prepared to cook. And six picture, umm, she wants to start her  
 5 night. And for seven picture, she read news.

From these two participants' utterances, it is not hard to find that the tense they used is not consistent. They used past tense in one sentence and the next sentence could be expressed in simple present tense. For example, in Excerpt 1, the participant used the simple present tense in Line 1. But after that, he started using the past tense. In Line 11, both simple present tense and past tense were used. In Excerpt 2, the participant started with past tense, then switched to the simple present tense, then the past progressive. No consistent tense was used. Therefore, the participants' primary goal is to convey the meanings.

There was one participant who mixed the present progressive tense with simple present tense:

*Excerpt 3*

- 1 N: She works in this one. She's preparing some lunch in this one. He, I think, she
- 2 is shopping. And here she cleans the kitchen. And the fifth picture, I think she
- 3 prepares the dinner. (0.3) Here she eats with her family. She reads some news.
- 4 She sleeps.

Participant N demonstrated a higher level of language proficiency compared to the other two participants above. All of the verbs in simple present tense and present progressive tense are in the correct form. He did not forget to put “-s” at the end of the word nor forget the “be” verb in the present progressive tense. Among the eight obligatory contexts, he produced six correctly, which is good among all the participants.

Another participant used the correct tense but forgot to add “-s” at the end of the words.

*Excerpt 4*

- 1 A2: She wakes at 6 am every day. Then she cooks (0.4) the breakfast for her
- 2 family. After that, she goes shopping. Then she clean, her house. After that, she
- 3 cooks the dinner. And at 6 and half pm she eat dinner with her family. She reads
- 4 newspaper at 8 and she sleep at 11 every night.

Participant A2 forgot to add “-s” after the verb in Line 2 “clean” and Line 3 “eat” and “sleep.” A2 possessed an intermediate English language proficiency. Compared with those who did not use a consistent tense, this showed a higher level language skills.

Participant R did not produce a single instance of the third person singular –s but did utter seven times of contexts where the –s is obligatory. He was one of the lower level students in my class. He used “is + verb” pattern as shown:

*Expert 5*

- 1 R: She's wake up at 6 am. She's ready the food for his family. She's take, take a,
- 2 she's read the book. Ummm, and she's clean the house, and she's cooking the

- 3 lunch for his family. And she's eat with his family the lunch. Also she's reading a  
4 news (0.3) paper. Umm she's sleeping at 11 pm.

Participant R had a consistency to his structure but he used “be + verb” form for simple present tense. Instead of adding “-s” at the end of verbs, he put it at the end of the subject. It might be his habit of pronouncing “-s” after a subject or he is confused how about the construction of the present progressing.

In the second picture, however, among the three participants who made mistakes, none of them had a consistent tense in their utterance.

*Excerpt 6*

- 1 H: I'm ready. The first picture (0.1) umm, he was waiting to cross the road. And  
2 the second picture, she ride a bicycle. And the third picture, umm, she make an  
3 ice cream. And the fourth picture, she is crossing the street. She just left the  
4 donuts shop. She is riding a car and yelling at someone.

*Excerpt 7*

- 1 T: How about the driving? What is she doing now?  
2 Z: She look behind her and see if there is a cars or not  
3 T: um-huh and this lady?  
4 Z: She has exercise, like walking in the garden?

*Excerpt 8*

- 1 R: (0.8) Ok. He's standing to waiting the car stop to cross the street. She's a rode  
2 the bicycle. Umm, he's cooking, he's cooking food to sell it. She's walking with  
3 his dogs. She's call his husband to pick up her from Mc Donald's. And she's in  
4 trouble with someone in the street. She's running and she's pick up the food from  
5 restaurant by the car.

An unexpected result showed up during the research. The data from the second set of picture in the pretest demonstrated that that participants all did better in this task, which indicates that simple present tense is acquired later than present progressive tense, which supports Bailey,

Madden, and Krashen's (1974) summary of second language grammatical morpheme acquisition sequence.

### Post-Test Results

A post-test was given to participants on the last week of the summer semester, which was after the 6-week treatment of verbal and gestural recasts. Participants were asked to finish the same task as pretest. They were shown a similar picture and asked the same questions. The results are as follows in Table 4.

Table 4

*Post-Test Picture Set 1: Third Person Singular "-s"*

Participant	The Number of Correct Morphemes	The Number of Total Morphemes	Percentage of the Correct Morphemes
Z	1	8	12.5%
R	0	10	0%
A	9	9	100%
H	7	8	87.5%
N	9	9	100%
A2	10	10	100%

Table 5

*Post-Test Picture Set 2: “be+ V.ing”*

Participant	The Number of Correct Morphemes	The Number of Total Morphemes	Percentage of the Correct Morphemes
Z	1	8	12.5%
R	0	7	0%
A	8	8	100%
H	8	8	100%
N	8	8	100%
A2	7	8	87.5%

In the post-test, participant Z used past tense and simple present tense. She also made lots of mistakes in simple present tense when she was asked to describe the first set of the pictures:

*Excerpt 9*

- 1 Z: Ok, the first, the woman, she **is get** up every day at 6 am. After that, she **made**
- 2 breakfast for her family. Then, she **go** to the Walmart to buy anything she **need**.
- 3 After that, she **go** back home and **clean** the house. And after short time she
- 4 **finished**, she **went** to the kitchen and **made** the delicious food, like dinner for her
- 5 family. After that she's with them, just **talking**. And after that, she **reads** news.
- 6 And she **go** to sleep.

For the second picture, Z used the past tense, simple present tense and present progressive tense, which means that she did not have a consistency in the tense that she wanted to use. However, she produced most of the simple present tense in the wrong form:

- 1 Z: umm, the first, the man **went** to the street and on the other side, there is a
- 2 woman **walking** her dog. Then, there is umm some person **try** to sell umm ...) and
- 3 there is a man **play** his bicycle. After that, there is a man **go** outside, after he
- 4 shaved. Then the car **see** behind her to see if there is a car or not. Then there is a
- 5 woman **try** to wash her clothes. And there is a man **try** to order in an restaurant.

Participant R did both posttest tasks poorly. He did not show a consistency in using the tense, either (as shown below). Therefore, participant Z and R are at the stage of making meaning negotiation a priority.

*Excerpt 10*

- 1 R: She wake up, she's wake up at 6 o'clock. She cook, for his, for her family.
- 2 Umm she pick up, she's shopping because she want to pick up the food for make
- 3 the dinner. Ummm she clean his house. She make the lunch. Umm she put the
- 4 lunch and eat with his family. She read the newspaper. She sleep at 11 pm

*Excerpt 11*

- 1 R: I'm ready. He's want to cross the street to go to another side. She walk with
- 2 his, her, her dog. And he sell some bread to the people. He rode a bicycle. He cut,
- 3 he cut hair. He drive his car. She done with the laundry. He drove his car to get
- 4 his food from the restaurant.

Participant H made two mistakes among the nine sentences in the posttest for Picture Set 1, but did perfectly in the second picture description task as shown below:

*Excerpt 12*

- 1 H: At 6 o'clock, she wakes up and at 7 o'clock, she cooks the breakfast for her
- 2 family. Then at 4:30, she goes to grocery store to buy some stuff. And then at
- 3 5:30, she cleaned the apartment and goes to the gym. At 6:30, she cook...she
- 4 cooks the lunch. Yeah at 6:30 she eats with her family. At 8 o'clock, they are
- 5 watching (2.0) umm, she is watching the television. Then finally she goes to the
- 6 bed at 11 am.

Participant A2 made no mistakes in the first set of pictures and only one mistake on the second task. He forgot to put "-ing" after the verb "do" in Line 2:

*Excerpt 13*

- 1 A2: He's waiting for the light. He's walking with his dog. He is buying hotdog.
- 2 He is riding his bicycle. He is looking for something. She is driving her car. She
- 3 is do laundry, doing. He is buying from the stand.

Participant A and N both finished the two tasks perfectly.

### Pre-Test and Post-Test Comparison

The data collected from pre-test and post-test contributed to further analysis of the recasts. The result is shown in the Tables 6 and 7. The percentage of the correct morphemes was compared. If there is improvement, it will be marked “improved.” If there is no improvement, it will be labeled “no improvement.” If the participant got all correctly from both the pretest and the posttest, it will be marked “N/A.”

Table 6

*Pre-Test and Post-Test Comparison for Picture Set 1: Third Person Singular “-s”*

Participant	Percentage of the Correct Morphemes (Pretest)	Percentage of the Correct Morphemes (Posttest)	Improvement
Z	30.77%	12.5%	No improvement
R	0%	0%	No improvement
A	100%	100%	N/A
H	25%	87.5%	Improved
N	75%	100%	Improved
A2	62.5%	100%	Improved

As shown in Table 6, three students showed improvement and two showed no improvement, and one student performed perfectly in both pre-test and post-test. When this student was doing his pre-test, he used present progressive where he should use simple present tense. He asked the researcher if he should use simple present tense during the pre-test. The researcher did not tell him but repeated the prompt, which is to describe Mary’s typical day. He

started over and finished the pretest perfectly. Look at the data from the pre-test and post-test, even though one more person improved than the number of participants who did not improve, the data alone is not sufficient enough to say that the recasts worked.

The comparison results between pre-test and post-test for Picture Set 2 are shown in Table 7.

Table 7

*Pre-Test and Post-Test Comparison Picture Set 2: “be + V.ing”*

Participant	Percentage of the Correct Morphemes (Pretest)	Percentage of the Correct Morphemes (Posttest)	Improvement
Z	55.56%	12.5%	No improvement
R	57.14%	0%	No improvement
A	100%	100%	N/A
H	50%	100%	Improvement
N	100%	100%	N/A
A2	100%	87.5%	No improvement

Three participants in the study improved on their present progressive tense. Two participants did perfectly in both pretest and posttest, and one student showed no improvement. Given that A2 only made one mistake and he just forgot to add “-ing,” the result could have changed. Therefore, the data is not sufficient enough to say the recasts worked.

An unexpected result happened during the research. Three students initiated self-repair during the posttest, which did not happen in pretest.

*Excerpt 13*

H: At 6:30, she cook . . . she cooks the lunch. Yeah at 6:30 she eats with her family.

*Excerpt 14*

A: And she clean, she cleans her office at 5:30 p.m.

*Excerpt 15*

A2: She go shopping, goes shopping at 4:30 pm. . . She sleeps at, go, goes to bed at 11 p.m.

Two of the three participants either did both pretest and posttest perfectly or showed improvement in the posttest. Participant A2, though, showed improvement in the simple present tense but made one mistake in the present progressive tense. Even though the data from the posttest is not sufficient enough to say that the recasts worked, initiating self-repair did provide evidence that participants were more aware given it did not happen during pretest. Therefore, recasts might have an effect on them.

### **The Results from Six-Week Treatment**

Six-week treatment was given after the pretest. During this period of time, participants received verbal recasts, gestural recasts and a combination of both respectively. Interestingly, two different phenomenon that came up along with giving recasts. Participants were aware of the two tenses and initiated self-repair after recasts. What's more, when one participant made a mistake, other participants initiated recasts before the researcher did (see Expert 36). Table 8 summarized the frequency of each situation.

Table 8

*Recasts Frequency*

Type	The Number of Recasts	The Number of Uptake
Verbal Recasts	13	7
Gestural Recasts	6	5
Combination of Both	7	7
Self-Correction	3	N/A
Other Participants Give Recasts	6	6

**Verbal recasts.** As shown in Table 8, verbal recasts were given the most since it is the most common way to give recasts. Verbal recasts were mostly given by rising intonation or explicitly telling what tense participants should use. There are few examples of the verbal recasts given in class.

*Excerpt 16*

- 1 T: *Second one, G.*
- 2 G: *Spoken?*
- 3 T: *Spoken?*
- 4 G: *Speaking.*

*Excerpt 17*

- 1 Z: *Hussain is dancing on the floor and he asks someone.*
- 2 T: *Asks?*
- 3 Z: *is asking*
- 4 T: *Very good. He is asking.*

*Excerpt 18*

- 1 H: *Then she laugh at her husband.*
- 2 T: *She laugh at?*
- 3 H: *Laughs at.*

A total of 12 verbal recasts were given to students. Among the 12 verbal recasts, participants showed uptake to the recast six times, another six times failed. There are three main reasons that they failed to show uptake.

- 1) Participants responded to the subject instead of verb.

*Excerpt 19*

- 1 A: *He is going to become an engineer before he die.*
- 2 T: *Before he die?*
- 3 A: *They die.*
- 4 T: *What's your whole sentence?*

*Excerpt 20*

- 1 R: *She is going to become a doctor before her die*
- 2 T: *Before her die.*
- 3 R: *Before she die.*

- 2) Participants thought the researcher was negotiating meanings.

*Excerpt 21*

- 1 A: *Ali learn German hard in his room now.*
- 2 T: *Ali learn German hard in his room now?*
- 3 A: *Yep.*

*Excerpt 22*

- 1 J: *They just get.*
- 2 T: *RIGHT NOW, they just get?*
- 3 J: *Yeah.*

- 3) Participants did not understand.

*Excerpt 23*

- 1 Z: *Ali is going to pray before he die.*
- 2 T: *Before he die*
- 3 Z: *hmm*

*Excerpt 24*

- 1 R: *He like play video games.*
- 2 T: *He likes to play video games?*
- 3 R: *He like play video games.*

From the results above, I also found that the shorter the recasts were the easier it was for participants to notice, which is in line with Philp's (2003) claim that recast length had an effect on immediate recall of recasts. If the recast was just a word missing "-s" with a rising tone such as "asks?" participants were more likely to show uptake. However, if the recast was a long sentence, such as "He likes to play video games?" participants may end up failing to notice.

**Gestural recasts.** There were six gestural recasts given to participants during the 6-week treatment. Students were shown a yellow card if they missed the third person singular "-s" morpheme in simple present tense. The researcher moved her hands up and down like a wave if participants made a mistake on present progressive tense, which is the "be +V-ing" form. Among the six verbal recasts given, participants showed five incidents of uptake.

1) Example of successful uptake.

*Excerpt 25*

- 1 Z: Ali is going to pray before he die.
- 2 T: Before he die?
- 3 Z: *hmm*
- 4 T: (Shows the yellow card)
- 5 Z: Before he dies.

In this example, Participant Z produced the verb "die" in the wrong form as shown in Line 1. The researcher did a verbal recast in Line 2, but Z did not show uptake. Then the researcher did a gestural recast on Z by showing him the yellow card. Now Z noticed and showed successful uptake by correcting "die" to "dies."

2) Example of failing uptake:

*Excerpt 26*

- 1 A: Ali learn German hard in his room now.
- 2 T: Ali learn German hard in his room now?
- 3 A: Yep.
- 4 T: One last chance. (Waving arm up and down) NOW

- 5 A: Now?  
 6 T: *Yes, now.*  
 7 A: What now?

In this example, the researcher used rising intonation as a verbal recast on Participant A. But A misunderstood it as negotiating meaning. Then the researcher did a gestural recast by moving her arm up and down and emphasized the obligatory context “NOW.” Participant A was confused and did not show uptake.

**A combination of both verbal and gestural recasts.** As summarized in the literature review, it is natural for people to talk with gestures. Therefore, giving a combination of both recasts is easier than just giving gestural recasts for the researcher. The researcher produced seven recasts in which both verbal and gestural were given. Participants showed successful uptake.

*Excerpt 27*

- 1 Z: *Sadly, Jack learn German before breakfast.*  
 2 T: **Sadly, Jack learn German before breakfast? (Show the yellow card)**  
 3 Z: Learns  
 4 T: *Learns, right?*

The researcher gave both verbal and gestural recast in Line 2, participant Z showed uptake in Line 3.

*Excerpt 28*

- 1 Z: *Rose sit on a chair carefully.*  
 2 T: **Rose SIT? (Show the yellow card)**  
 3 Z: Sits

The researcher gave both verbal and gestural recast in Line 2, participant Z showed uptake in Line 3.

*Excerpt 29*

- 1 G: *Ali want to get married before he die.*
- 2 T: **Before he die? (Yellow card)**
- 3 Z: **Dies.**
- 4 G: *Ali is going to get married before he dies.*
- 5 T: *Very good.*

The researcher gave both verbal and gestural recast in Line 2, Participant G showed uptake in Line 3.

**Other situations.**

Notice one mistake at one time:

*Excerpt 30*

- 1 R: *She is going to become a doctor before her die.*
- 2 T: *Before **her die?***
- 3 R: *Before **she** die.*
- 4 T: *Before she **die?***
- 5 R: *Before she **dies.***

6

The first recast were meant to have the participant notice the morpheme “-s” was missing, however, the participant noticed the subject was wrong. Therefore, another recast was given. The participant can easily notice one mistake at a time, but to correct the entire sentence correctly was still hard for him.

Here is another example of giving verbal recast where short recast works better than long ones:

*Excerpt 31*

- 1 R: *He like play video games.*
- 2 T: **He likes to play video games?**
- 3 R: *He like play video games.*
- 4 T: **Like?**
- 5 R: *Likes.*
- 6 T: *One more time.*
- 7 R: *He likes to play video games.*

When the first verbal recast was given, Participant R was not aware of the mistake. He did not know what was going on. So he repeated the sentence. Then, the researcher gave another verbal recast, but this time, the recast was just on the specific word where he made the mistake. He noticed and showed uptake the second time. The reason could be that the recast is short and therefore more specific.

- 1) Verbal recast failed, but gestural recast worked:

*Excerpt 32*

- 1 Z: *Ali is going to pray before he die.*
- 2 T: **Before he die?**
- 3 Z: *hmm*
- 4 T: **(Shows the yellow card)**
- 5 Z: *Before he dies.*

When given the verbal recast, Participant Z did not understand the verbal recast as shown in Line 3. But when the researcher showed him the yellow card, he corrected himself immediately as shown in Line 5.

- 2) Verbal recast failed, gestural recast failed, but a combination of both worked:

*Excerpt 33*

- 1 A: *Ali learn German hard in his room now.*
- 2 T: *Ali learn German hard in his room now?*
- 3 A: **Yep.**
- 4 T: *One last chance. (Wave arm up and down)*
- 5 A: **Now?**
- 6 T: *Yes, now.*
- 7 A: **What now?**
- 8 T: *Ali learn German hard in his room NOW. (Wave arm up and down). This is*
- 9 *ongoing. What form of the verb should you use?*
- 10 A: **Ali is learning German hard in his room now.**
- 11 T: *Very good.*

**Self-repair.** Participants started to be more aware of the two tenses after a few weeks training. On the fourth week of the treatment, participants initiated self-repair. That is to say,

participants were more aware of these two tenses and started noticing their mistakes, which answered the first research question, “Do L2 learners initiate self-repair after recasts?”

Following are some examples of participants initiated self-repair.

*Excerpt 34*

- 1 A2: He asks R, he is asking R to dance.
- 2 T: Very good.

Participant A2 used simple present tense while he should use present progressive tense. He noticed that he made a mistake and then corrected himself right away by saying, “he is asking R to dance.”

Here is another example of self-repair:

*Excerpt 35*

- 1 Z: He is explain, he is explaining to her that he want to dance with her.
- 2 T: Want to?
- 3 Z: He wants to.

Participant Z noticed that he needed to add “-ing” at the end of the verb, and corrected himself by producing the correct structure. However, there was another mistake in her sentence. The researcher gave a verbal recast to help her produce the targeted utterance. She did the uptake successfully.

When participants showed uptake, it indicated that the recast helped. Furthermore, when students did the self-repair, they were more aware of the tenses.

**Other participants give recasts.** There were six situations where one participant made a mistake; other participants gave the recasts before the researcher did.

*Excerpt 36*

- 1 Z: He was really worried about her.
- 2 A: He was?
- 3 T: Yeah, he was?
- 4 Z: He is, he is.

In this example, Participant Z made a mistake on present progressive tense. We were doing a filling in blank exercise that day and the obligatory context was to talk about how this person is feeling now. So she should have used present progressive tense. Before the researcher gave the recast, Participant A said, “He was?” with rising intonation. This is the same recast that the researcher used throughout the treatment period. And then the researcher repeated by saying, “Yeah, he was?” Then Participant Z modified his utterance correctly. This shows that Participant Z might have been modeling the researcher’s recasts, which means some of the participants were aware of the recasts.

Sometimes, participants did not give verbal recasts by rising intonation, but gave them the explicit answer directly.

*Excerpt 37*

- 1 Z: *And he ask for....*
- 2 N: *He is asking*
- 3 Z: *He asks.*
- 4 N: *He is asking.*
- 5 A: *He is asking.*
- 6 Z: *He is asking for eating dinner together.*

In this conversation, the researcher did not say anything to the participant. But Participant N corrected Participant Z directly. N tried to tell Z that the correct form should be “He is asking.” However, Z did not notice. He repeated his sentence. Then N prompted another recast by saying, “He is asking.” Participant A gave the same recast. Now Z noticed and produced the correct utterance.

Of all the six recasts that other participants gave, all of them were verbal recasts. There were two possible reasons. First, participants might have learned this from the researcher given that the researcher gave the verbal recasts the most. Second, participants did not have a yellow

card available all the time to prompt gestural recasts. Also, they might be shy about moving their arms up and down to give gestural recasts when someone made a mistake on present progressive tense.

### Follow-up Interview Results

Three out of eight participants were selected to do a follow-up interview after the post-test. These three students all unconsciously gave other participants recasts. These participants were asked to watch the video episodes where they did recasts on other people and where the researcher did recasts on them. They were all asked to recall what they were thinking at that time when recasts happened. In addition, two more follow-up questions were asked.

When asked what the participants were thinking when the recasts were given, there were two different answers.

- 1) Participants already noticed before the recast happened.

#### *Excerpt 38*

- 1 *T: So, when you said "She stand up." I said, "She stand?"*
- 2 *A: Stands*
- 3 *T: Right. So when I corrected you, what were you thinking at that moment after*
- 4 *you heard me say, "She stand?"*
- 5 *A: At that moment, I want to correct before you correct me.*
- 6 *T: Oh, so you have already noticed by the time the words were out.*
- 7 *A: Yup.*

- 2) Participants noticed a mistake, but did not know where the mistake was.

#### *Excerpt 39*

- 1 *T: So I said, Ali learn German. I tried to remind you, what were you thinking at*
- 2 *that moment?*
- 3 *A: at that moment?*
- 4 *T: See, you did not give me any reaction.*
- 5 *A: I was thinking about the sentence. When you did this (Wave arm up and down),*
- 6 *I did not know what the answer was.*
- 7 *But I don't remember what I was thinking.*

- 8 T: *You don't remember? It was here. (Showed the video episode one more time)*  
 9 A: *Yup yup. **I was thinking about the preposition "in." I was thinking "in" was***  
 10 ***not correct.***  
 11 T: *Ah, so "in a room."*  
 12 A: *Yup.*  
 13 T: ***So you were focusing more on the "in."***  
 14 A: *Yeah, I want to put "at"*  
 15 T: *"At the room"?"*  
 16 A: *Yeah.*

In Line 9, Participant A explained that he was thinking of the preposition "in."

Preposition was the focus of that class. Participants did a lot of exercises on preposition, which explained why Participant A was thinking of "in."

3) Participants noticed the mistake and corrected it.

*Excerpt 40*

- 1 T: *So what were you thinking when I showed the yellow card?*  
 2 H: ***I was thinking I made a mistake. I should not use "speaking." It is third.***  
 3 T: *Third person singular?*  
 4 H: *Yup. So I should put "-s."*  
 5 T: *Good*

The selected participants were also asked what they were thinking while they gave recasts to other participants. The answer is they noticed there was something wrong in the sentence and they wanted the person who made the mistake to correct it.

What's more, these three selected participants were asked two follow-up questions:

1. Do you think recasts help you in general?
2. Which one is easier for you to notice, gestural recasts or verbal recasts?

All of the three participants agreed that recasts helped them in general. They believed that recast is a good way to give feedback. It provides an opportunity for them to think, as well as to be more aware of the targeted form. Interestingly, all of them think that verbal recasts are easier

for them to notice. They all like rising intonation verbal recasts better than the gestural recasts. What is more, participants had difficulty in associating the gestures with the mistake. Even though the researcher had explained and practiced with the participants at the beginning of the 6-week treatment, they still cannot relate the gestures to the mistake. This is also one of the limitations of the study that these gestures are new to them to use in grammar classes.

### Summary of the Results

This study had yield an interesting result on which recast type, verbal, gestural or a combination of both works better. Let's review Table 8 (reprinted below for convenience) again:

Table 8

#### *Recasts Frequency*

Type	The Number of Recasts	The Number of Uptake
Verbal Recasts	13	7
Gestural Recasts	6	5
Combination of Both	7	7
Self-Correction	3	N/A
Other Participants Give Recasts	6	6

The researcher gave verbal recasts 13 times, participants showed uptake seven times; gestural recasts six times, participants showed uptake five times; seven times of a combination of both, participants showed uptake seven times. From the data above, we can see that a combination of both worked the best with 100% uptake rate. As mentioned in the literature review, Mori's (1988) study showed that gesture can be to the reinforcement of the words. So it is not surprising that the combination of both worked very well. Gestural recasts uptake rate is

higher than verbal recasts uptake rate, however, the researcher gave verbal recasts twice as many as gestural recasts. If given the same number of recasts, the results might change. Moreover, the interview revealed a different result. The selected participants all believed the verbal recasts worked better. That could be because of the familiarity with the verbal recasts in general.

## CHAPTER VI

### DISCUSSION

This study was conducted in an effort to look into how verbal recasts, gestural recasts and a combination of both affect L2 development. The eight participants generated great data in analyzing recasts as interactional feedback contributes to students' learning. The 6-week treatment results provide information that is worth insightful research. To further examine how recasts affect L2 development, I will compare studies that other scholars did before to this study.

My first research question was "Do L2 learners initiate self-repair after recasts?" During the 6-week treatment, participants have received verbal recasts, gestural recasts and a combination of both on the simple present and present progressive tenses. After the fourth week, participants started self-repair in their conversations. What is more, this happened in the posttest too when participants made a mistake and they corrected themselves. This means that participants are more aware of the two tenses and learning is happened. The result confirmed Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis, which is learning happens through communication and the feedback from conversational interaction contributes to interlanguage development. As Gass and Selinker (2008) pointed out, an immediate response to recasts may not demonstrate learning but simply mimicking or repeating, this research examined over a course of 8 week's study to prove the learning happened, which was further demonstrated by the pretest and posttest. The pre-test and post-test results showed that three participants improved, one participant did perfectly in both protest and posttest, and two did not improve. The three participants who improved happened to be those who got the most recasts during class. They were active in class and always interacted with the researcher. The other two participants missed many classes during the 6-week

treatment. Therefore, learning did happen during the interactional feedback. An unexpected situation happened during the study, not only did some participants initiated self-repair, they also gave recasts on other participants during the treatment period. This further demonstrated the participants developing self-awareness of the two tenses after recasts. This supports Schmidt's (1995) definition of noticing—learners' state "of being aware" of the difference between his or her utterance and the target language.

My second research question was, "Which recasts, verbal, gestural or a combination of both do learners tend to orient toward?" The data gathered from the 6-week treatment for answering this question confirmed the results of the studies done before.

According to Han (2002), compared with explicit forms of negative feedback, recasts are less likely to raise learner's awareness. Al-Surmi (2012) also pointed out that learners have to notice the gap or that there is a difference between the sentences they produce with the target sentence. In my study, there are times students failed to notice and did not show uptake. They were either not aware of the target language or failed to notice the difference between their utterance and the target language. Sometimes, it required me to give recasts twice, which is inconsistent with Doughty and Varela's study (1998). They further elaborated a corrective recast as a two-step procedure: (a) repetition (usually with rising intonation) to draw attention followed by (b) a recast to provide, contrastively, the necessary target exemplar. I saw students got confused when I gave the verbal recast with a rising tone for the first time. When I did the second recast, I either gave out the correct form or I would just focus on the mistake. There are also times when participants thought I was negotiating meanings when the recast was given. This

supports Amar and Spada's (2006) point: "The corrective nature of recasts may be obscured by their formal and functional overlap with repetitions" (p. 545).

As to gestural recasts, my study shows that five out of six times participants successfully responded to recasts. When adding gestural recasts to verbal recasts, seven out of seven times participants did the uptake. Mori's (1988) study demonstrated and confirmed that teachers' gestures can reinforce the speech by adding redundancy to the spoken message. That is why a combination of both recasts worked the best on students.

### **Implications**

This study showed that recasts are hard for participants to notice and ESL learners often have difficulties in recognizing recasts, but in most circumstances, it is still a good way to give interactional feedback. As pointed out by Egi (2010), learners were "more likely to not only report understanding recasts as corrective feedback but also to explicitly identify the mismatch between the interlanguage and L2" in feedback episodes in which learners successfully modify their errors (p. 17). Thus, I encourage teachers to use recasts as interactional feedback in classroom. Students will have to go through the process of noticing the different between their utterance and the target language. As long as they noticed the gap, it is very likely that they will respond to recasts. If students did not notice the recasts, maybe the teacher can try again so that students will be given the second chance for uptake.

What is more, teachers can try to use different types of recasts when giving feedback. Sometimes verbal recasts work best as it is the most common way to give feedback. It is natural for both teachers and students. Sometimes verbal recasts will work better because they are more obvious and more likely to be noticed (Lazaraton, 2004). If the teacher and the students reach a

conscience knowing what each gesture refers to, it will be easier for students to respond to the recast. Giving a combination of both recasts is also highly recommended. This study proved that a combination of both worked best among recasts type.

### **Limitations**

When it comes to the results of the study, there are some limitations that should be considered. First of all, the sample size of this study is notably small. This study was done on Level 3 students, who had already studied and been exposed to the simple present and present progressive tenses. Therefore, these two tenses were not the focus of their grammar book or that level. Another limitation could be that the students had never been exposed to gestural recasts. Therefore, they might not have been used to it as a pedagogical strategy. If given enough gestural recasts training for one semester, students might show more uptake. Additionally, there were not enough opportunities for the researcher to give recasts on the two tenses. The researcher tried to capture as much as possible during daily conversations, class discussions instead of the practice from the book. Second, the number of different types of recasts is not same. Since the researcher wanted the recasts to be as natural as possible, it is difficult to control how many recasts should be given. Therefore, it is impossible for the researcher to give the exact same number of recasts for the different morphemes. As indicated above, there were twice as many verbal recasts as gestural recasts, which could definitely be a factor affecting the results.

What's more, there is no follow-up study after the study was done. Oliver (1995) reported that the uptake may not happen until later discourse for L2 due to a delayed response phenomenon. Some studies have shown that the effects of recasts were more apparent days or weeks after the treatment (e.g., Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Muranoi, 2000). The post-test was done

right after the 6-week treatment. The post-test and the follow-up interview both happened right after the 6-week treatment. Therefore, there was no further follow-up study to see if they improved weeks after the post-test in next semester.

Furthermore, there are other factors that affect students learning that could also affect this study. For example, the researcher was only with them 1 hour a day, 4 days a week. They could have learned these two tenses in other English classes, and we do not know if they use English or not outside of the classroom settings.

Therefore, further studies need to be conducted on this subject. I would like to see more research on recasts in longitude studies, more training to be given to teachers who give recasts and a larger sample size to analyze this subject. In addition, more gestures designed for more morphemes should be introduced to students so that students are accustomed to using gesture as feedback.

## **Conclusion**

This study sheds light on how verbal recasts, gestural recasts and a combination of both affect L2 development. It re-examined recasts as interactional feedback in classroom settings. The results indicated that giving students recasts as feedback could contribute to students' awareness of the difference between their sentences and the target utterance. Participants developed the awareness within the 6-week treatment. They started to repair their own sentences and even did recasts to each other, which indicates that the more recasts were given, the more aware students might be. Furthermore, students are more likely to notice if given recasts on specific words than on an entire sentence. When participants show uptake, it means that they

correct themselves and “grasp” the knowledge temporally. If given enough recasts on one grammar item, participants might be able to achieve internalization, which is the ultimate goal.

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## Appendix

### Student Background Information

1. Name: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Gender: \_\_\_\_\_
3. Country: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Native Language: \_\_\_\_\_
5. Age: \_\_\_\_\_
6. Level: \_\_\_\_\_
7. Years spent learning English: \_\_\_\_\_