Reinforcing Students’ Oral Performance through Using Recasts:
A Descriptive Approach

Case study: 3rd year LMD students of Mohamed Khider University of Biskra

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Foreign Languages as Partial Fulfillment for the Master Degree in English: Sciences of Language

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Dedication

To my beloved parts of me, to the moon and sun ever shiny,
To the best dad and mum, the world ever knows surely.

To the most precious people to my heart, to the ones who
gave me strength and hope; My dear sisters: Samira, Faiza,
Karima, Noura, Sabrina, Imane and Sara.

To my adorable brother: Abdel Djabar.

To my little lovely nieces: Narimen, Maria, Widad,
Aya and Inas.

To all my dear friends with whom I shared the university life with its lights and shadows.

To the one who believed in me and prayed for my success, my special friend “Souad”.

To my Lovely friend « Mimi ».

To all those who have been supportive, caring and patient, sometimes beyond their strength especially my dear friend « Amine Fattouche ».

To all who were there for me, thank you for ignoring my faults and encouraging my merits.

I dedicate this work.
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Abstract

The core of this research is the enlightenment on one of the most important techniques in teaching EFL which is teacher’s corrective feedback «recasts». Our study emphasises on its effect on the EFL learners’ oral production, and therefore, on the effectiveness of their learning. The present study is based on the hypothesis which states that if oral expression teachers use recasts as a corrective feedback technique, EFL students’ oral proficiency would be enhanced. It aims at encouraging EFL teachers to use recasting as a correction’s form in order to overlap EFL learners’ hinders, correct their learners’ committed errors and to improve their speaking performance, as well as identifying the EFL learners’ reactions towards their teacher’s corrective feedback, their preferences to the type of feedback they would like their teacher to provide them with, in addition to the preferable ways on how their teacher should correct errors. In order to achieve these objectives, a questionnaire is administered to third year LMD students at Biskra University to obtain insights about recasting and its form. The results of the students’ questionnaire showed that the EFL students encounter a lot of errors during their speech and the teacher should correct these errors by giving corrective feedback. It can be effective at the end of the oral production through giving advice or suggestions rather than criticism. Moreover, recasting is a helpful technique to enhance EFL learners’ speaking production.
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

**E.F.L**: English as Foreign Language.

**T.L**: Target Language.

**S.L**: Second Language.

**M.T**: Mother Tongue.

**F.L**: Foreign Language.

**L₁**: First Language.

**L₂**: Second Language.

**i.e.**: I explain.

**e.g.**: for example.

**i.e.,**: that is.

**vs.**: versus.

**%**: Percentage
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General Introduction

The aim behind teaching a foreign language is not only imparting knowledge about its grammatical rules and vocabulary, but also enabling learners with the adequate capacities to use that language and communicate with it effectively in various contexts. This is due to the fact that the importance of speaking a foreign language is based on the individual’s ability to understand and produce meaningful messages in the target language. However, students are still struggling to acquire English language speaking skills because of several psychological and cognitive factors. Hence, Developing learners’ oral proficiency requires mainly overcoming these obstacles. This shows that one of the primary teachers’ tasks in the classroom is to enable their students communicate effectively. Thus, the teacher has to react to his/her students’ oral productions by giving them an effective feedback for overcoming the mistakes committed. Feedback is either positive or negative. The former is usually presented in the form of examples of acceptable or target-like utterances, whereas the latter includes information about what is not acceptable in the target language. Negative feedback may be explicit or implicit. Classroom teacher feedback was mostly explicit negative feedback, but the emergence of communicative and content-based teaching approaches brought about some changes in the way feedback techniques are used in the classroom; there is now a shift from explicit negative feedback, which may lead to negative affective reactions on the part of the learners, to implicit negative feedback. One widely used implicit negative feedback technique in second or foreign language teaching is the recast- the teacher’s correct restatement of a learner’s incorrect utterance. In other words, recasts are deemed to be one of the effective ways to foster learners’ oral performances.
1. Statement of the Problem

This research is inspired from the researcher’s personal experience as an EFL student. To begin with, it has been noticed that explicit negative feedback especially in interactional classroom activities makes the students intimidated and further increases their reluctance to use the TL. Moreover, It has been noticed that when students receive explicit feedback especially on productive language skills, this may lead to negative affective reactions; that is, they get embarrassed, demotivated, and develop negative attitudes towards the use of the target language. Rather, it will lead them to commit more and more mistakes. In other words, instead of solving the problem(s) students are suffering from while using the TL explicit negative feedback creates new other ones. This lead to an urge to try to find an alternative feedback technique that is more conducive for students, and that is why we wanted to investigate the potential role of the recast as an implicit feedback technique in the EFL classroom.

2. Significance of the Study

This research in intended to give a clear image of recasts and their benefit in the students’ oral performance, and how they are going to reinforce EFL student’s communicative abilities in the target language. Moreover, it emphasises the teachers’ role in the teaching–learning process and especially in oral classes.
3. Aim of the Study

Recasting is considered to be one of the effective ways to foster learners’ oral performances. Throughout this study, our main objective is to examine to what extent recasts can be a good technique in improving students’ speaking skill.

5. Research Questions

Our research aims at addressing the following questions:

- What are Recasts?
- Do teachers use recasts in their oral classes?
- To what extent will the use of recasts help students improve their speaking performance?

5. Research Hypothesis

We hypothesise that if oral expression teachers use recasts as a corrective feedback technique, EFL students’ oral performance will be enhanced and their mistakes will be reduced.

6. Research Methodology

Method: Our study has been conducted through a descriptive method as an appropriate way of testing our hypothesis. That is, it aims to describe recasting and its significant role in improving learners’ speaking proficiency.

Population: To achieve the stated objectives, third year students of Biskra University at the English Division will be consulted in order to consider their opinions and to gain insights from their answers about the subject under investigation.
**Students’ Sample:** This study takes place at the university level with third year LMD students of English (Ten groups about 340 students) for the academic year 2014/2015. Since it is difficult to work on the whole population; we have chosen a representative sample of 50 students. The reason behind choosing those students is due to the fact that they are supposed to have a good level in English and they are somehow competent in it. Those students represent the sample to obtain useful information that serves our investigation.

**7. Data Gathering Tool**

For this study, we opted for the questionnaire as a data gathering tool to achieve a more reliable and comprehensive picture. This questionnaire is directed to third year LMD students whose responses and suggestions are very significant.

**8. Structure of Dissertation**

The present research is divided into two main parts, a theoretical part which includes two chapters and a practical part which concerns the investigation and the analysis of the results.

The first chapter is devoted to highlight the skill of speaking; Definitions of speaking, elements of speaking, the importance of speaking, the relationship between speaking and other skills. Then, we will discuss the difficulties of students’ inability to speak well in English also activities used for teaching speaking. In this chapter, different activities for developing speaking proficiency are presented. Finally, the roles of the teacher in the process of teaching and assessing speaking.

The second chapter provides a better understanding of recasts; it includes learning theories associated with recasts are examined along with studies exploring learners’ variables such as developmental readiness and students’ perception of teacher recasts in
different forms of dyadic dialogues. Recast studies conducted in a variety of settings are reviewed as another important part of the theoretical background of this study.
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SPEAKING SKILL
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Chapter One: Speaking Skill

Introduction
The reasons behind learning a foreign language (FL) may vary from one individual to another, yet the aim is one, being able to communicate and express oneself fluently using the target language (TL). Speaking is at the heart of learning a FL, because it is the skill through which others can recognise what we say and how we think. Since speaking is of that importance, light will be shed in this chapter on speaking skill in English as a Foreign Language context in details, including the main characteristics of speaking performance, promoting fluency, with some focus on teaching speaking activities and finally teachers’ roles during speaking activities will be determined.

1. Definitions of Speaking

To define speaking, Petrie (1987; in Lyons, Coates et al, p. 336) cited that “speaking is an activity which most of us spend a great deal of time engaged in, apparently without any effort and with not very much thought.”. Chaney (1998, p.13) also defines speaking as "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts". Speaking is a basic skill that language learners need to master among other language skills (Reading, Writing, Listening). Ur (1991) argues that:

of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred to as ‘speakers’ of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing: and may if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak (P.120).
Speaking skill is an interactive process of expressing and exchanging ideas. It involves the ability to compose, critically analyse, and deliver information through verbal and non-verbal interactions. Being skillful in speaking means to be able to use the language appropriately i.e., to be able to select suitable words that suit the speaking situation, say it clearly, and to stay flexible when difficult situation comes out. Speaking requires not only producing specific aspects of language such as grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary but also understanding when, why and in what ways to produce a language. Richards and Renandya agreed that “Learning to speak a foreign language requires more than knowing its grammatical and semantic rules” (p.204). Moreover, Hedge (2000) in her book Teaching and Learning Language in the Classroom, defines speaking as “a skill by which they [people] are judged while first impression are being formed” (p.261). That is to say by the speaking skill people can convey meanings and transmit messages that they may frequently be judged, and through which they may make or lose relationships.

2. The relationship between Speaking and other skills

Good English language skill and fluency is a prerequisite for success and advancement in many fields. Thus, language teaching courses depend deeply on the four skills, namely: speaking, listening, reading and writing. One of the main responsibilities of EFL teachers is to make that sort of combination among the four skills according to
the course objectives and the learner’s needs. Although, the four skills are often treated separately, they are closely related to one another.

2.1 Speaking vs. Listening

Foreign language teachers should be aware that great deal of class time must be devoted to improve learners’ ability to use the TL for communicative purposes, especially the speaking and listening skills, which are often connected. One is in need to listen to the pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar of native speakers. Subsequently, he will learn how to produce and communicate in the TL effectively. Byrne (1976, p. 8) states that the listening skill is as important as the speaking skill, because both the speaker and the listener have a positive function to perform. Thus, a successful communication during face-to-face conversation depends mainly on the relationship between the speaker and the listener. This relationship relies on the interaction between the two which is a complex process; the speaker has to decipher the message he wants to convey, whereas the listener has to interpret the speaker’s intentions according to the context. To end up, listening is correlated with speaking. If we want to speak better, we have to listen better. Because when we speak clearly, listeners recognize our messages easily.

2.2 Speaking vs. Writing

Both speaking and writing skills are deemed to be essential in teaching and learning a FL. Although they are both regarded as
productive/communicative skills, they differ in many aspects (Golkova & Hubackova, 2014). It is worth stating, also, that the spoken language includes incomplete sentences or incorrect grammar, false starts and many repetitions as opposed to the written one which requires structured, gathered and full sentences. To sum up, the speaking skill is as important as the skill of writing, but we must consider the differences between them when learning. It is not a question of opposition, but rather a matter of priority that should be given to one aspect rather than the other. Speech and writing are two complementary aspects of the same subject; language. In other words, they are “two facets of the same coin”. Historically, socially, scientifically and even politically, it has been proven, moreover, emphasized that speech occurs before writing and, thus, should be given a certain priority.

3. The Importance of the Speaking Skill

Relying on the question that anyone may ask one meeting another person which is, of course, “do you speak English?”, but not “do you write English?”, we can deduce the importance of the speaking skill and proficiency in English in people’s daily lives. We understand that most of people take speaking and knowing a language as synonyms. It is the skill by which people are frequently judged and through which they may make or lose friends when first impression is
made. (Hedge, 2000; Bygate, 1987). And as Luoma (2004: Preface of the Editors) claims ”the ability to speak in a foreign language is at the very heart of what it means to be able to use a foreign language”. Today, many second language (SL) learners give the speaking skill priority in their learning, because if they master this skill, then, they will be considered as if they have mastered all of the other skills. With speaking, learners can express their personal feelings and opinions or ideas, tell stories, inform or explain, converse and discuss, i.e. through speaking, we can display the different functions of language. Speaking is very important outside the classroom as well. Many companies and organisations look for people who speak English very well for the purpose of communicating with others. So, speakers of foreign languages have more opportunities to get jobs in such companies. Baker and Westrup (2003, p.05) support that “a student who can speak English well may have greater chance for further education, of finding employment and gaining promotion.”

4. EFL Students’ Problems in Speaking

Learning how to speak may be troublesome for S/F language learners. Though, most EFL learners encounter many difficulties that hinder them from speaking fluently especially in front of others. These difficulties are due to several factors such as: lack of self-esteem, anxiety, the use of L1, and attitudes. Ur (1981) speaks about four crucial points that represent problems preventing students to speak
freely inside the classroom. We are focusing mainly on problems related directly to the student and his/her psyche.

4.1. Lack of Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is considered as one of the most pervasive psychological factors that inspire students to reach their goals. It is strongly believed that no successful cognitive or affective activity can be fulfilled without some degree of self-esteem, self-confidence, and knowledge of oneself where they all have to do with “defining oneself and finding acceptance of self in expressing that self in relation to valued others.” (Brown, 2007, p. 154). Self-esteem is defined by Coopersmith (1967, p. 4-5) as being “a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that individuals hold towards themselves.” (Brown, 2007). In other words, self-esteem is the evaluation that individuals make with reference to themselves. People’s self-esteem is obtained from the different experiences with themselves and with others in relation to the peripheral world. Teachers, on their parts, should act as fuel to fire. They should convince their students that “yes, they can do it!” to enhance self-esteem in them, because when the student loses his/her self-esteem, absolutely, he/she is not going neither to speak fluently nor to perform better orally.

4.2 Anxiety
Anxiety is another important factor in SL learning. An easy definition of this term would be that of Scovel (1978, p.134) who states that “anxiety is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry” (Brown, 2007, p. 161). The degree of anxiety differs from one to another. Such a problem as anxiety cannot be completely erased. Anxiety should be, then, controlled in a way that the audience cannot notice it (quavering voice, hand wringing, or fidgeting). So, the less anxieties the learners have, the better acquisition proceeds (Saetan, 1991).

4.3 The Use of the Mother Language

Students also can be influenced by the use of their mother tongue (MT) during the process of learning the TL. Harbord (1992, Cited in Harmer, 2001) claims that the use of L₁ is a habit that occurs most of the time without the teacher’s encouragement. The use of L₁ is clearly noticed when students perform pedagogical tasks, especially when one of them is explaining something to his/her friend. On one hand, Harmer (2001, p. 131) considers that the use of MT in classroom especially during the conversations is a sign of a student/teacher failure. In the other hand, he states that there are many reasons why students use their MT. Firstly, when students are asked to do something that is higher than their linguistic capacities, they tend to prefer to use their L₁ to express their ideas. This means that the inadequacy of the task makes the use of L₁ inevitable.
Secondly, it is an entirely natural thing to do since translation is one of the most used strategies followed by learners to acquire a S/F language-almost without thinking about it. This is because “we try to make sense of a new linguistic( and conceptual)world we are already familiar with”(Harmer, 2001, p.131). Nevertheless, code switching between L₁ and L₂ is naturally developmental (Elbridge, 1996, Cited in Harmer, 2001). Thirdly, teachers themselves are one of the causes of the use of L₁ by FL students is the frequent use of the same L₁ by their teachers, which makes them feel comfortable doing it too.

To conclude with, what teachers have to do is to set up some rules that can limit the over use of L₁ inside the classroom and even out of it on one hand, and to facilitate the learning process on the other hand. Some of these principles are suggested by Harmer (2001) as follows: setting clear guidelines to make students aware of when L₁ is permissible, the choice of task should fit the students’ level as well as the creation of an enjoyable learning atmosphere.

4.4 Attitudes

It is commonly agreed upon that learners’ performance depends on their understanding and feeling.” A feeling [ ] towards a fact or someone’s opinions and feelings” is the definition of an attitude given by the Webster’s New Universal Dictionary of the English Language. Students’ attitudes towards the TL stand as the corner-stone of the learning process. Once a student form a certain attitude, it is too
difficult to get him convinced to change it. Stern (1983, p.386) shows the effect of positive attitudes on students’ learning process. He says that “learners who have positive attitudes learn more, but also learners who learn well acquire positive attitudes”. Nunan and Benson (2004) claim that change of attitude is quite possible. Therefore, teachers have to encourage students to improve and develop positive attitudes towards speaking.

The four cited earlier elements are some of many other problems that cause hindrance for FL students while speaking.

5. Speaking Elements

Speech production is closely related to the ability to recognise speech elements. Some elements which are very important learners need to be able to know to develop their speaking skill in order to speak the second language fluently and accurately, Harmer (2001) mentions these elements which students should have knowledge about.

5.1. Language Features

5.1.1. Connected Speech: This ability is needed by EFL speaker to produce more connected sounds not only separated phonemes. These sounds may be modified (assimilation), omitted (elision), added (linking) or weakened in the connected speech. For example, instead of saying “I would like”, we can say “I’d like”.

5.1.2. Expressive Device: English native speakers use effectively the phonological rules which refer to the pitch, stress, volume and speed with the use of non-verbal
means. These devices help them to convey meanings. If they want to be effective communicators, students are advised to deploy at least some of such devices.

5.1.3. Lexis and Grammar: when learners produce some language functions such as agreeing or disagreeing, expressing surprise, shock, or approval they often use the same lexical structure. The teachers’ role then, is to provide them with different phrases which carry different functions so that they can use them in the different stages of communication with others (Harmer, 2001, p.269).

5.1.4. Negotiation language: EFL learners benefit a lot from the use of negotiation language; they often ask for clarification when they are listening to others talk. So, the teacher has to provide them with the necessary expressions they need when they ask clarification from other speakers such as (I am sorry) I did not catch that, could you explain that again, please? (I am sorry) I don’t understand. Learners also need to perform well their utterances if they seek to be understood and clear especially when they can see that the other interlocutor did not understand them (Harmer, 2001, p.269-270).

5.2. Mental/Social Processing

5.2.1. Language Processing: This refers to the ability to process the language in mind through putting it in a coherent order so that the receiver can understand it and get the intended messages. Language processing involves the retrieval of words and phrases from interlocutors’ memories to use them when they are interacting with others. Therefore, teachers should include speaking activities in language lessons to help students develop habits of rapid language processing in English. Learners also should be able to use the recovered words and phrases from their memories when they are interacting with others.
5.2.2. **Interacting with Others:** Most of the speaking situations involve interaction between two or more interlocutors, that is to say an effective speaker needs to be able to understand and listen to others’ talk then reacts through taking turns or keeping the others to do so.

5.2.3. **Information processing:** Quite apart from our response to others’ feeling; we also need to be able to process the information they tell us the moment we get it. Information Processing relates to the ability of processing the information in the mind rapidly. (Harmer, 2001, p.271).

As a conclusion, speaking is the most fundamental of human skills because we use it constantly. So, for learners to speak a foreign language fluently and accurately, they need to know the already mentioned elements which are very important to develop their oral proficiency.

6. **Characteristics of Speaking Performance**

As the principal means of communication Language is not spoken in a vacuum. Knowledge of the language is not just knowledge of grammatical rules, but also knowing when it says what and to whom, and this is how to use the knowledge in accordance with the social contexts. Accuracy and fluency are two factors that determine the success of the English language students in the future. Thus, accuracy and fluency are the basic features of speaking performance; they are not neutral exclusive, but interdependent. Within the communicative approach, fluency and accuracy are the main characteristics of this approach.
6.1. Accuracy

Because learners seek more to be fluent and they forget about being accurate, many of EFL teachers emphasise the term of accuracy in their teaching. Without structuring accurate speech, speakers’ speech will not be understood and seen ambiguous and their interlocutors will lose interest if they perform incorrect utterances each time during speaking. Therefore, the teachers should pay attention on some activities that are focusing on accuracy and correctness. In addition to these, learners should focus on something in their production of the spoken language, mainly, the grammatical structure, vocabulary and pronunciation. On this scale, according to Hughes (2002) accuracy refers to “the range and the accurate and appropriate use of the candidate’s grammatical source”. (p.87). This procedure helps students to produce written and spoken English with zero mistake and perfect correctness. It refers to how correct and appropriate students’ use the language system including grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation as well.

6.2. Fluency

The principle goal that teachers wish to achieve when teaching the productive skill of speaking is oral fluency, it is considered as the main characteristic of speaking performance. Fluency deals with how
comfortable students are when they speak, how easily the words come out, whether there are great pauses and gaps in the students’ speaking. It is a parameter of students’ speaking ability goal. It deals with the quality of the way they speak fluently. Furthermore, Harmer(2001) claimed that “an affective speaker of English needs to be able not only to produce the individual phonemes of English, but also the use of a fluent and connected speech” (p.269). Precisely, Hedge (2000) argued that the term “fluency” refers to “the ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriate slowness, or under hesitation”. (p.54). In other words, it is the ability to produce speech in coherent way confidently through linking the phrases and words effectively without pauses or hesitation.

The first idea that comes to many of second language speakers’ minds when it comes to fluency is the ability to produce speech fast, that’s why they try to start speaking rapidly without pauses. Nation & Newton (2009) emphasised that:

Fluency is typically measured by speed of access or production and by the number of hesitations; accuracy by the amount of error; and complexity by the presence of more complicated constructions, such as subordinate clauses. (p.152)

Because speakers need to take breath, speed is an important factor in fluency and pausing too, Speakers need to pause from time to time to take breath in order to gather their thoughts and continue speaking fluently. However, pausing a lot is a sign of speaking problems
(Thorunbry, 2005). In such cases, speakers do what is called ‘tricks’ to fill the space (the gap) in speaking rather than giving awkward silence. Here are some examples of pause fillers:


To sum up, as two contrasting characteristics of speaking performance both fluency and accuracy are important for learners. The former is how smoothly and effortlessly one speaks and writes while the latter is speaking and writing without grammatical and structural flaws. i.e., Learners may need to speak accurately to pass oral tests, yet they can express their own ideas fluently if they are allowed to speak without being afraid of making mistakes. Therefore, they need a balance between the activities of fluidity and precision to learn English effectively. Language teachers should try to put the two types in their lesson plans and use them flexibly to the needs of students and objectives.

7. Promoting fluency

The ultimate goal for most teachers to EFL learners, is speaking fluently. For non-native English learners, fluency is not an easy task to be achieved; practicing fluency is regarded as something that can be enjoyable and beneficial at the same time even for speakers with limited ability of speaking. Barrier for learners can hinder participation in speaking activities within classroom such as lack of
vocabulary or weaknesses in applying learned grammatical rules to speaking. Without experiencing speaking activities to speak English, learners’ communication skills will suffer.

According to Nation & Newton (2009), Fluency is likely to develop if the following conditions are met:

**7.1. The activity is meaning-focused:** The interests of learners are in contact with the message, and subject to the pressures of “real-time” and the demands of communications that focus on the ordinary meaning.

**7.2. The learners take part in activities where all the language items are within their previous experience:** This means that the learners work with largely familiar topics and types of discourse making use of known vocabulary and structures. These kinds of activities are called “experience” tasks because the knowledge required to do the activity is already well within learners’ experience.

**7.3. There is support and encouragement for the learner to perform at a higher than normal level:** This means that in an activity with the master development objective, learners should be oral and faster understanding, less hesitant, and using pieces provided more than they do in their normal use of language. A fluency development activity gives impetus to a voluntary higher level of performance often using time pressure. Nation & Newton (2009) wrote, in this context: “Fluency occurs because the learner is in
control of the system of the language and can use a variety of efficient, well-connected, and well-practiced paths to the wanted item” (p. 157).

There must be considerable scope for the use of receptive and productive language where the goal is fluency. There must be plenty of chances sustained inside or outside the classroom to engage in sense experience tasks - concentrate. If the items that have been drawn are not readily available for fluid use and learning was too little effect.

8. Techniques for Enhancing Speaking Fluency

To achieve fluency goal, repetition is the key. Fluency activities depend on several design requirements and features to achieve certain goals. The latter can appear in a variety of techniques over the whole range of language skills by searching at these requirements and features one can judge whether an activity will develop fluency in an efficient way.

8.1. 4/3/2 Technique

The 4/3/2 technique was devised by Maurice (1983), this technique involves the students to act in paired with one half as listeners and the other half as speakers. It involves three rounds. The students as a group decide what topic they would like to talk about or the teacher can select a topic, which is appropriate for the group. In the first round the speaker is given four minutes to talk about the given subject, while their partner listens. Then after a short pause the
pairs change the speakers talk again on the same information for three minutes. In the third round the procedure is repeated and the speaker is given two minutes to again talk about the same subject. This procedure from the point of view of fluency according to Nation & Newton (2009) contained three main features which are summarised as the following: time pressure, change in audience, and speech repetition. First, the speaker is allowed to perform more rapidly and concisely, without interruption (time pressure). Second, change in audience removes the inclination to add new information to each speech and allow learners to focus on the message they are communicating (change in audience). Third, by having the opportunity to repeat learners helped to achieve high level of performance (repetition).

8.2. Shadowing Technique

The main goal of EFL learners is speaking fluently like a native speaker does, ‘good speakers are good listeners’, and the idea behind shadowing is very simple. You listen to some English and you repeat; it could be a conversation or any other form of oral production, this technique trains the ear to the way phrases are said in terms of rhythm, so the ear become accustomed to the phrases then the pronunciation will be improved. Shadowing is defined by Lambert (1988, p.381) as “a paced, auditory presented stimuli, i.e., word for word repetition in the same language of a message presented through headphones”. (Cited in Safont & Compy, 2002). It is the closest task to simultaneous
interpretation because it shares several cognitive processes with it. To explain more, this technique (shadowing) provides learners to repeat what they hear after a brief time to shadow and monitor what they hear simultaneously. This process engages not only the language areas but various other large portions of listener’s brain.

9. Teaching Speaking Activities

Every speaking lesson should be based on communicative activities which fulfill two important language learning needs. Firstly, they encourage the learners to acquire language knowledge and prepare them for real life language use. Secondly, achieving the outcome requires the participants to interact, which means not to speak with one person but also listen to what he or she is saying and react to it.

This study is mainly concerned with four types of materials for interaction skill. These are as follows:

9.1. Discussion and Debate

Discussion and debate are also known as opinion exchange. In this activity, the main component is the active contribution of learners with personal opinions that cannot be predicted beforehand in terms of practice, they are also free production activities which aim at the communication of meaning. In this core activity students are engaged in a formal or informal discussion/debate activity on an assigned topic. This activity is mainly student –led, i.e., students play all the
roles (conductor, observer, group presenter, and participating members). It is more appropriate to call this activity a ‘discussion/debate’ activity because it includes both group discussions and debates, including a little bit of oral presentation.

This activity involves students to be accurate, fluent, interactive, and coherent in which they use a wide range of vocabulary.

9.2. Role-Play Activities

A widely used and one of the best communicative activities is role play which trains the students in the classroom to deal with unpredictable real life conversation in an English speaking environment. For this activity, the students are asked to make groups of three to five students generally. In the beginning, they are given the situation and are asked to come to the stage after preparation. They prepare their roles and perform in the class.

After this initial activity, they are assigned situations on the spot and they have to perform at the same time. In brief, role play allows students to express who they are, their sense of humour, and their own personal communication style. Furthermore, it engages students physically; this involves the students more and can be an aid in language retention. Thus, it is appropriate to use role play in teaching speaking skills.

9.3. Prepared Talks
Another important kind of speaking activity is prepared talk. Harmer (2001) defined this activity as the one “where a student (or students) makes a presentation on a topic of their choice” (p.274). The students are given an opportunity by the teacher to present information in class as well as they should receive notices from the teacher. Therefore, they can prepare and practise ahead of time by holding an informal show and tell day where everyone brings something from home to share with the class.

9.4. Communication Games

This type of activities has always been one of the main means of practicing speaking in classroom. Teachers design such games to encourage and involve the students in verbal interaction. According to Bygate (1987), such activities include first “describe and Draw” in which one student describes a given picture and the other one draws it. Second,”Describe and Arrange”, one student describes a particular structure using oral language and the other constructs it without seeing the original one. Third, “Find the Difference” two students have two similar pictures but with some difference, they must extract these differences through describing their pictures i.e., without seeing each other’s pictures.

10. Teachers’ Role and Responsibilities during Speaking Activities

Most students will not engage in interaction by themselves unless the teachers start first. Obviously, the role of the teacher is very
crucial in motivating his/ students to speak, perform and create interest in topics. The roles of the teacher can be categorised from several points of view, for example, according to the type of activity, stage of the activity and so on and forth.

“The roles that the teacher adopt are dynamic not static, and are subject to change according to the psychological factors brought by participants into the classroom” (Beltrán, 1995). The teacher will have to play different roles at different times. As with any other type of classroom procedure, teachers need to play a number of different roles:

10.1. Prompter

According to Harmer (2001), sometimes the learners do not find the words or they lose fluency when they talk to each other or with the teacher. The role then of the latter is to encourage the learners to think creatively in order to be independent from the teacher; in such role, the teacher must prevent him/ herself from helping the students if he/ she wants that they will be creative in their learning. However, the teacher will have the chance to help them and the activity to progress by offering distinct suggestions, and then it will stop the sense of dissatisfaction that some students may feel when they lose words and ideas.
10.2. Organiser

It is considered as the most important role – according to Harmer (2001). The teacher has to perform in classroom, which includes organising students to do various activities such as: giving the learners information, telling them how they are going to do the activity, putting them in pairs or groups, and finally stopping everything when the time is over. The teacher in such a role spends much time in engaging all students in the interaction and ensures their participation. Once the students are involved in the interaction, the teacher can stop interacting and let learners speak and listen to each other, exchange views and why not correct each other’s too.

10.3. Observer

Harmer (2001) points out that the teacher must distract students when they communicate, so they can interact naturally and spontaneously. Moreover, he/she has to take notes about their students’ actual use of the language. Teachers do not use the note only to express an opinion, but also to evaluate the success of the learners’ performance when talking in the classroom. If there is a failure to achieve fluency, then the teacher has to make some changes for the classroom in the future and analyse what causes that lead to breakdown communication.

10.4. Assessor
The most expected act from the teacher is to indicate to his/her students whether or not their language is right. According to Harmer (2001), this can be done through giving corrections, feedback or by praising them. The students need to know how and for what they are assessed. For example, the teacher should tell this student that today in this communicative activity I am more interested in your fluency rather than accuracy, or in today’s piece of writing I will be looking especially at punctuation. Students then can have a clear idea about their levels and what they need to concentrate on.

10.4. Resource

The job of the teacher is to answer students’ questions. For example, when they want to know how to say something in English or when they look for the meaning of a given word or phrase, they go back to their teacher as a resource of information. In turn, the teacher should be able to offer such needed information but at the same time he should encourage them to use resource material for themselves, and to become more independent in their learning. Thus, instead of answering every question about what a word or phrase means he/she can direct his/her students to a good monolingual dictionary (Ibid, 2001).

Conclusion
To conclude, speaking skill is assumed to be very significant process that helps to evaluate learners’ proficiency in the target language. For that, students should work hard to be proficient speakers and if the teachers do not use the appropriate method and base their curriculum designs of second or foreign language teaching on that skill, it will affect learning speaking process and it will be a challenging matter. Various activities aimed at developing the EFL students’ speaking performance such as discussions, role-plays, and presentations. All of these varied activities will lead to a better communication of students’ thoughts and feelings clearly and fully, as well as, being confident in their own ability to verbally tackle new situations and challenges.
CHAPTER TWO:

RECasts
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Introduction

1. Definition of Recasts

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Chapter 2: Recasts

Introduction

This chapter begins by laying out the theoretical framework of recasts by reviewing relevant learning theories. Next, studies in recasts and definitions of recasts from both first and second language learning are presented along with the operationalized definition of recasts for this study. Third, studies regarding students’ noticing of recasts and literature pertaining to teacher factors such as nativeness and classroom management are reviewed as further support for the conceptual framework of this study.
1. Definition of recasts

Recasts are one type of corrective feedback and are considered by some researchers to be implicit (implied although not directly expressed) negative feedback, providing negative evidence to the learner. Long (1996) and Long and Robinson (1998) view recasts as implicit and claim that because of this implicitness they aid acquisition. However, Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001) point out that while it is clear that recasts provide positive evidence (what is grammatically acceptable in an L2) it is less clear as to whether or not they also expose learners to negative evidence, as learners may be unaware of the corrective intention of the recast.
Recasts are intended to provide a focus on linguistic form while not interrupting the flow of conversation in meaning-based interaction. They differ from other types of focus-on-form procedures which are explicit, such as overt error correction where the error is pointed out to the learner before being corrected. Gass (2003) refers to recasts as “those instances in which an interlocutor rephrases an incorrect utterance with a corrected version, while maintaining the integrity of the original meaning” (p. 239).

Long (2006) offered the following recast definition:

> A corrective recast may be defined as a reformulation of all or part of a learner’s immediately preceding utterance in which one or more nontarget-like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items is/are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning, not language as object. (Long, 2006, p. 77)

What is interesting about Long’s (2006) definition is that to qualify as a recast, the reformulation of the learner’s nontarget-like utterance must occur in the context of message-centered communication. According to Long, a recast motivated by a grammatical error rather than a message breakdown would not be considered as a recast, as it would not represent an attempt to solve a communication problem.

Many definitions of the term ‘recast’ have been offered and it is a point of contention that because various definitions exist, it can be doubtful as to whether they all refer to the same type of feedback. For this reason it can also be difficult to compare the results of L2 studies of recasts, as on many occasions these studies are not actually looking at the same thing. An attempt to overcome this confusion is that researchers will often operate with a general definition of recasts (e.g. Braidi, 2002; Long, 1996, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2006). In the current study, the purpose of using a recast is to allow a focus-on-form without overtly interrupting the communicative flow of the task or conversation. With this in mind, Long’s (2006) definition above does not fit the
context of this study and therefore, perhaps the best definition to use is a general one.

Therefore, this study will operate using Ellis and Sheen’s (2006) definition;

“A recast consists of the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance that contains at least one error within the context of a communicative activity” (Ellis & Sheen, 2006, p. 580). This type of approach recognises that the recast needs to occur within the context of an effort to communicate (as opposed to some focus on forms activities) but does not attempt to establish whether the recast is pedagogically or communicatively motivated.

2. Types of Recasts
As well as being difficult to define, recasts are not simple concepts to classify. In fact, Ellis and Sheen (2006) describe them as “chameleonlike” (p. 579). This is because many types of recasts exist. Some researchers have made an attempt to subcategorize them in relation to their differentiating characteristics (Braidi, 2002; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Philp, 2003; Sheen, 2006) whereas others have not (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, 1999; Mackey & Philp, 1998). Recasts are not pre-emptive (occur before a learner error). They serve as a reaction and are given in response to an utterance initiated by a learner within a communicative context. The interlocutor, when providing a recast following a learner’s nontarget-like form, may be simply correcting the form of the utterance or attempting to clarify the meaning as well as the form. In either case the learner is exposed to a target language sample of what the interlocutor believes to be the intended message. The literature on recasts is abounding with a host of terms to describe the different kinds of recasts found to occur. Farrar (1992) in a study of child language acquisition suggested that they can be corrective or non-corrective Corrective recasts were distinguished as those that correct a target error and non-corrective ones were those which provide a model of a target form. In SLA research, Lyster and Ranta (1997) utilised the same terms but defined a non-corrective recast as a reformulation of a learner’s error-free utterances. A further potentially important distinction is that between full and partial recasts. Full recasts comprise a reformulation of the whole erroneous utterance. An example of which comes from Mackey and Philp’s
(1998) study of negotiated interaction on the production and development of question forms in ESL;

NNS: what are they (.) what do they do in your picture?

NS: what are they doing in my picture? (p. 342)

In contrast to full recasts, partial recasts only involve part of the utterance containing the error. Furthermore, recasts can differ as to whether they are simple or complex (Nelson, Denninger, Bonvillian, Kaplan & Blake, 1983), which depends on whether the changes to the learner’s incorrect utterance are minimal or substantial and on the nature of the change. The change may require a substitution of the flawed form, an addition, a deletion, or a reordering of the initial utterance. Finally, intensive recasts, those which are focused repeatedly on the same linguistic feature seem to be effective for acquisition, especially if these are enhanced in some way, such as accompanied by means of emphatic stress as in the case of the studies of Doughty and Varela (1998) and Han (2002). The current study provides full, corrective recasts, which are intensive, as they focus repeatedly on errors related to question formation. These recasts may be simple or complex depending on the number of changes the learner’s original utterance. Recasts have been explored in various instructional settings using experimental and ethnographic methods. Consequently, types of recasts were categorised according to different criteria. Though some of the categories may overlap, the types of recasts have been classified as the following: corrective, noncorrective, interrogative, or declarative recasts. Farrar (1992)
distinguished two types of recasts provided in L1 situations by caretakers in accordance with the corrective function of feedback: corrective and noncorrective recasts. Looking at L2 acquisition, Doughty and Williams (1998) defined corrective recasts as target language provided by teachers, which includes the repetition of the error as well as rising intonation to attract learner attention to the error. Morgan et al. (1995) divided recasts into two main categories: minimal and expanded recasts. Lyster (1998a) analyzed the nature of recasts with data obtained from a previous study (Lyster & Ranta, 1997): two general themes (isolated vs. incorporated, declarative vs. interrogative) and four sub-categories of corrective recasts were coded in Lyster’s (1998a) study. Table 2.3 illustrates the type of recasts that have been identified in L1 and L2 studies. Although many types of recasts have been identified in recast studies, the analysis of discourse has focused on the linguistic components of the utterances. For example, the multi-move recasts identified in Sheen’s (2006) study address the erroneous forms of the language uttered by learners and how their interlocutors reacted to their errors with different kinds of recast before the topic of the dialogue shifted. The contexts in which these recasts occurred were not considered including whether the occurrence of a recast may have been due to a teacher’s tendency to correct more grammatical errors than other types of mistakes during the course of interaction.
3. Do Learners Notice the Corrective Nature of Recasts?

As Saxton (1997) and Long (2006) point out, corrective recasts are said to promote noticing of erroneous forms within a meaning-based context. A number of researchers have suggested that learners only benefit from comprehensible input if they notice the grammatical forms contained within it (Corder, 1967; Ellis, 1994; Gass, 1997, 2003; Long, 1996; Schmidt 1993, 2001; Swain, 1995, 2001). Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1994) claims in his Noticing Hypothesis that for there to be potential for learning, a learner must notice something about the input because intake (linguistic input which becomes incorporated into the learner’s interlanguage system) is conditional upon noticing. A large number of researchers support the view that negative feedback, such as recasts, may help draw learners’ attention to the language forms that they have produced and help them to detect gaps in their L2 development (Gass, 1997, 2003; Long, 1996, 2006; Pica, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Perception of these gaps may lead to grammar restructuring (Gass & Varonis, 1994). On the other hand, both Krashen (1985, 1989) and VanPatten (1988) take an opposing view to Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1994) and others, by denying any beneficial effects of focus on form techniques, at least in the early stages of learning. Krashen discounts any need for noticing of mismatched linguistic forms, as he believes that with rich enough comprehensible input the target-like forms will be available to the learner without any specific focus on form. Debate also continues as to whether noticing of target-like forms requires immediate uptake of the correct form in the learner’s consequent response, in order to be considered beneficial. In L2 recast studies, a number of measures of evidence of effectiveness have been proposed, such as, changes in the learner’s interlanguage following a period of corrective recasts (Doughty & Varela, 1998); immediate repetition or repair (Lyster &
Ranta, 1997); private speech (Ohta, 2000); immediate accurate recall of recasts (Philp, 2003) and perception of recasts as corrective feedback in stimulated recall (Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000).

2.5.2. Terminology in recast studies

Many terms have been used interchangeably in the recast research. These terms may cause some confusion concerning the nature of recasts. Two types of input in second language learning have been postulated by Long and Robinson (1998) as the sources of L2 language knowledge: positive and negative evidence. Positive evidence refers to the well-formed sentences that learners are exposed to whereas negative evidence refers to the information that learners receive with regard to the incorrectness of an utterance (Gass, 1997). While there are still debates with regard to which type of input recasts may provide to contribute to learners’ acquisition of a second language, findings of several studies indicate that recasts offer both positive and negative evidence (Farrar, 1990, 1992; Han, 2002; Leeman, 2003).

At the same time, recasts have been investigated as a type of corrective and/or implicit negative feedback (Oliver, 1995). Implicit negative feedback refers to strategies for meaning negotiation after communication breaks down. However, in this study, recasts are regarded as a type of corrective feedback regardless of the type of evidence that they may provide.
2.8. Teachers’ Characteristics and Recasts

A few studies investigated whether teacher characteristics may affect student perception of corrective feedback including recasts. Brosh (1996) stressed “the nature of the personal relationship between the instructor and the learner” (p. 127) (cf. Eble, 1988) for language learning. In his study, personality is referred to as all of the individual’s unique and stable qualities, which include an individual’s physical appearance, intelligence, interactional capability, cultural attributes, and psychological attributes such as emotional stability. He argued that these qualities are important for teachers if they want to be successful in their classrooms. All the teachers who participated in his study were NNS teachers, and teacher nativeness was not a factor. Another important finding of Brosh’s study is that teaching methods and style of managing the classroom are critical factors of successful teaching, as cited by teachers and students. However, issues such as personalities, nativeness, and methods have not been thoroughly explored in terms of students’ perceptions of and receptivity to corrective feedback. Medgyes (1992) was one of the first researchers to claim that while NS and NNS teachers have different advantages and disadvantages, both can be successful language teachers on their own terms. Following this line of study regarding teachers’ nativeness or nonnativeness, Arva and Medgyes (2000) conducted a study to investigate the teaching behaviors of both NS and NNS teachers in secondary schools in Hungary. The researchers aimed to see the correspondence between teachers’ actual teaching and their
proclaimed behaviors in the classroom based on the perceived differences in teaching behaviors of NS and NNS English speaking teachers as outlined in a previous study by Medgyes (1994). Based on the interviews and the classroom observations, the researchers suggested that NS teachers may be more resistant to correcting students’ errors and hardly ever pay attention to grammar teaching whereas NNS teachers are more organized in their lessons and have higher expectations of students than their NS counterparts. Furthermore, in that setting NNS teachers appeared to stick to textbooks whereas NS teachers preferred to use handouts. The NNS teachers were also prone to error correction more consistently and to a greater extent than NS teachers. The findings also showed that NS teachers may elicit more communication in the target language with EFL learners while NNS teachers have the advantage of being able to use the L1 in the classroom to help students understand the target language. NS teachers were able to create a more relaxing atmosphere by behaving in a “non-teacherly” fashion (p. 365).

Another critical component to teachers’ success in the classroom is the teacher-student relationship. This relational development can greatly impact students’ internal processing of foreign language input. Frymier and Houser (2000) conducted a study of the teacher-student relationship as an interpersonal relationship. They suggested that teachers’ verbal and nonverbal behaviors significantly affected their relationship with students.
Classroom management or classroom management strategies are often coined as discipline. Tauber (1999) enumerated six long-tried models of classroom management that have been designated by researchers from fields such as child development and psychology. These models have been derived from a spectrum of philosophical approaches, where Skinner’s Behaviorism falls on one extreme and Ransom Rodger’s Humanism on the other. The models range from a place for punishment by Dobson (1992) to teachers’ effective training (Gordon, 1977), which addresses the communication process between two people, either that between a teacher and a student or a parent and a child. Gordon’s model grapples with this interpersonal relationship and the skills needed for the communication. One’s affective status is critical to the flow of interaction and is thus a vital element in determining the success of the communication. Hence, the social and emotional competence of teachers will partly mediate student learning and should be taken into account (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). This social and emotional competence of teachers also impacts teacher-student relationships as the following excerpt explains: Socially and emotionally competent teachers have high self-awareness. They recognise their emotions, emotional patterns, and tendencies and know how to generate and use emotions such as joy and enthusiasm to motivate learning in themselves and others. (Jennings and Greenberg, 1999, p. 495). Thus, classroom management is not only concerned with disciplining students with ways to maintain order in the classroom. Rather, it is also critical for teachers to develop high social
and emotional competence, which would be more conducive to increasing students’ learning motivation as well as the teacher’s passion for teaching, which would likely, in turn, lead to more effective learning. Put differently, students’ perception of teacher support in the classroom may contribute to their learning outcome to some extent. This more affective aspect of classroom management may be relevant to how teachers manage their relationship with students and how this relation may either positively or negatively affect their teaching as well as students’ learning in the classroom. Nevertheless, the impact of teacher affect on student perception of feedback in general and recasts in particular is not well understood. In essence, the studies of recasts have mostly addressed L2 learner utterances, the target language provided by the interlocutors (i.e. teachers, peers, and native speakers), and learner perception of recasts. Furthermore, learner-related variables such as individual learner differences (e.g., developmental readiness and verbal working memory), task types, and target structures have also been examined. Factors that have not been explored as much include the teacher-student relationship and ways that some teacher-related variables may affect learner perception of and their receptivity to recasts. As Sheen (2004) noted, “A socio-psychological perspective on recasts…suggests the need to take into account how learners perceive recasts” (p. 295). Although recasts have been identified as the most common type of feedback used in content-based and language classrooms, the providers of recasts, the teachers, have not been the
focus of recast studies. Given the important role that teachers play particularly in EFL classrooms, variables associated with teachers may be critical. In the EFL context, instructors are the main sources of input and feedback available to learners, due to the lack of opportunity to use the target language outside of the classroom.

CHAPTER THREE:
THE ANALYSIS OF

STUDENTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

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Chapter Three: The Analysis of Students’ Questionnaire

Introduction

The previous two chapters are devoted to the literature review of the EFL learners speaking skill and of the general views about teaching process with more focus on the teacher’s feedback. The present chapter aims to collect data about the students’ attitude, about their obstacles that they face during their speech, and about recasting and its influence on their oral performance.

Throughout this chapter, we will analyse the data collected from the students’ questionnaire according to our research question and to our stated hypothesis in order to diagnose the role of recasting in improving EFL learners’ oral production.

1. Students’ Questionnaire

It is an instrument for data gathering; it is done to collect information in order to answer our research question.

1.1. Aim of the questionnaire

The aim of the questionnaire is to explore students’ views about recasting as a teacher’s corrective feedback. Along the questionnaire, this study attempt is to discover if using recasts will enhance students’ oral proficiency or not.
1.2. Administration of the questionnaire

The distribution of the questionnaire was direct. Where the participants are met and explained to them the aim of the questionnaire, then gave them the chance of nearly half an hour to answer and give it back. Some responded through email, where they were absent. So, we decided to send them by email and Facebook instead of printed copies of the questionnaire.

1.3. Description of the Questionnaire

The students’ questionnaire is designed by the fact of combining it with the theoretical part. It consists of eighteen questions which are varied from multiple choices, open ended to close ended questions. This questionnaire was delivered to third year LMD students of English at Mohammad Kheider University of Biskra and administered in May, the 3rd, 2015. It includes four sections: background information, speaking skill and oral expression module, recasts, as well as suggestions and comments.

Section One: Background Information

This section consists of three questions which are designed to obtain general background about the respondents to exposing their gender, and the main reasons to choose studying English language at the university with justification.

Section Two: Speaking Skill and Oral Expression Module

Questions four to question seven are asked to obtain insights of students’ attitude towards the speaking skill, its level of the difficulty, the obstacles encountered in their speech, and their reaction to these
difficulties. Questions from eight to ten allow us to obtain respondents’ background in oral expression course. We sought information about their interest in oral expression course, about whether this course helps them to improve their speaking or not, and also about their teachers’ correction of their committed errors/ mistakes when speaking.

Section Three: Recasts

From question eleven into question eighteen, they are designed to collect students’ background about the teacher’s undertaking corrective feedback, the situations in which the teacher provides recasts, the different forms of recasts, the focus when the teacher corrects his learners errors/ mistakes, their feeling towards receiving recasting, and their repetition of the mistakes after receiving recasting with justification. The final question is open ended which allows the students to be free in their answers to this question in order to collect more explanations about the role of recasting in improving their oral performance.

Section Four: Suggestions and Comments

In this section, we have asked the students to give us more suggestions and comments about the topic under investigation

1.4. The Analysis of the Results

Section one: General Information
Question 01. Gender Distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 01: Students’ Gender

Graph 01: Students’ Gender

From the above table, we notice that more than a half 72% (64) of students are females, whereas the remaining ones are males 28% (14). Our sample is characterised by a female over presentation, which means that female students may be more interested to learn English.

Question 02. The Choice to Study English is

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 02: Respondents' Choice of Studying English

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imposed</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 02: Respondents' Choice of Studying English

This graph identifies that most of the students (82%) declare that their choice to study English is personal. This means that they are motivated and enthusiastic to learn more about the English language: they chose studying English because they love English language, as it is considered as the first language in the world, they are ambitious to know more about that language; they want to use English language for communication, for teaching, or other future requirement. Whereas the remaining ones (18%) mention that their choice to study the English was imposed because of many reasons. Among which: being
imposed by their parents or their marks do not allow them to study another speciality.

**Question 03. How do you see your level in English?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 03: Students’ Level in English*

*Graph 03: Students’ Level in English*
Section two: Speaking Skill

Question 04. Do you like speaking?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 04: Respondents’ Attitude towards the Speaking Skill

Graph 04: Respondents’ Attitude towards the Speaking Skill

The participants’ answers show that 94% from the sample (47 students) demonstrate that they like speaking. This factor motivates them to speak without constraints; for example, fear of making mistakes, shyness, lack of vocabulary, etc. Moreover, they give some justification about their answer: They stated that speaking is one of the most important skills that improve their capacities in the English
language in order to communicate effectively, and to be good users of the language. However, the others (6%) do not like speaking which is due to encountering obstacles when speaking such as: lack of vocabulary, mispronunciation, grammatical mistakes, interference, and other difficulties besides being bothered from their teacher’s strict way of correcting mistakes, or tackling the boring subject.

**Question 05. In your opinion, speaking in English is**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Very easy</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Easy</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Difficult</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Very difficult</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 05: Students’ Responses towards the Difficulty of Speaking*
Graph 05: Students’ Responses towards the Difficulty of Speaking

We can notice from the analysis of the question 05 that 08 students considered the speaking skill as a difficult task which refers to the existence of difficulties when speaking, so they need a help from their teacher to overcome these difficulties through controlling them then giving some encouragements, advice, suggestions, or more explanation in order to speak easily and correctly.

In the other side, 39 students declared that the speaking skill is an easy task because they may be they are motivated to learn the language, are aware about their mistakes and given the chance to correct them whether individually or by their teacher, and are fluent in their speech. 2 students pointed out that speaking is a very easy task, while just one (1) said that it is a very difficult.
Question 06. a. Do you find difficulties when speaking?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 06.a: The Existence of Students’ Speaking Difficulties

Graph 06.a: The Existence of Students’ Speaking Difficulties

From the replies to this item, we find 56% from the sample encounter difficulties in their speaking. Whereas 45% of the students show that they do not have any difficulties when speaking because they may be aware of the English language.
*if yes, what are they?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.14 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21.42 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.71 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.71 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c+d</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.71 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b+d</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.85 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b+c</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21.42 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 06.b: Students’ Speaking Difficulties

a. Mispronunciation

b. Problems in grammatical rules
c. Lack of vocabulary

d. Difficulties in transfer from L1 to L2

**Graph 06.b: Students’ Speaking Difficulties**

The above result shows that the respondents had multiple choices to answer the question. According to the students’ views, 21.42% of the students declared that the big problem they encounter when speaking performance is the grammatical mistakes, and another 21.42% of the students said that their main difficulties are grammar rules and lack of vocabulary; 10.71% of students stated that they have a lack of vocabulary when speaking, 7.14% of students stated that they encounter problems in pronunciation, while 10.71% declared that they have difficulties in the transfer from L1 to L2. Another 10.71% of the sample said that they have problems in both vocabulary and grammar. Moreover, 17.85% of the students stated that their problems are grammar and negative transfer from L1 to L2.

**Question 07. Do you feel afraid to talk?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 07: Students’ Fear of Speaking*
This question aims at determining whether the respondents are afraid to talk in the classroom or not. The table 07 shows that the majority of students 37 (67%) feel afraid to speak; however, 13 students who represent (33%) of the sample consider themselves as expressive in the sense that they participate in the oral class. That is to say, students who feel afraid when participating in classroom have many problems this does not mean that the lack of some motivation but the next question gives us a clear idea of some factors which may inhibit students from speaking English.

**Whatever your answer is, justify please.**

We have discussed the issue of students being afraid to talk, now we want to see just what makes students unwilling to use the language for speaking. Participants are therefore asked why they do not participate. The biggest number of participants (21) said that they are unable to participate and speak because of many weaknesses at different levels as : (accuracy, pronunciation and vocabulary) and some psychological problems such as: (the lack of self confidence and anxiety). The remaining parties being stick to one problem:

- Six (6) of them have chosen the fear of making grammatical mistakes and the same number has opted the fear of making pronunciation mistakes. Actually, this problem may prevent communication and learning in general.

- Three (3) Participants have opted for the deficiency of vocabulary as they are not talking enough in the classroom.
and only one student has chosen the psychological problem which is the lack of self confidence. Thus, the teacher’s role is to create a relaxed atmosphere that pushes them to use the language and speak appropriately.

Question 08. Are you interested in oral expression module?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 08: Students’ Interests in the Oral Expression Module

Graph 08: Students’ Interests in the Oral Expression Module
The students’ responses indicate that 78% of the sample are interested in oral expression module because they think that this course encourages them to develop their speaking and their listening skill in the English language and to express their ideas correctly, in addition, it provides them with the chance to learn new vocabulary and good pronunciation. Moreover, they think that during that course they can perceive their mistakes and they learn how to correct them. While 22% are not interested in oral expression course probably because of the boring tackled subjects, the lack of audio visual aids, shyness from committing their mistakes, and the hinders when speaking. So, they think that they can improve their proficiencies in other ways.

**Question09. Does that course help you to improve your oral performance?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 09: Students’ Oral Performance Improvement through the Oral Expression Module*
Graph 09: Students’ Oral Performance Improvement through the Oral Expression Module

As it is apparent from the table 09, most of the students (35) respond positively to the question and state that the oral expression course helps them to improve their oral performance. As a result, they declare that through this course they do not develop only the speaking but also the other skills and consider the speaking skill as the basic one, they acquire new vocabularies, they express their ideas in easy way and speak fluently without being shy, they recognise their mistakes then correct them by or with their teachers( as one of the
students states that this course is like a correction of the committed mistakes), they deal with the different activities and tasks, and they are encouraged to speak. 15 students state that the oral expression course does not help them to improve their oral performance because of the teacher’s way of presenting the course, the boring subjects or boring activities, and the lack of motivation. The participants believe in the efficient role of oral expression to enhance their oral production.

**Question 10. Does your teacher try to correct your errors/mistakes when speaking?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 10: Teacher's Correction of Students' Errors/Mistakes When Speaking**

The results show that 86% (43) of the participants claimed that their teachers try to correct their errors i.e., their teachers are aware of their students’ needs to be exposed to a correct form of language, and they try to improve their speaking proficiency and to encourage their students to learn more about the language. 14% (07) of participants declared that their teachers do not try to correct their mistakes which make them repeating the same mistakes each time because they do not distinguish between the wrong form and the correct form, or they
think that what they have produced is correct since they have not been corrected.

Section Three: Recasts

Question 11. How often does your teacher give you corrective feedback during your speaking tasks?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Always</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Sometimes</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Never</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Teachers’ Frequency of Corrective Feedback during Speaking
Graph 11: Teachers’ Frequency of Corrective Feedback during Speaking

The high percentage is devoted for the second answer which states that the teacher sometimes gives feedback to his students. This means that the teacher is aware of the students’ mistakes and he provides them with more explanation or advice in the appropriate time to correct these mistakes. Moreover, he/she does not only help his/her students to improve their proficiency and their oral production but also expose them to correction and evaluation. Only few of them (14) stated that the teacher always gives feedback to his/her students because he/she thinks that the provided feedback makes them feel angry or he does not recognise the importance of this feedback in improving students’ oral proficiency. The last percentage (8%) is
devoted to the third option which stated that the teacher never gives feedback due to the fact that the teacher does not give importance to the students’ errors / mistakes.

**Question 12. When does the teacher give recasting?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a+b</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a+d</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a+b+c</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a+b+c+d</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. When you commit grammar mistakes  
b. When you commit pronunciation mistakes  
c. When you commit poor vocabulary  
d. When negative transfer from L1 to L2

**Table 12: Students’ Attitudes towards the Situations of Recasting Provision**
According to table 12, the percentage of the students given feedback by the teacher was arranged as follows: 16% of the sample stated that their teacher gives feedback when they commit grammar mistakes, 08% of our sample stated that their teacher gives feedback when they commit pronunciation mistakes, 12% stated that their teacher gives feedback when they lack vocabularies, 08% of the sample stated that their teacher gives feedback when they transfer negatively from the first language to the second language. However, the others have chosen more than one answer. 16% of the respondents said that they receive recasting when they commit both grammar and pronunciation mistakes. 6% of the them considered that the teacher gives recasting when they commit grammar mistakes and poor vocabulary. 24% of the sample have chosen that they receive recasting when they make mistakes related to grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Finally, 10% of the students claimed viewed that the teacher gives recasting when they commit grammar and pronunciation mistakes, vocabulary deficiency, as well as Negative transfer from L1 to L1.

**Question 13. How does your teacher usually correct your errors/mistakes?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Implicitly</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Explicitly</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13: Teachers’ Ways of Correcting Students’ Errors/Mistakes

The results mentioned in the table 13 show that the high percentage of students’ answers 42% is devoted to their teacher’s correction both implicitly and explicitly through providing the correct form and through showing the mistake because their teacher found that these two forms of correction are the appropriate ones to make them learn from their mistakes. Less percentage 34% is devoted for the teacher’s correction through giving corrective feedback implicitly. The lowest percentage 24% is devoted to teacher’s correction through giving corrective feedback explicitly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: The mistakes that the teacher concentrates on when correcting

a. Corrects all the mistakes

b. Concentrates on the repeated mistakes
Graph 14: The mistakes that the teacher concentrates on when correcting

According to the results shown in table, 16 students stated that their teacher of oral expression corrects all kind of mistakes in order to make them aware of all what they speak; they feel controlled and check all kinds of mistakes through the teachers’ correction. Whereas 34 students stated that their teacher of oral expression concentrates on the repeated mistakes to correct them in order to make them speak fluently and avoid those errors. He/ she listens to the students at the same time he /she records their repeated mistakes then corrects them.
Question 16. If your teacher gives you a kind of correction of mistakes, do you repeat the same mistake?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: Students' Repetition of the Corrected Mistakes

More than half of students (64%) stated that they did not repeat the same mistake if they receive a kind of correction. This means that the corrective feedback is provided and received effectively, and our
students show a certain acceptance to the teachers’ corrective feedback, as he corrects their made mistakes. They have positive attitude towards that and at the same time they are aware about its importance. While 26% of students repeated the same corrected mistakes. This is due to the ambiguity of the corrective feedback’s statement, the teacher’s way of presenting it, or due to the students’ lack of attention and responsability. 10% of the students didn’t answer that question.

**If yes, why?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Because of the ambiguity of recasting</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Because of the teacher's way of presenting the recasts</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>46.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 17: Students’ Causes of Repeating the Same Mistakes after the Correction**
Graph 17: Students' Causes of Repeating the Same Mistakes after the Correction

Three students replied to this question that they repeated the same mistake when they receive feedback because of the ambiguity of recasting, while six students show that they repeated the same mistake because of the teacher’s way of presenting the feedback. The four remaining students mentioned other causes such as: because of lack of practice, because it happens unconsciously, and because they forget about it.

Question 17. In your opinion, explain the role of teacher’s corrective feedback (recasting) in improving your oral performance?

The students’ answers to this open ended question vary to include the following:
➢ It helps me to improve my pronunciation and the way of speaking through giving advice.

➢ It is important for me because I take it in my mind and take a lot of benefits from it in order not to repeat the error again and in order to speak correctly.

➢ It pushes me to get better in language skills.

➢ It is the source of the correct input in the class.

➢ It should be clear and exact.

➢ It should be through providing the correct form, more information, advice, or showing the mistakes in order to get and organise well the English language and to encourage them to do the best in the next time

➢ Teacher should give different exercises to avoid mistakes and give the chance to correct each other.

➢ Teacher should not correct mistakes each time because it makes them shy

➢ Teachers should be flexible and kindly when they provide feedback.

➢ The effective recasting depends mainly on teacher’s way and manner of giving it.

➢ Teacher’s corrective feedback (recasting) should be at the end of the learners’ oral performance in order to not confuse them during their performance because when the teacher gives criticism during the learners speaking performance, they lost their confidence.
Section Four: Suggestions and comments

No one of the respondents answered this part may be this is due to time constraints.

3. The Results of Students’ Questionnaire

After analysing the students’ questionnaire, we find that they like practising speaking through their preferred oral activities which make them motivated to improve their speaking performance. But they find some obstacles and make some mistakes during their speech; they are bothered about them. So, they need a help from their teacher when they commit several mistakes which hinder their speech. This can be done by providing them with recasts.

According to the students, they prefer to receive effectively the corrective feedback (recasts) at the end of their production, through advising, explaining, and suggesting, not through criticism because the latter in addition to the repetition of feedback each time make them lose their self-confidence while speaking. On the other hand, teachers present their oral course according to their students’ interaction between the teacher and the students in order to help them to acquire the oral language. Although the insufficient time for oral expression course, the teacher varies the tackled activities to develop his students’ communication strategies to be fluent speakers. It is claimed that the students encounter several difficulties, and it is up to the teacher to help them overcome those latters by yielding them with
effective recasts, the teacher here helps them to realise all weaknesses. Moreover, it is emphasised that the provided recasting is considered as a tool to correct students’ mistakes through different forms. In addition, we have to consider the students’ reaction as a parameter to evaluate the effectiveness of recasts and makes sure that the effective feedback is placed at the end of the students’ oral production, but in some cases especially when the communication breaks down the teacher should intervene to move smoothly. In order to improve the EFL learners speaking performance, the teacher encourages his learners to put the the corrected forms in their minds as a form of learning a new oral language not as offending form.
Suggestions and Recommendations

- Time devoted for the oral expression course have to be increased.

- Teachers should pay more attention to their students’ mistakes and correct them.

- Teachers should focus more on teaching speaking mainly in the oral expression course.

- Since recasts proved its benefit on students’ oral performance, teachers have to take it into consideration as an effective feedback technique.

- Teacher should give different exercises to avoid mistakes and give the chance to correct each other.

- The effective recasting depends mainly on teacher’s way and manner of giving it.

- Teacher’s corrective feedback (recasting) should be at the end of the learners’ oral performance in order to not confuse them during their performance because when the teacher gives criticism during the learners speaking performance, they lost their confidence.
General conclusion

Teachers’ feedback in teaching English as a foreign language is considered to be an issue that many researchers had tackled, but each one focuses on one among its aspects. Students of English at Biskra University claimed having many problems dealing with speaking, and it is up to all concerned sides to look for remedies among them teacher’s corrective feedback (recasting). It helps to provide the learners with correct input for a better oral performance and enables them to realise their weaknesses in the target language. Many teachers select some ways of providing feedback without taking into account students’ preferences and positive responses.

Throughout this study, we investigate the role of recasting in enhancing EFL learners’ oral production. The results indicate that the students like speaking and they have the desire to learn more about its oral aspects, but they encounter a lot of problems as they make mistakes when speaking. So, they need a help from their teachers to correct these errors. Their teachers undertake the recasting as a tool to encourage their students to correct their mistakes and to improve their oral performance; furthermore, the provided feedback should meet some features to be effective, in other words, it should be at the end of
their learners performance, it should meet the learners preferable way of presenting it and their preferences type and form, it should be stated clearly, and the learners should take it into consideration as a motivator not as offending to learning.
References


Loewen, S. (2003). Variation in the frequency and characteristics of incidental focus on form. Language Teaching Research, 7(3).


APPENDIX

Questionnaire for Students

Dear students, you are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire, which is a part of a Master’s dissertation. We are carrying out an investigation about Reinforcing Students’ Oral Performance Through Using Recasts. Your answers are very significant for the
validity of the research we are undertaking. As such, we hope that you will give us your full attention and interest. Please, mark (√) the appropriate box (es) or give a full answer(s) where the gaps provided.

Thank you, in advance, for your collaboration.

Section One: Background Information

1. Gender

   Male
   -

   Female
   -

2. Your choice of studying English was:

   a. Personnel
   -

   b. Imposed
   -

   Justify?

   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

3. How do you see your level in English?

   a. Low
   -

   b. Good
   -
c. Very good

d. Excellent

**Section Two: Speaking Skill and Oral Expression Module**

4. Do you like speaking?

   Yes

   No

Justify?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

5. In your opinion, Speaking in English is:

   a. Very easy

   b. Easy

   c. Difficult

   d. Very difficult

6. a. Do you find difficulties when speaking?

   Yes

   No
6. b. If yes, what are they?

   a. Mispronunciation
   b. Problems in grammatical rules
   c. Lack of vocabulary
   d. Difficulties in transfer from the first language to the second language

If others mention them please

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Do you feel afraid to talk?

   Yes
   No

   Whatever your answer is, justify please.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

8. Are you interested in oral expression module?

   Yes
   No
9. Did that course help you to improve your oral performance?

   Yes       ☐
   No        ☐

10. Does your teacher try to correct your errors/mistakes when speaking?

    Yes       ☐
    No        ☐

**Section Three: Recasts** (Recasting is the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error. Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p.46)

11. How often does your teacher give you corrective feedback during your speaking tasks?

    a. Always       ☐

b. Sometimes

c. Never

12. The teacher gives recasting:

a. When you commit grammar mistakes

b. When you commit pronunciation mistakes

c. When you commit poor vocabulary

d. When negative transfer from first language to the second language

If others mention them please

………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

13. How does your teacher usually correct your errors / mistakes?

a. Implicitly

b. Explicitly

14. What do you feel when the teacher recast your oral production in the EFL classroom?
15. Your teacher of oral expression:

a. Correct all kind of mistakes. □

b. Concentrate on the mistake which are repeated every time □

16. If your teacher gives you a kind of correction to your mistake, do you repeat the same mistake?

Yes □

No □

If yes, why?

a. Because of the ambiguity of recasting .

b. Because of teachers’ way of presenting the recasts .

If others, mention them
17. In your opinion, explain the role of teachers’ corrective feedback (recasting) in improving your oral performance?

Section Four: Suggestions and Comments

We welcome your suggestions and comments. If you have any additions, please, write them down in the space provided.

Thank you again
ملخص

جوهر هذا البحث يتمثل في تسليط الضوء على واحدة من أهم التقنيات المستعملة في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.

كلغة أجنبية وهي تقنية التقييم الصحيحي الذي يقدمه الأستاذ "الضاءة" اعتمادًا على فهم اللغة بطريقة صحية. تتمحور هذه الدراسة حول التركيز على تأثير هذه التقنية على مهارة التعبير الشفوي، ومنه على تأثيرها على العملية التعليمية.

بصفة عامة، هذا البحث يبني على فرضية أساسها هو أنه إذا تم تطبيق هذه التقنية في التدريس والتوقيع من قبل الأساتذة، فإن ذلك ستؤدي إلى تشجيع الأساتذة على استعمال فهمه للفهم الدقيق للتقليل من الأسباب التي تتعلق بأداء الطلبة وتطوير مستواهم مما أنها تصحح أخطاءهم.

لهذا السبب، ووصول إلى الأهداف المرجوة تم استخدام الاستبان لجمع المعلومات اللازمة وقد تم توجيهه.

النظام الذي تم الحصول عليه أثبت صحة الفرضية المطروحة وينبغي أن يشكل الواجهون الكثير من الصعوبات كما أنه يركبون العديد من الأخطاء أثناء عملية التواصل. لهذا فإن الأساتذة تصحيحها الأخطاء متعلقة في ذلك فهمهم التقنية التي أثبتت فعاليتها في قدرتها على تحسين وتطوير القدرات التواصلية والكلامية لطلبة اللغة الإنجليزية.