The relationship between recasts and uptake in a Korean EFL communicative classroom context

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CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The overall purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between recasts used by participants and learner uptake in EFL college-level beginning learners in South Korea. The study aims to achieve this purpose mainly through the examination of patterns of interaction during four classroom tasks and data from open-ended questionnaires following the task activities. The research design and methods used in conducting the present study are discussed in this chapter.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study is guided by two main research questions and four sub-questions. The following table demonstrates the relationship between the research questions and the procedures used in addressing these questions.

Table 3.1: The relationship between research questions and procedures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Data source</th>
<th>Analytical procedure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How do recasts differ depending on who is providing recasts in a semi-controlled context (peer/teacher)?</td>
<td>Primary data Peer/peer and teacher/learner interaction</td>
<td>Identification of different recast categories in the primary data, quantified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1a) What different types of recasts are provided by peers and by teacher?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b) What types of recasts are used more frequently in response to non-target-like forms in both peer recasting and teacher recasting?</td>
<td>during tasks (audiotaped and transcribed)</td>
<td>according to type. Quantification of different recast categories according to recast provider.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary data</strong> Fieldnotes taken by researcher. Open-ended student questionnaires.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. What is the relationship between recasts and uptake?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2a) Does learner uptake differ depending on who is providing recasts (peer/teacher)?</th>
<th><strong>Primary data</strong> Peer/peer and teacher/learner interaction during tasks (audiotaped and transcribed)</th>
<th>Analysis of primary data to identify learners’ uptake in response to recasts. Uptake categorized according to the source of the recast (peer/teacher).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary data</strong> Fieldnotes taken by researcher. Open-ended student questionnaires.</td>
<td>Both recasts and uptake categorized into different types with an analysis of the relationship between the different types.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in relation to the research questions come from qualitative sources such as audiotaped classroom interactions, open-ended questionnaires following the task activities, and researcher’s field notes. Transcriptions of task-based interactions serve to provide the primary evidence in relation to the research questions. Researcher’s field notes were used as secondary data sources to enable the researcher to remember situational details. Open-ended questionnaires were a further secondary data source to gain the perspective of the students. More detailed explanation and discussion of data for the study are included in the following section.
3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.3.1 Research method for the present study

The choice of research method depends on the purpose of the study and the “nature of the research problem” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p.10). The present study employs a mixed model research method combining both quantitative and qualitative research approaches. In order to explore the relationships between recasts and learner uptake both qualitative and quantitative information were necessary. Qualitative methods are useful for searching for themes and patterns in narrative data (Johnson & Christensen, 2004) and for explaining and interpreting findings. Quantitative methods allow for the quantification of numerical data and for the efficient identification of pre-defined relationships between categories. Figure 3.1 shows the mixed model research design adopted in the present study.

Please see print copy for figure 3.1

Figure 3.1: A mixed model research design for the present study
(from Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p.416)
3.3.2 A mixed model design in the present study

Under the umbrella of a qualitative research objective, a mixed model research design was adopted for the present study in order to provide complementary information (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). By adopting such an approach, the researcher is able to report on the relative frequency of responses made by different interlocutors, but to elucidate the nature of these responses through more qualitative analyses of the data. This section discusses both the qualitative and quantitative bases of this study.

Qualitative research is a form of inquiry covering various research categories. In qualitative inquiry, there are abundant variations depending on the phenomena under investigation and the inquirers. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) list some strategies of qualitative inquiry as follows: the case study; ethnography and participant observation; phenomenology and interpretive practice; historical method; grounded theory; clinical models and others. These strategies of inquiry share the characteristics of qualitative research, while they have different approaches. Relevant categories of qualitative inquiry for the present study are discussed below.

The present study will adopt a mixed research paradigm for the following reasons. First of all, the qualitative analysis will provide insight into the nature of the relationship between recasts and learner uptake in a Korean EFL form-focused instruction. In collecting qualitative data, there are various approaches that can be taken. The researcher can, for example, simply record what they observe in an ethnographic sense without pre-determined data categories. Generally, qualitative inquiry is conducted in a “naturalistic” setting where there are “non-manipulative, unobtrusive, non-controlling
[procedures], and openness to whatever emerges” (Tuckman, 1999, p.396). In the present study, it could be argued that the classroom represented an authentic, naturalistic context, where any structuring of the environment was compatible with what normally happens in classrooms. To a certain extent, however, the classroom interactions were semi-controlled with tasks being chosen by the teacher, scheduled time for the task activities, explicit explanation of what recasts are and pre-modeling of how to provide them. Students were given around ten minutes for preliminary preparation before doing the task activities. During this time, they could think about the given pictures for task activities and look up some vocabulary items. There is a fine line between what would have been happening in the classroom regardless of the research and what was introduced for the purposes of conducting the study. For the present study, we could say that conversational interactions with NNS learners and the NNS teacher occurred in a ‘naturalistic-oriented’ EFL communicative classroom. The ‘naturalistic-oriented’ classroom setting means that it was non-experimental and there was a “lack of predetermined constraints on outcomes” (Tuckman, 1999, p.396). Within a semi-constrained classroom setting, whatever eventuated in the participants’ conversational interactions counted as data for the present study. Thus, the method used for the present study may be called ‘quasi-naturalistic’ inquiry in terms of the research setting inasmuch as there was (limited) intervention by the researcher in constructing a context that enabled the collection of relevant data, though the tasks remained authentic.

Qualitative methods of data collection and analysis are used in qualitative inquiry. For the analysis of data, a set of interpretive and material practices that make the phenomena visible (Mertens, 2005) were used for the study. Qualitative data often
consist of people’s words and actions, and require methods that allow the researcher to capture language and behavior. Qualitative data gained from audio-recordings of discourse, transcriptions and questionnaires provide evidence of the nature of the phenomena occurring in real-life settings which can be interrogated using qualitative analyses.

Secondly, with regard to quantitative approaches, the aims of the present study were supported to a certain extent by numerical analysis of the data. For example, audio-recorded data and transcriptions of them as qualitative data can also provide quantitative information for the present study through the use of coding systems from which numerical data are generated. Based on the quantitative data analysis, the researcher is able to describe statistical relationships and comparisons of number.

Some characteristics of the mixed research paradigm adopted in the present study are summarized in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Aspects of mixed model research paradigm adopted in the study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘Naturalistic’ aspects</th>
<th>‘Rationalistic’ aspects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Researcher as participant and instrument.</td>
<td>1. Numerical data analysis (where relevant) supporting relative statistics in both T – L and L – L interactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Data collection through direct, personal contact within the research setting.</td>
<td>2. A semi-controlled inquiry setting: -task chosen by researcher; -preparation time given for task activities;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. ‘Naturalistic-oriented’ inquiry setting (authentic classroom activities).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D. Qualitative data sources and analysis:
- recordings of classroom discourse;
- open-ended questionnaires;
- fieldnotes.

3.4 TASKS USED IN THE STUDY

3.4.1 The definition of tasks

Tasks are seen as important elements in the communicative language classroom. Nunan (2004, p.1) classifies two types of tasks: “target tasks” and “pedagogical tasks”: Target tasks refer to uses of language in the world beyond the classroom, and pedagogical tasks are those that occur within the classroom. The term pedagogical task is adopted for the present study. Richards, Platt and Weber (1986, p.289) define the meaning of pedagogical tasks as:

an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response). … The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative… since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake.

Ellis (2003) defines tasks in a similar way to Richards et al. That is,

A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A
task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills, and also various cognitive processes. (Ellis, 2003, p.16)

Ellis (2003) claims that even if a task is intended to engage learners in meaning-focused language use, the overall purpose of tasks is learning a language. For the present study, task activities were basically meaning-focused and communicative incorporating a focus on form.

3.4.2 Information gap tasks

Information gap tasks belong to the category of two-way tasks in which all the participants are obligated to participate in order to complete the task, whereas in one-way tasks, one participant holds the information to complete the task, although the other participant can contribute by demonstrating whether he or she comprehends the information or not (Ellis, 2003). Two-way tasks are seen to promote more negotiation of meaning in dyadic interactions. Long (1980) demonstrates that two-way tasks such as information gap activities are more effective for learners’ linguistic adjustment than one-way tasks. In his study, there was a comparison of interactional adjustments that occurred in NS – NS and NNS – NS dyads on two sets of tasks with one-way tasks and two-way tasks. The results showed that in two-way tasks there were significantly more confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and clarification requests in the NNS – NS dyads. It can be assumed that two-way tasks will elicit more language modification between EFL learners in NNS – NNS interactions as well.
The information gap tasks used in the present study were selected by the researcher. Participants took part in four two-way tasks (Information Gap) for the present study. Students and the teacher were involved in the task activities in pairs. During the information gap tasks in NNS – NNS interactions, the students in each dyad were asked to provide corrective recasts when their interlocutors produced non-target-like utterances. In teacher–learner dyads, the NNS teacher provided recasts to NNS learners. Information gap activities were chosen as it is believed that communicative activities that require information to be supplied by both learners to achieve a common goal are most likely to generate opportunities for learners to receive and produce comprehensible input, feedback, and language modification (Pica, Kanagy & Falodun, 1993). In particular, Ellis (2003) argues that a particular linguistic focus can be achieved when learners perform a task by negotiating utterances that contain errors and providing feedback such as recasts and clarification requests. Thus, doing information gap activities involving corrective recasting and learner uptake in the present study are seen as significant for EFL learners in eliciting linguistic adjustment focusing on forms.

For the information gap activities, four spot-the-difference tasks were conducted. In spot-the-difference tasks, each participant has a picture similar to his/her partner’s picture. The tasks involved two students or the teacher and a learner working together to identify certain differences between their pictures. Communicative tasks such as picture difference or picture matching tasks can be easily turned into form-focused tasks, since completing these tasks requires, first, communicative interaction and, second, frequent use of certain grammatical forms or structures, depending on the nature of the task (Nassaji, 2000). Four sets of pictures (Appendix One) were used for the information gap
activities. Pictures used in the study were divided into two sets of pictures designed to include similar grammatical features for the tasks. Two sets of pictures for task 1 and task 3 contained linguistic forms such as ‘be-verb’, ‘prepositions’, ‘singular and plural nouns’ (see Figure 3.2). The other two sets of the pictures for task 2 and task 4 involved forms such as ‘-ing’, ‘action verbs’, ‘auxiliary verb’ and ‘3rd person singular and plural’ (see Figure 3.3). According to Bygate (2001, p.28), repetition of similar tasks is more likely to provide a structured context for the mastery of form-meaning relations than is a random sequencing of tasks. Table 3.3 presents linguistic features related to the pictures for task activities.

**Table 3.3: Example of linguistic features in tasks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Linguistic feature in picture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Task 1 & Task 3| - be-verb *(he is, they are, etc.)*  
                 | - preposition *(on, under, between A and B, etc.)*  
                 | - singular and plural *(glass/glasses, child/children, cushion/cushions, slipper/slipper, etc.)*  
                 | - lexical items related to the room *(sofa, briefcase, lamp, fire place, cigarette, etc.)* |
| Task 2 & Task 4| - -ing *(they are talking, a man is sleeping, etc.)*  
                 | - action verb *(play, jog, climb, write, throw, walk, etc.)*  
                 | - auxiliary verb *(is -ing, do not have, etc.)*  
                 | - preposition *(under, beside, next to, in the middle of)*  
                 | - 3rd person singular *(she throws, he plays, etc.)*  
                 | - lexical items related to the park *(swing seat, park, people, bench, pond, parasol, grass, etc.)* |
Please see print copy for figure 3.2

Figure 3.2: A picture set for task 1 (from Hadfield, 1999, p.67)
Please see print copy for figure 3.3

Figure 3.3: A picture set for task 2 (from Mackey, 1994)
3.5 RESEARCH CONTEXT

The present study was conducted in a university in Chungnam Province in South Korea. Data were collected during a regular 15 week semester session. During the course of the semester, the class met for three hours once a week. The conversation class included free conversation time such as talking about daily life, task activities, role plays and a text book for conversation practice, which is based on authentic situations such as ‘Basic Survival’ published by Macmillan Heinemann, and ‘Interchange’ published by Cambridge University Press. The use of these textbooks typically involves direct grammatical explanation if required, however, for the present study, the researcher-as-teacher in this class excluded the explicit explanation of grammatical rules. The instructional approach for this course was communicative in nature with instruction often given in English to facilitate comprehension and task completion. Also, students were asked to speak English almost exclusively in class. However, all directions were given in Korean so as to avoid students misunderstanding due to listening problems. Students typically displayed a great enthusiasm for learning and practising English-speaking for both personal and academic reasons.

The conversation class generally began with exchanging greetings between the teacher and peers, and discussing daily life such as what students have done during weekdays or weekends. During conversation practice, the researcher-as-teacher in the classroom had recognized several linguistic errors by students that detracted from understanding. The researcher-as-teacher had tried to correct students’ errors in speaking for target-like language use explicitly and implicitly depending on the situation but thought that direct error correction might disturb beginning learners’ confidence to try to practise speaking
and add to their shyness about talking in public. Thus, I motivated to conduct a study of how to improve students’ grammatical accuracy by providing unobtrusive corrective feedback and maintaining the flow of communication.

3.6 PARTICIPANTS

A beginner level English conversation class was selected as the site of the case study of EFL adult learners’ recasts and uptake. Twenty students enrolled in an English conversation course at a university in Chungnam Province in South Korea, participated in the study. Eighteen students took part in the class regularly, while two students attended irregularly. Data from the two irregular students were excluded from the data analysis for the study. Thus, eighteen students (eleven female, seven male) and the researcher-as-teacher in the class were the actual participants for data collection.

The researcher as an instructor in the department of liberal arts of the university conducted the present study. The researcher-as-teacher prepared task activities for dyadic conversational interactions, explained what recasts are to the students, described the types of recasts before the main task activities, and modeled how to provide recasts. This is because it is supposed that the pre-modeled and prior explanation of recasts is significant in terms of enabling EFL learners to be aware of recasts as corrective feedback in response to errors. In particular, in the negotiated interaction between two NNS learners, having a prior understanding of recasts following teacher’s modeling and explanation may elicit more language modification by using recasts in response to peer learners’ erroneous utterances. This pre-modified methodological approach is unlike
that of previous studies (such as Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a; Panova & Lyster, 2002), which deal with many possible different kinds of negative feedback including recasts usually provided by NS teachers in response to learners in immersion and ESL classroom settings. Students’ participation in the project was voluntary and consent was gained before starting data collection. At the time the data were collected, students had received at least 6 years of formal schooling in English in their secondary schooling. None of the students had spent time in English-speaking countries. The age range of students was from 19 to 25 years.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

For the present study, located within a qualitative research paradigm, the researcher kept in mind that “what emerges as a function of the interaction between the inquirer and the phenomenon is largely unpredictable in advance” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.41). Thus, the researcher conducted a pilot study prior to the main study. The pilot study examined whether Korean EFL adult learners in fact provide recasts in response to their interlocutors’ non-target-like utterances. Findings indicated that NNS learners were aware of providing recasts in both teacher – learner dyad and learner – learner dyads. The pilot study helped the researcher to revise data collection procedures and reformulate the approach as data collection proceeded. For instance, after the pilot study, three types of recasts as corrective feedback were identified as significant feedback for EFL adult learners at beginner level in the communicative classroom.

As classrooms are the main site of L2 learning in EFL contexts, it is reasonable to
collect data about what goes on there as a means of adding to our knowledge of language learning and use (Nunan, 1992). The primary source of data was the classroom conversational interactions. In addition, open-ended questionnaires and field notes were used as supportive data sources.

Data were gathered over a period of eight weeks in three stages. The first stage was a preparatory stage, and included informing students of the purpose of the study and providing the letter of invitation and information sheet for the study. The second stage included the major phase of data collection in which classroom discourse during four task activities was recorded. The third stage involved the use of open-ended questionnaires after the task activities. Table 3.4 presents the sequence of the different data collection methods employed in the study. An explanation of each stage of data collection and analysis is described as it occurred within the study.

**Table 3.4: Sequence of data collection**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data collection method</th>
<th>Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Recording interactive task activities</td>
<td>24 dyadic interactions&lt;br&gt;-12 T – L interactions&lt;br&gt;-12 L – L interactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Transcribing</td>
<td>-Researcher (main transcriber)&lt;br&gt;-One NS of English (re-checker)&lt;br&gt;-One Korean assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Open-ended questionnaires after task activities</td>
<td>-Written form with 18 students&lt;br&gt;-Oral interview with 1 student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ongoing observational field notes</td>
<td>-Teacher observing students in dyadic interactions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.7.1 Recording interactive task activities

Recording discourse during communicative interactions was the principal data gathering technique for the study. The collaborative work during conversational interactions was audio tape-recorded using ten digital audio recorders: nine for peer – peer dyadic interactions and one for teacher – learner dyadic interactions. Recorders were kept on each desk while task activities were conducted. In order to allow students to become familiar with the recording, the recording started from the first day of the class after the students had given prior consent to the study and when engaged in the dyadic work for the practice task activities. In order to build naturalistic-oriented classroom interactions, students did not know which days they were targeted for the present study.

Each student in the dyadic interactions was involved in two preliminary practice sessions, three main task sessions and one post-task session. Peer dyads were formed during the regular class time. The teacher – learner dyads were formed by the teacher pairing with a student who was available when pupil interactions had finished early or with volunteer students. Before the main task activities, students were given the pictures for undertaking the activities. Each student had a 30 centimeter high cardboard block on his or her desk so as not to reveal his or her picture to the dyadic partner. This was because each student had one picture that was similar to his or her partner’s picture but slightly different, forcing them to exchange information with each other to complete the task. Students were allowed to have some time to think about and look up relevant vocabulary items in their dictionary before the task.
3.7.2 Implementation of task activities

It was planned to observe four information gap task activities each of approximately 15 to 20 minutes duration over 8 weeks. The reason why the four similar task activities were conducted is because focus on forms is likely to work best when the instruction is intensive, involving repeated activities performed over a period of time (Elli et al., 1999, p.8). Also, it was anticipated that task familiarity could have an influence in terms of eliciting the use of recasts and responses to them.

The observations were conducted in three stages. In the first stage, a preliminary practice session was conducted. For this stage, two task activities were observed over two weeks, providing an opportunity to familiarize the students with the notion of recasts through explanation of what recasts are, and through teacher’s modeling of how to provide recasts and practising it with students. In the process of explicit explanation of what recasts are and modeling of how to provide them, the researcher did not use the technical terms. Students were taught that recasts are kind of feedback provided when partners uttered ungrammatical linguistic forms during meaning negotiation. This session was held for the development of students’ negotiation skills in meaning and form at the same time. According to Nunan (1999), opportunities to reflect on language learning empower students to have increased sensitivity and motivation in the learning process over time. Thus, this session was intended to help students to develop an understanding of corrective recasting and raise their awareness of negotiation devices providing recasts in response to partners’ non-target-like utterances.

The second stage was to carry out the main task activities over a period of 6 weeks. This
stage consisted of the learners and the teacher-as-researcher doing task 1, task 2, and task 3 every week for three weeks. Two weeks after the second stage, the third stage was completed. In this stage, task 4 was carried out as a post-task activity, which was designed to observe any differences in the provision of recasts and learner uptake. The following table (Table 3.5) shows the observational procedure sequence for the four task activities conducted in the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week 1</th>
<th>Week 2</th>
<th>Week 3</th>
<th>Week 4</th>
<th>Week 5</th>
<th>Week 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First preliminary practice task activity</td>
<td>Second Preliminary practice task activity</td>
<td>First main task activity</td>
<td>Second main task activity</td>
<td>Third main task activity</td>
<td>Fourth main task activity as a post task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20 minutes</td>
<td>15-20 minutes</td>
<td>15-20 minutes</td>
<td>15-20 minutes</td>
<td>15-20 minutes</td>
<td>15-20 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information gap task (spot-the-difference)</td>
<td>Information gap task (spot-the-difference)</td>
<td>Information gap task (spot-the-difference Type A)</td>
<td>Information gap task (spot-the-difference Type B)</td>
<td>Information gap task (spot-the-difference Type A)</td>
<td>Information gap task (spot-the-difference Type B)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.7.3 Transcribing

The audio-recorded data were transcribed using conventions of conversation analysis (e.g., Ten Have, 1999). Detailed transcription conventions used for data analysis in the present study are displayed in the following table (Table 3.6). An example of transcribed text is shown in section 3.8. The transcription process allowed the researcher to catch
significant aspects of students’ speech production including intonation, pitch and emphasis on corrective recasts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S or any initial except T</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAPITALS</td>
<td>Emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(in Korean)</td>
<td>Extra information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; &gt;</td>
<td>A stretch of unclear, inaudible or unintelligible speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:</td>
<td>Colon, prolongation of immediately prior sound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>Pause (approximately one for one second, so the longer ellipsis, the longer pause)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>Rising intonation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\</td>
<td>Falling intonation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>A dash indicates a cut-off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>Equal signs, latching, no gap between the two lines, one at the end of one line and one at the beginning of a next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[</td>
<td>Two aligned square bracket, overlap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[</td>
<td>Phonetic transcription</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bowl /bou̞l/</td>
<td>Phonetic transcription with wiggly line, in the case of word with inaccurate pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ha ha</td>
<td>Laugh token</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.7.4 Open-ended questionnaires

The recorded data were supplemented with debriefing questionnaires after task activities, a retrospective technique in qualitative research. Such questionnaires are used “to probe the extent to which learners were focused on form during the instructional treatments,
rather than assuming that the instructional treatment translated directly into the quality of learner attention and awareness” (Long & Robinson, 1998, p.40). Thus, in order to examine the extent to which participants were aware of noticing corrective recasting in response to non-target-like forms, the researcher used the open-ended questionnaire method for this study. Immediately after conducting task activities, students were asked to respond to debriefing questionnaires (see Table 3.7) including questions not only about their noticing of interlocutors’ recasts, but also about whether there were any differences in the interactions between with peers and the teacher in terms of the noticing and using of recasts. Questionnaires consisted of entirely open-ended questions in order to obtain a more accurate reflection of what the students wanted to say (Nunan, 1992).

The researcher was able to obtain data through debriefing questionnaires from seventeen students and one audio-recorded interview using the same questions. The questionnaires in English were read slowly to the participants beforehand, and then translated by the teacher-as-researcher into Korean in order to ensure comprehension. The questionnaires were in English because the class was communicative in nature with English as the medium of communication whenever possible. When the oral interview with a student was conducted, the researcher asked questions first in English and then in Korean so that the interviewee would not have any misunderstanding caused by listening problems. Students answered the questions in Korean due to their inadequate command of English. The responses were transcribed and translated into English by the researcher.
Table 3.7: Questionnaires after task activities

| Q 1 | Please tell me about when you started to use English in the classroom? |
| Q 2 | How did you feel about using or providing recasts? |
| Q 3 | How did you feel about your partner using recasts in response to you? |
| Q 4 | Do you think you provided some recasts in response to your partner’s non-target-like grammatical forms during the tasks? |
| Q 5 | If yes, what types of recasts among the three different forms (we just call them, number 1 (R), number 2 (R and R) and number 3 (OR) recasts) did you like to use or provide more? |
| Q 6 | What were some reasons for using or providing a specific type of recast more? |
| Q 7 | Did you notice your partner’s recasts in response to you? |
| Q 8 | Is there any difference between the interaction with peers and with the teacher in terms of noticing or using recasts? |

3.7.5 Field notes

According to Maykut and Morehouse (1994), field notes include what has been seen and heard by the researcher without interpretation in qualitative research. Field notes were used to document interactional aspects during task activities and other variables associated with the present study such as situational features and students’ attitudes in conversational interactions. The field notes assisted the researcher to remember general impressions of the classroom interactions and atmosphere happening there. They acted as an “aide-memoire” (Hopkins, 1993, p.117) to report observations, reflections and reactions to classroom events.
3.8 DATA ANALYSIS METHODS AND PROCESS

3.8.1 Introduction

Data analysis was conducted as data were collected from the conversational interactions. With qualitative analysis, what becomes important to analyze emerges from the data itself, rather than relevant variables in data collection being predetermined (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

Data sources from recordings of communicative interactions, transcriptions of recordings, open-ended questionnaires, and researcher’s field notes were analyzed according to the following process. The analysis process commenced after the first recording of conversational interactions during the task one activity. All audio-taped classroom discourse for the four task activities was transcribed immediately after conducting each of them. The researcher then listened to the audio-taped conversations repeatedly and checked each transcription several times before coding and categorizing. Most of the speech by the teacher and learners during conversational interactions was adjusted to accommodate their interlocutors by slowing the rate of speech. In the present study, the slowing rate of speech resulted in “clearer articulation, fewer reduced vowels, less consonant cluster simplification, more fully released final stops, stronger voicing of voiced consonants in final position, and longer pauses between constituents for more processing time” (Hatch, 1983, p.159).

The open-ended questionnaires answered by participants were translated into English by the researcher. These were coded into categories as suggested by the questions. All field
notes were analyzed and filed, which enabled the researcher to sort and organize the obtained information into patterns and themes (Burns, 1998) in terms of certain characteristics of participants’ behavior during their communicative interactions in dyads.

3.8.2 Transcription analysis

The analysis of the transcription of audio-recorded data is illustrated in the example below.

(T1HA: T1 = task 1; H = NNS student, male; A = NNS student, male)

(1) (2)
35 H: Okay, I have a bowl, bowl on the drawer. Do you have it?

(3)
36 A: Yes, I have ball /bɔːl/ on the drawer.

(4) (5)
37 H: BALL /bɔːl/?

(6) (7)
38 A: ah: I have a ..... 

(8)
39 H: I have a BOWL /bɔul/, BOWL /bɔul/ 
40 A: bowl /bɔul/

In the brackets, information about the segment and the participants is provided. This segment is from task one with two students, H and A. The participants are listed by the first letter of their pseudonyms such as at (2). Line numbers, such as at (1), are listed on the left. Following the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), phonetic transcriptions are used, such as at (3). In order to indicate inaccurate pronunciation, a wiggly line is used
under the word, and then the phonetic transcription is displayed. Any word that the participants pronounced with emphasis is displayed in capitals, such as at (4). Rising and falling intonation is displayed with arrows, as at (5) and (8). Sound elongation is displayed with a colon, as at (6). Pauses are displayed with ellipsis. The longer the ellipsis, the longer the pause such as at (7).

Usually there is a one-to-one correspondence between line numbers and turns in the text, but in the case of a long turn for one person, it may extend across two or more lines. Also, pauses in which no participant can be heard taking a turn are displayed on their own line.

3.8.3 Identification of recast episode

The first analysis involved the researcher in identifying the recast episodes occurring during collaborative dialogue while doing task activities. This was done on the basis of transcriptions which were checked by the researcher and rechecked by a native speaker of English in identification of types of error, recasts and uptake. A recast episode was defined as a sequence involving one recast dealing with one instance of non-target-like utterance. A recast episode starts with a non-target-like utterance that the learner initiates to which the interlocutor responds, and ends when a corrective recast is provided and the topic shifts. That is, a recast episode for the coding in the present study includes a non-target-like form, a recast and a learner response after the recast. Recast episodes that include optional responses after corrective recasting (e.g., providing incorrect recasting in response to target-like forms, and responding in learners’ first
language, Korean) were excluded in the data analysis because this study mainly focused on the aspects of corrective recasting in response to non-target-like linguistic features.

The recast episodes in the present study are divided into two categories: a single recast episode and an extended recast episode. A single recast episode contains one recast in response to a student's non-target-like utterance, whereas an extended recast episode includes two or more recasts in response to a specific non-target-like utterance. The following episodes are examples of both a single recast episode (excerpt 3.8.3 – 1) and an extended recast episode (excerpt 3.8.3 – 2).

Excerpt 3.8.3 – 1 from T4BE: Example of a single recast episode

81 E: Yes. In my picture, woman running, training. Woman training?
82 B: jogging, jogging, she is jogging?
83 E: Yes, she is jogging.

This episode is a single recast episode including one recasting in response to one instance of non-target-like form. This recast episode begins with student E’s inaccurate lexical choice ‘training’ and omission of the auxiliary ‘is’ in Line 81. These are reformulated by the interlocutor, student B at the same time providing ‘OR’ type recast with ‘she is jogging’ in Line 82. Student E incorporates them into the recast successfully in Line 83. This single recast episode includes one non-target-like form, one recast provided by the interlocutor, B, and E’s successful repair.

Excerpt 3.8.3 – 2 from T2TO: Example of an extended recast episode

43 T: Um.. I have a flower fence, too. In my picture, um.. In the garden, I mean. uh.. within the flower fence, there are five birds.
44 O: um… yes., I same. Uh… I have a five birds.
45 T: in the garden?
46 O: ah... ye, yes, in the garden.
47 T: um ... you have five birds. 
48 O: yes ..., I have a ..., in the garden ..., I have a five birds.
49 T: have A FIVE BIRDS?=
50 O: I have a five birds.
51 T: =have FIVE BIRDS. 
52 O: ah .., have five birds.

As can be seen, this episode includes two recasts, referred to as an extended recast episode. In this recast episode, the teacher and a student are exchanging information to complete the task. The recast episode begins with Line 44 where the student makes a grammatical error in the use of the article. The first corrective recasting by the teacher is provided in Line 47, but the student does not realize it and makes the same errors in Lines 48 and 50. Teacher provides the type of ‘R’ recast in Line 47 at first, and then the type of ‘R & R’ recast with the emphasis on target-like forms (which are capitalized) in Lines 49 and 51. At last, the student incorporates the correct model immediately in Line 52. This extended recast episode includes two recasts in the form of both ‘Reformulation’ recast and ‘Repetition followed by Reformulation’ recast in response to student O’s non-target-like forms until O incorporates those recasts successfully.

3.8.4 Coding and categorization of data

Coding and categorization of the core data were carried out initially by the researcher followed by validation by a native speaker of English. The reliability obtained in the identification and categorization of non-target-like utterances and recast episodes between the researcher and the native speaker checker was high. Data coding for the present study employed several stages: coding of recasts, coding of learner uptake, and
coding of open-ended questionnaires. Since data gained from field notes were only
drawn upon incidentally in the data analysis, coding of field notes was excluded.

Data were categorized and coded in terms of types of recasts in response to non-target-
like utterances and learner uptake. Non-target-like utterances were classified into three
categories: morpho-syntactic, phonological, and lexical errors. However, due to the
limited grammatical forms associated with the pictures used for the task activities, the
coding of grammatical forms was limited in terms of morpho-syntactic features such as
determiners, copulas, auxiliaries, ~-ing, plurals, pronoun case, third person, prepositions,
negation and word order. Recasts were identified in terms of three different types for the
present study: ‘Reformulation’ (R), ‘Repetition followed by Reformulation’ (R and R),
and ‘Overlap Reformulation’ (OR). Learner uptake was analysed in terms of two main
categories: ‘response (repair)’ and ‘no response’. The category of ‘repair’ was then
divided into three categories again: ‘successful repair’, ‘unsuccessful repair’ and ‘no
opportunity’. Figure 3.4 illustrates coding categories relating to non-target-like
utterances, recasts and learner uptake for the present study.
Figure 3.4: Coding categories of non-target-like utterances, recasts and uptake

Table 3.8 displays categories of recast episodes (REs) for final coding in the present study. An example of the final coding scheme is displayed in Table 3.9. A more detailed explanation of coding for further data analysis is described in the next section.

Table 3.8: Characteristics of recast episodes for coding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic focus</td>
<td>Aspects of language targeted in the recast episodes</td>
<td>Morpho-syntactic (MS) Phonological (P) Lexical (L)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recasts</td>
<td>Type of recast provided by interlocutors</td>
<td>Reformulation (R) Repetition + Reformulation (R and R) Overlap Reformulation (OR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Recurrence of recasting</td>
<td>Single Extended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saliency</td>
<td>Acoustic emphasis or stress</td>
<td>No signal – R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>Segments contained in recasts</td>
<td>Signal – R and R Dubious – OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uptake</td>
<td>Quality of learners’ responses to recasts</td>
<td>Repair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Successful repair (SR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Unsuccessful repair (UR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-No opportunity to repair (UR:NO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Null response (UR:null)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.9: Example of coding recast episode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recast Episodes (REs)</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1TJ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83 T: I have a briefcase behind the chair. Do you have a briefcase?</td>
<td>Linguistic focus</td>
<td>Morpho-syntactic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Response</td>
<td>R and R &amp; R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84 J: Oh, no, .. I haven’t. I haven’t a briefcase.</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Extended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85 T: You haven’t a briefcase. \</td>
<td>Saliency</td>
<td>Signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86 J: I haven’t briefcase.</td>
<td>Uptake</td>
<td>SR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87 T: Um.. You haven’t ..BRIEFCASE? \</td>
<td>Length</td>
<td>Sentence level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88 J: Yes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89 T: You haven’t A BRIEFCASE. \</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90 J: I haven’t a briefcase.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T1TJ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 T: Um, what do you have?</td>
<td>Linguistic focus</td>
<td>Morpho-syntactic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 J: Uh, I have a traveler’s checks on the sofa.</td>
<td>Response</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 T: Um.. traveler’s checks- \</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 J: Yes.</td>
<td>Saliency</td>
<td>No signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uptake</td>
<td>UR:null</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Length</td>
<td>Phrase level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of the interaction analyses are reported in Chapter Four. Discussion based on the results from both the T – L and L – L interactions is taken up in Chapter Five including comparisons between learner – learner and teacher – learner interactions, contrasting them with findings from different interactional settings such as ESL contexts and immersion classrooms.

### 3.8.4.1 Coding of recasts: further detail

Recasts in response to non-target-like utterances were coded into three categories according to different ways of providing corrective feedback (see the examples in 2.3.3 – 1, 2, and 3 in Chapter 2). The types of non-target-like forms the learners made were classified into three main error types following Lyster (1998a): (1) Morpho-syntactic non-target-like forms (e.g., use of articles, determiners, prepositions, pronouns, verb morphology, word order, etc.); (2) Lexical non-target-like forms (e.g., inaccurate, or inappropriate choice of lexical items and non-target-like derivations of nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives), and (3) Phonological non-target-like forms (e.g., English word, ‘duck’[dək] pronounced as ‘dog’[dɔg]).

In the coding of recasts in the study, the first category consists of ‘Reformulation’ (R) where the interlocutor provides the correct grammatical model with falling intonation. It can be considered a less salient way than the other two types of recasts for EFL learners to notice their interlocutors’ corrective recasting. The following excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 1 shows a ‘Reformulation’ type of recast (which is underlined) occurring in teacher – learner interaction in the study. In the example, the student made an ungrammatical error in the use of the article in Line 2. The teacher simply reformulated it into a target-
like form with falling intonation. This is called a ‘Reformulation’ type recast.

Excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 1 from T1TJ: Example of ‘Reformulation’ recast

21 T: Um, what do you have?
22 J: Uh, I have a traveler’s checks on the sofa.
23 T: Um... traveler’s checks
24 J: Yes.

The second category involves ‘Repetition followed by Reformulation’ (R and R). This is a way in which an interlocutor repeats a learner’s ungrammatical utterances with rising intonation and then provides a reformulation with emphasis on the correct target form. This type of recast appears a more salient way to enable EFL learners to notice corrective recasting, since the interlocutor repeats the non-target-like utterance made by the learner with rising intonation, and then provides a correct model with the emphasis on it (Doughty & Varela, 1998). The repetition of the non-target-like utterance with rising intonation can play a role as a signal of error in the utterance. Thus, it enables the learner to notice their interlocutor’s reformulation.

Below is an example of the ‘R and R’ type recast in T – L interaction (Excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 2). In this recast episode, the teacher provides corrective recasting with an ‘R & R’ type recast (underlined) in Line 81 in response to student S’s non-target-like form in the use of the article ‘a’ in Line 80. In Line 82, S incorporates immediately the teacher’s ‘R and R’ recast with a successful repair.

Excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 2 from T3TS: Example of ‘R and R’ recast

78 S: Uh... In my picture,
79 T: Um.
80 S: Uh... there are..., is handbag.
81 T: There is HANDBAG. There is a, there is A HANDBAG. 

1 2 5
82 S: There is a handbag on the sofa.

In addition, as in the case of the following example (Excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 3), when an ‘R and R’ recast is disrupted by the student’s sudden interruption, this kind of recast is also coded as ‘R and R’ for the present study, since it still has repetition of error with rising intonation and reformulation with emphasis on it.

Excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 3 from T2TO
   48 O: Yes ..., I have a ..., in the garden ..., I have a five birds.
   49 T: Have A five birds-.
   50 O: I have a five birds.
   51 T: Have five BIRDS.
   52 O: Ah ..., have five birds.

The third category involves ‘Overlap Reformulation’ (OR). This contains implicit correction of the learner’s ungrammatical utterances plus a confirmation check of understanding with rising intonation. This type of recast is considered to be a less salient and ambiguous way for EFL learners to notice the corrective recasting. The following two examples (Excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 4 & 3.8.4.1 – 5) show different aspects of eliciting learner uptake. In excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 4, the teacher provides ‘OR’ recast in Line 69 in response to learner B’s phonological error. The teacher’s recast does not generate immediate incorporation, with learner B simply saying ‘yes’ in Line 70. This shows the teacher’s ‘OR’ recast is perceived as a confirmation check of understanding rather than as corrective recasting. On the contrary, the example of ‘OR’ type of recast in excerpt 3.8.4.1 - 5 shows the evidence that the student considered the teacher’s ‘OR’ recast as corrective recasting rather than negotiation of meaning in this case. The teacher provides an ‘OR’ type of recast in Line 27 (underlined) in response to a phonological...

Excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 4 from T3TB: Example of ‘OR’ recast as confirmation check of understanding
66 B:  /was/, /wast/ basket
67 T:  A basket?
68 B:  /wast/ basket.
69 T:  Uh... you mean, uh ... waste /weist/ basket?  
70 B:  Yes

Excerpt 3.8.4.1 – 5 from T1TJ: Example of ‘OR’ recast as corrective recasting
26 J:  Do you have a bowl /bou/: l/ on the drawer?
27 T:  Bowl /boul/?
28 J:  Bowl /boul/
29 T:  Yes, I have a bowl on the drawer.

3.8.4.2 Coding of learner uptake

The classification of learner uptake was divided into two types: (1) ‘response’ (repair); (2) ‘no response’ (no repair). Response (repair) category was sub-divided into three different categories: a) ‘successful repair’; b) ‘unsuccessful repair’; and c) ‘no opportunity’ to repair. Examples of these categories are shown below.

In Excerpt 3.8.4.2 – 1, student J repairs his errors successfully in response to the teacher’s recast in Lines 12, 16 and 18 (underlined).

Excerpt 3.8.4.2 – 1 from T1TJ: Example of ‘successful repair’
9   T:   Um.. I have two cushions on the sofa.
10  J:   Only two. I .. I have.. sofa, I cushion two.
11  T:   Two [cushions  
12  J:       [Two cushions
13 T: On the sofa 
14 J: On the sofa, two...
15 T: Two cushions 
16 J: Yes, two cushions
17 T: Okay.
18 J: On the sofa.

In the following excerpt 3.8.4.2 – 2, the teacher provides a recast in Line 76, which is in response to student J’s error in missing the indefinite article ‘a’ before ‘guidebook’ in Line 75. However, student J does not incorporate successfully the teacher’s corrective recast as underlined in Line 77.

Excerpt 3.8.4.2 – 2 from T1TJ: Example of ‘unsuccessful repair’

75 J: I haven't guidebook.
76 T: Um, I.. you haven't a guidebook on the table. 
77 J: I haven't guidebook on the table.

‘No opportunity’ to repair, is shown in the excerpt 3.8.4.2 – 3 in teacher – learner interaction. In this episode, student B makes errors in the use of articles in Line 10. The teacher provides recasts in Line 11 but she has topic continuation (underlined). Thus, B has no opportunity to incorporate the teacher’s recast, and follows the teacher’s topic continuation.

Excerpt 3.8.4.2 – 3 from T3TB: Example of ‘no opportunity’

10 B: Um… armchair and couch
11 T: Couch, yeah, an armchair and a couch. 
12 B: On the couch, I have a
13 T: Okay. On the couch, I have a bag and knitting. What about you?
14 B: Um … on the couch ... um ...handbag, ..... and knitting...and cushion ....
The following excerpt 3.8.4.2 – 4 shows the example of ‘no response (no repair). In this episode in L – L interaction, J provides a recast in the form of ‘R and R’ in response to Y’s non-target-like utterance in Line 23. However, Y just responds ‘yes’ as can be seen in Line 24 (underlined), which means Y does not incorporate J’s corrective recasting successfully. This kind of learner response was identified as null repair.

Excerpt 3.8.4.2 – 4 from T2JY: Example of ‘no repair’

20 Y: In my picture … have a swing.
21 J: Swing in… two girls play swing.
22 Y: In my picture, two same
23 J: Two SAME↗ two girls? ↗
24 Y: Yes

3.8.4.3 Coding of open-ended questionnaires

The open-ended questionnaires administered after all task activities consisted of questions about students’ thinking and feeling regarding the use of recasts during interactions both with peers and with teacher. In order to avoid students’ confusion with the use of the technical terms for the three recasts forms, they were replaced with ‘number 1’ for ‘Reformulation’, ‘number 2’ for ‘Repetition followed by Reformulation’ and ‘number 3’ for ‘Overlap Reformulation’. Based on their answers, several categories were developed and coded in regard to providing and receiving recasts during dyadic interactions. From the nine questions, only those questions that really related closely to the present study were chosen and categorized. The following Table 3.10 presents the categories for coding of questionnaires employed in the present study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Responses (number)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Q1. When did you start to use English in the classroom? | - first time (9 of 18)  
- from freshman in Uni. (5 of 18)  
- from sophomore in Uni. (1 of 18)  
- from junior high school (3 of 18) |
| Q2. How did you feel about using or providing recasts? | - I was not sure of peer’s recasts and even my recasts in terms of accuracy (12 of 18)  
- I felt I could have brainstorming with my partner for target-like form (2 of 18)  
- I enjoyed providing recasts for friends’ non-target-like forms when I was sure of the target-like form (1 of 18)  
- I was concerned about friend’s embarrassment after my recasts (1 of 18)  
- I had no idea (2 of 18) |
| Q3. How did you feel about your interlocutors using recasts in response to you? | - I was all right because we are friends and friends’ recasts were helpful for using target-like forms (11 of 18)  
- I was not used to partner’s recasts at first but little by little getting used to them (1)  
- I was doubtful about my peer partner’s recasts in terms of grammatical accuracy or not, which is unlikely with teacher’s recasts (1)  
- I did not like it when my friend provided recasts to my errors (2)  
- I was surprised when I received recasts (1)  
- I was embarrassed (1)  
- I tried to not make errors (1) |
| Q4. Do you think you provided recasts in response to your interlocutors’ non- | - I tried to provide as many recasts as I could (9) |
| Q5. If yes, what types of recasts among three different forms did you like to use or provide more? (Three recast types were coded through on-going data analysis used during four task activities, and were named ‘number 1’ for ‘R’, ‘number 2’ for ‘R and R’, and ‘number 3’ for ‘OR’). | - R (4)  R and R (5)  OR (9) |
| Q6. What were the reasons for using or providing your preferable recasts (answered in Q5) more? | - R type was simpler, easy to use and to make partner to understand it, and made less embarrassment  
- R and R was a good way to give a signal highlighting the presence of partner’s error and to give correct models  
- OR was a good way because it included confirmation check and correct models at the same time.  
- I could provide recasts with collaborative negotiation of meaning and form, and this was good for considering partner’s feelings as well |
| Q7. Did you notice your interlocutors’ recasts in response to you? | - I noticed them because the interlocutor gave a signal with rising intonation of the position of error, or with repeated recasts times (14 of 18).  
- I only noticed them a little at the beginning, but as interactions went on, was aware of them more (4 of 18). |
| Q8. Is there any difference between the interaction with peers and with the | All students responded similarly as follows (18 of 18). |
teacher in terms of noticing or using recasts?

- With peers, I did not have confidence in my peer’s recasts caused by lack of knowledge of English, which was different from teacher’s recasts where I was completely sure she provided recasts with target-like forms.
- Teacher’s recasts pointing out my errors were more understandable and I followed them as more-target-like forms.
- I noticed teacher’s recasts much more than peer recasts.
- I believed teacher’s recasts giving target-like models were helpful for me to use more accurate language in grammar, lexical and phonological forms in interactions with peers later on.

3.9 GENERALIZABILITY

For the study to have a certain degree of generalizability, the researcher has provided sufficient descriptive data about the research situation, subjects, participants’ interactional details, their demographic details and the research setting. Providing in-depth description (Mertens, 2005) of what was found in one EFL conversational classroom context may enable the reader to gain insights into similar contexts.

With regard to the replication of the study across time and place, while the researcher tried to report and interpret consistent qualitative findings with some quantitative statistics from NNS – NNS interactions in EFL settings, the present study may not necessarily be replicable because in qualitative research, there are constantly changing
interactions between the researcher and participants (Mertens, 2005).

3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study had the approval of the Human Research Ethics Committee, University of Wollongong (Appendix Two). Prior to the study, all participants were given information sheets including consent forms (Appendix Three) both in Korean and in English. The researcher gave a comprehensive explanation of the study to the participants. In keeping with Bouma’s (2000) ethical characteristics that participants are not passive subjects but cooperative partners, the present study was conducted with a respectful attitude towards the student participants. The participants gave their written consent both to have their task activities recorded on audio tape and to complete questionnaires.

Prior to consenting to be participants, learners were informed that they would be involved in six task activities, including two practice task activities, and a period of observation for 8 weeks. They were also informed that their anonymity would be preserved by giving them pseudonyms. In addition, participants were informed that the data gathered would be confidentially treated and that they could withdraw their involvement even during the progress of the study. The researcher then obtained signed consent forms from the participants.