



# Corrective feedback in oral interaction: A comparison of a CLIL and an EFL classroom.

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**TRANSCRIPTION CODES:**

<b>CODE</b>	<b>MEANING</b>
*	Error
CC	Clarification correction
CR	Clarification repair
EC	Explicit correction
EIC	Elicitation correction
EIR	Elicitation repair
ER	Explicit correction repair
MC	Metalinguistic correction
MR	Metalinguistic repair
NR	No repair
NU	No uptake
RC	Recast correction
RpC	Repetition correction
RpR	Repetition repair
RR	Recast repair
Xxx	Unintelligible word or phrase

## **ABSTRACT**

Since Long's Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1983) multiple studies have suggested the need of oral interaction for successful second language learning. Within this perspective, a great deal of research has been carried out to investigate the role of corrective feedback in the process of acquiring a second language, but there are still varied open debates about this issue. This comparative study seeks to contribute to the existing literature on corrective feedback in oral interaction by exploring teachers' corrective techniques and students' response to these corrections. Two learning contexts were observed and compared: a traditional English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom and a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) classroom. The main aim was to see whether our data conform to the Counterbalance Hypothesis proposed by Lyster and Mori (2006). Although results did not show significant differences between the two contexts, a qualitative analysis of the data shed some light on the differences between these two language teaching settings. The findings point to the need for further research on error correction in EFL and CLIL contexts in order to overcome the limitations of the present study.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The process of acquiring a second language has been widely studied by different researchers from different perspectives throughout the years. In the present paper we address this issue from the point of view of the interactionist framework; that is, acknowledging the relevance of oral interaction for a more efficient learning (Long, 1983, 1996).

The specific object of our study is error correction in oral interaction. There has been ample research on the use and effectiveness of correction techniques in English as a second language (ESL) and EFL classrooms. However, the context of CLIL (Marsh, 1994) has not been addressed in error correction studies. It is here where this paper aims to contribute to previous literature.

In this descriptive study we will consider second language acquisition (SLA) in a formal environment. We are interested in examining teachers' practices, particularly when correcting errors in oral interaction. The aim is to compare these strategies in two different teaching contexts: a CLIL classroom and an EFL classroom. We are also interested in exploring the effectiveness of the different types of correction by analyzing students' response to them. In this sense we will follow Lyster and Mori (2006) procedure: we are exploring correction in two different contexts and see whether the type of context influences correction use and effectiveness (Lyster & Mori 2006: 278). The contribution of our study is the testing of Lyster and Mori's Counterbalance Hypothesis in a different context so much in need of research such as CLIL.

The paper is organized as follows: in Section 2 we will review the theoretical foundations in the field as well as the most relevant studies on error correction. Section 3, 4 and 5 will be devoted to the present study: the research questions motivating this study, the methodology followed for the realization of the research, the presentation of results obtained and the discussion of results in the light of the existing literature. Section 6 will conclude with a summary of the results, a description of the limitations of the present study as well as the possible implications and lines for further research.

## 2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this section we will look at the theories and studies on language acquisition that constitute the foundation for the present work. We will look at first language (L1) acquisition theories, and, after that, we will comment on SLA models and factors that influence the process of learning a language. Then, we will review studies on corrective feedback that have led to the research questions in this paper.

### 2.1. FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The question of how languages are learned is a complex matter that has been object of research for many decades and continues being investigated in our days. As in any other field, there has been an array of theoretical explanations for this complex process. The acquisition of a language on the part of a child is a process that has been explained from different perspectives since the **behaviourist** psychological perspective in the 1940s and 1950s. These early theorists believed in language as a result of habit formation by means of imitation, practice and feedback on success (Skinner, 1953).

As a reaction to behaviourist ideas, Chomsky's **innatist** approach (Chomsky, 1959 et passim) argued against behaviourism because it did not successfully explain

what he called 'the Logical Problem of language acquisition': children learn more than what is available in their environment so there must be an internal mechanism that is helping the child in this process. Chomsky's theory states that children are ready to learn from birth and have an innate capacity for language learning, as pre-wired in their system as the capacity human beings have to walk, for example. This innate capacity was first named Language Acquisition Device and later on this concept developed into what is referred to as the Universal Grammar with which all humans are endowed with from birth, with some fixed principles common to all languages and some parameters that will set their values according to the specific language (Chomsky, 1986).

Yet another position appears in this attempt to explain the language acquisition process: the **interactionist** position which states that the key to success is the environment and the child's relation with it. Vygotsky's ideas come to play: this Russian psychologist believed in the so-called Zone of Proximal Development, the child will make a greater progress if involved in social interaction than independently (Vygotsky, 1978). These three theories should not be seen as excluding one another. On the contrary, we could follow Lightbown and Spada (1999 p. 26) suggestion and reconcile them by saying that each of them could well explain the acquisition of a different aspect of language. Thus,

*'[...] behaviourist explanations may explain the acquisition of vocabulary and grammatical morphemes. Innatist explanations seem most plausible in explaining the acquisition of complex grammar. Interactionist explanations may be useful for understanding how children relate form and meaning in language, how they interact in conversation and how they learn to use the language appropriately.'*



## 2.2. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The issue of language learning becomes more complex when we approach the question of how second (L2) or third, or fourth..., languages are acquired. Basically because we are now talking about adults or older children, besides the fact that there exists an L1 that must have some influence on the process of acquisition. The idea of learners' interlanguage (IL; Selinker, 1972) development comes into play here: the learner's process of acquisition goes through several stages that go from his/her L1<sup>1</sup> to the stage of final attainment in the L2. Consequently, this process is far more complex than the L1 acquisition process. Researchers involved in SLA have taken L1 theories and developed them to explain the complex process of the acquisition of a language which is not the learner's mother tongue. Therefore, in the history of SLA we also find a behaviourist perspective, related in this case with the **Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis** which states that the similarities between an L1 and an L2 facilitate learning while differences between both hinder it (Lado, 1957, p.2). Chomsky has not studied the implication of his theory for SLA, but other theorists have used the innatist approach to explain the acquisition of an L2 (See Hawkins, 2001 and White, 2003 for detailed accounts) and more recently to an L3 (see García Mayo & Rothman, 2011, for a review).

One of the most influential theories in the early days of SLA was Krashen's '**Monitor model**', which has been of great importance both due to the impact of his proposals but, crucially, due to the criticisms it provoked, which ultimately helped to move the SLA field forward, as we will see below.

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<sup>1</sup> If we assume total transfer from L1 in initial states (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1996)

Krashen's 'Monitor Model' consisted of five hypotheses (Krashen, 1982): the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis<sup>2</sup>, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. The hypothesis relevant for this paper is the Input hypothesis. The notion of input refers to the language that the learner hears, reads or sees in signs (as in sign language). According to Krashen, the only way to acquire a language is by exposure to what he referred to as *comprehensible input*. This is the input which contains forms and structures just beyond the speaker's proficiency level. Of course this exposure does not always lead to successful acquisition and that is why Krashen proposed the existence of the affective filter as the reason for this occasional lack of acquisition.

Of course Krashen's ideas have been the seed of many teaching methodologies, the best-known has been Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method which has been used by foreign language teachers during the 80s and 90s and is still considered the best methodology by many teachers nowadays (Savignon, 2006). On the other hand, Krashen's ideas have received a great deal of criticism, mainly because his hypotheses cannot be empirically tested (Mclaughlin, 1987). However, his ideas have been the basis for other approaches, especially the Input Hypothesis, which inspired Long's Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1983; 1996), the framework used in this study.

### **2.2.1. INTERACTION**

As mentioned above, Krashen's Input Hypothesis served as a starting point for Long's **Interaction Hypothesis** (IH) (Long, 1983, 1996). The difference with Krashen's proposal is that Long' concept of input includes not only positive evidence

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<sup>2</sup> In this paper we will not follow the distinction that Krashen proposed between the unconscious process of acquisition and the conscious process of learning.

(what Krashen named *comprehensible input*) but also negative evidence. Consequently, the learner receives not only models of authentic language as well as modified language, either elaborated or simplified (foreign speech), but also negative evidence, that is, examples of what is not possible in the language.

According to Long, acquisition will be facilitated by interaction. He showed with empirical evidence that when non-native speakers (NNSs) interact in conversation with native speakers (NSs), they engage in negotiation of meaning. This negotiation of meaning has been defined as *'[...] interactions in which learners and their interlocutors adjust their speech phonologically, lexically, and morphosyntactically to resolve difficulties in mutual understanding that impede the course of their communication'* (Pica, 1992:200). Example (1) below illustrates interaction:

<b>(1) English L2 learner (NNS)</b>	<b>Native Speaker English (NS)</b>
<i>The boys arrive at station</i>	<i>What did you say about the boys?</i>
<i>They arrive at the station</i>	<i>oh, really</i>

(Pica, 1998)

Example (1) shows how the NS uses a comprehension check which provides the learner with negative input as to the comprehensibility of the message. The learner, in turn, modifies his output (see article *'the'*).

Long (1996) claims that this negotiation of meaning connects input, internal learner capacities and output. By means of conversational interaction learners notice differences between their IL and the target language (TL) since there is a juxtaposition of incorrect and correct forms. Besides, when engaged in interaction, learners receive

feedback which modifies linguistic input. Finally, interaction may push learners to modify their production during conversation.

Long's IH inspired many studies concerning interaction as the basis of language acquisition. Gass and Mackey (2007) consider that the tenets of SLA within the interactional framework are input, output and feedback, which, together with attention, lead the learner to gradually learn the language (see García Mayo & Alcón Soler, 2012, for an update of research on the three constructs in conversational interaction). Figure 1 displays the model of interaction and learning according to Gass and Mackey (2007):

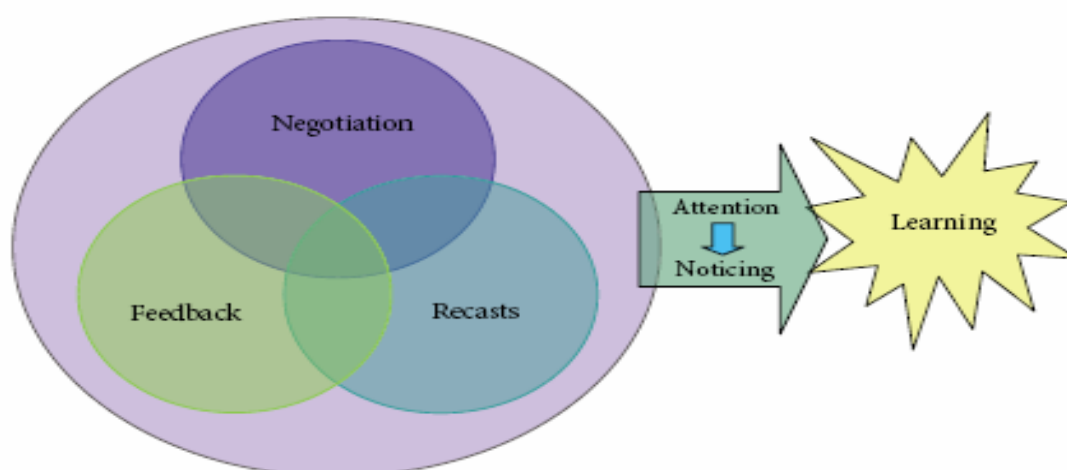


Figure 1. Model of Interaction and Learning

Let us then consider those basic tenets in turn:

### **INPUT**

No one would deny that input is one of the key elements in SLA. It can be provided in two ways: **real** input made *comprehensible* via reduction or simplification, for example, or **structured** input in the form of metalanguage via terminology and/or explanations (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Most authors working within the interactionist perspective agree that these two forms of input are necessary to lead to a change in the learner's IL. Input can be presented in an enhanced way (White, 1998) and can be made comprehensible

via negotiation, not just simplification (Ellis, 1985). There is another distinction that should be established when talking about input: it can be positive evidence in the form of models or negative evidence stating what is not correct in the language. This negative evidence can be either preemptive, that is, provided before the error actually occurs by means of grammar rules, or reactive to an erroneous utterance (Long & Robinson 1998). This notion of negative evidence is the basis of this study and will be further developed below. On the whole, what most authors agree with is that input is necessary but, contrary to Krashen's view, not sufficient for acquisition.

### **OUTPUT**

Another basic element in the learning process is output, the language the learner produces. This production '*[...] may force the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing*' (Swain, 1985). According to Swain's **Output Hypothesis**, output also provides learners with opportunities to formulate and test hypotheses. Furthermore, modified output has been found to be facilitative of language learning as long as learners notice the gap between their initially erroneous utterance, the correct form provided as feedback and their own correct form produced as modified output (Gass & Mackey 2007).

### **NOTICING**

A condition that seems crucial for the effectiveness of the interactional model in the learning process is that the learner notices the input features, and the differences between his/her own IL and the target forms. Noticing is essential for input to become intake<sup>3</sup>. This idea is captured in the **Noticing Hypothesis** developed by Schmidt (1990)

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<sup>3</sup> The concept of intake refers to '*that portion of input that learners notice and therefore take into temporary memory*' (Ellis, 1994:708)

and subscribed to by other researchers (Ellis, 1991; Gass & Varonis, 1994). Learner's noticing has been studied by many researchers (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Mackey, Gass & McDonough 2000; Philp 2003; Roberts 1995) as one of the main elements necessary for acquisition. It can be constrained by internal factors such as level of proficiency, L1, age and working memory, and external factors such as linguistic features, task effects and context. Noticing of form has been claimed to be crucial for '[...] *the use learners make of the input they receive*' (Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000 p. 475).

We have briefly seen above the main elements that researchers working within the interactionist perspective consider necessary conditions for the SLA process. However, there are other facilitative conditions that can foster language learning. Among others, we need to consider **learning context** as one of the variables influencing language acquisition. Language learning contexts can be naturalistic or instructed. In this paper, we will focus on the latter type of learning that occurs in formal settings, that is, in the language classroom. There are different approaches for teaching an L2. One of these is the so-called focus-on-form approach (Long & Robinson, 1998), which concentrates on meaning but paying attention to form, as well. In the next section we will review this type of instruction.

### **2.2.2. FOCUS-ON-FORM**

First of all, we will provide two definitions for this type of instruction proposed by different authors:

*'Focus on form ... overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication'* (Long, 1991)

*'... a focus on form entails a focus on formal elements of language, whereas focus on forms is limited to such a focus, and focus on meaning excludes it. ... the fundamental assumption ... is that meaning and use must already be evident to the learner at the time that attention is drawn to the linguistic apparatus needed to get the meaning across'* (Doughty and Williams, 1998).

The focus of the lesson will be shifted either by the teacher or by a student from meaning/communication to the forms of language that arise incidentally during the lesson/task development and present themselves as problematic for successful communication, although the communicative thrust of the lesson should remain constant. Other definitions have considered pre-planned FonF (see García Mayo, 2011 for a review). Let us look at figure 2 below:



Figure 2: Continuum on instructional foci in SLA

If focus on forms (FonFs) is at one end of the continuum and meaning-based instruction on the other, focus-on form (FonF) would be a more balanced approach with a main focus on communication but paying attention to language forms too. There are different ways by which this FonF can be obtained depending on whether we consider a more implicit FonF (e.g. via recasts) or we prefer to do it in a more explicit manner: through conscious reflection (Swain, 1998), noticing the gap (Long & Robinson, 1998), hypothesis formulation and testing, metatalk, recasting or typographical (visual) input enhancement (White, 1998). Which of them is preferable is still a debate nowadays.

Nevertheless, in a meta-analysis<sup>4</sup> on the effectiveness of L2 instruction, Norris and Ortega (2000) suggest a specific order: Explicit FonF > Explicit FonFs > Implicit FonF > Implicit FonFs. Thus, it seems that results of different studies show that explicit FonF is more effective. In a more recent meta-analysis, Spada and Tomita's (2010) findings corroborated that there are larger effect sizes for explicit over implicit instruction.

Furthermore, attention to form can be either pre-emptive or reactive. A pre-emptive or proactive approach would entail selecting an aspect of the target to focus on in advance, whereas a reactive stance would require that the teacher notices and is prepared to handle various learning difficulties as they arise. Debate still exists about whether one is more convenient than the other and/or whether one excludes the other but both seem to be beneficial. With a reactive FonF learners' noticing is fostered and attention is drawn to errors already produced, whilst a proactive focus-on-form ensures opportunities to use problematic forms (Doughty & Williams, 1998). However, some key issues still continue to be controversial in the SLA field. The following is a partial list (in Doughty & Williams 1998: 5-6):

1. Timing: when and how long should focus-on-form be provided?
2. Forms: which language elements need to be considered and which ignored? Form-focused instruction may be more successful with some language features than with others (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster, 1994; Lightbown & Spada, 1994; Swain, 1994; White, 1991). The solution seems to be a selection of forms based on research on learnability. Harley (1993) advocates for a

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<sup>4</sup> A meta-analysis consists of a compilation of the most relevant studies on a certain topic, taking into account variables, methodologies and results and performing statistical analyses to obtain general conclusions.



*'[...] need for form-focused instruction when features in L2 differ from L1 in subtle ways, particularly when the information about these differences is not available in the regularly occurring input [...] It may be necessary to provide explicit information about how learners' L1 contrasts with the TL [...] this information [...] can be quickly and easily incorporated into a lesson in which the primary focus is on meaning and communication'.*

3. Classroom context: individual factors, settings and age of the students, among other factors (García Mayo, 2002a, 2002b)
4. Curricular decisions: type of tasks more appropriate for focus-on-form, type of feedback, etc.

In spite of these debates about the nature and features of form-focused instruction there has been enough research to state that it is necessary to incorporate it in meaning-oriented classrooms. There are several reasons for using FonF in L2 syllabuses:

- (1) When classroom second language learning is entirely experiential and meaning-focused (e.g., immersion programs in Canada), some linguistic features do not ultimately develop to target-like levels (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).
- (2) Aspects of the L2 input learners need to notice but do not (for whatever reason) will require some kind of pedagogical intervention (Doughty, 2001).
- (3) Pedagogical interventions embedded in communicative activities can be effective in overcoming classroom limitations regarding the process of SLA. (Lightbown & Spada, 1990)
- (4) FonF can push learners beyond communicatively effective language toward target-like second language ability. Although instruction cannot change the 'natural'

developmental course, it can speed up acquisition processes. (Lightbown & Spada, 1990)

(5) According to the Noticing Hypothesis, input becomes intake if it is noticed, so drawing students' attention to form will lead to more intake (Ellis, 1994; Schmidt, 1990).

(6) Input processing involves learners focusing on meaning first so there is a need to focus on form because *'[...] learners cannot attend to and process both meaning and form at the same time'* (VanPatten, 1990)

To sum up, research on SLA has provided support for the idea that the combination of meaning based instruction, form-focused activities and correction in context set up the stage for an appropriate acquisitional setting. Communicative skills as well as accuracy and fluency have been claimed to develop. (Lightbown & Spada, 1990).

Negotiation of meaning, which serves the function of guaranteeing comprehension, has just been defined above. Yet, there is another type of negotiation that takes place in this context of form-focused instruction, the **negotiation of form**. This construct refers to the episodes that occur in FonF instruction and *'[...] serve a pedagogical function that draws attention to form and aims for both accuracy and mutual comprehension'* (Lyster, 2002). We will see examples and a classification of these interactional moves in the next section.

Within the context of form-focused instruction, error correction (negative feedback) might be another facilitative element in the learning process. In the next section we will review hypotheses and studies on corrective feedback.

## 2.3. CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

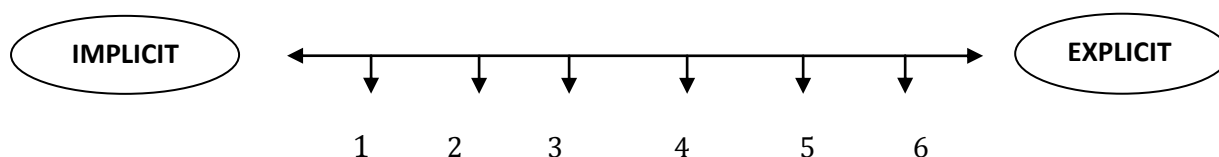
We have seen above that most researchers working from the interactionist perspective agree that some negative evidence is necessary for instruction to be effective. There have been some voices that claim that it is not, and that it could even be harmful for learners (Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1996; 1999). However, since Long's Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1991), more and more support has been found for the need of negative evidence and FonF (Long & Robinson, 1998; Nicholas et al, 2001; Spada, 1997, 2011). As some authors have pointed out, correction in the L1 might not be so crucial, but in the case of the L2, it seems that correction plays a role in acquisition, since the learner's IL, without specific guidance, could fossilize (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

First of all, we need to clarify some terminology. The issue we are dealing with in this study has been termed as error correction, negative evidence (Long, 1991 et passim), corrective feedback (Lyster, 1998 et passim) and negative feedback (Ortega, 2009). We could attribute each of the terms to a different field of research, as Schachter (1991) does. Thus, error correction will belong to the language teaching field, negative evidence will be used by researchers on language acquisition and negative feedback will be part of the field of cognitive psychology. The term we will use in this paper is **corrective feedback (hereafter CF)**, as this term involves both the concept of correction as something intended and not casual as well as the idea of feedback as response to a learner's (erroneous) utterance. Besides, the study and hypothesis motivating the present work contain the term corrective feedback (Lyster & Mori 2006).

Yet, what do we exactly refer to when we talk about CF? Different definitions have been provided but we will stick to the one provided by Yang and Lyster (2010):

*‘Corrective feedback is a reactive type of form-focused instruction which is considered to be effective in promoting noticing and thus conducive to L2 learning’ (p. 237).*

Once defined, we will try to classify the different types of CF. The construct can be classified according to the degree of explicitness it entails. If the correction is explicit/direct teachers explicitly state that the learner’s utterance is wrong, e.g. they provide a metalinguistic explanation of the erroneous structure. On the other hand, if the correction is indirect or implicit learners need to deduce from the evidence that the form of the utterance is responsible for the comprehension problem, e.g. a recast. There have been several **taxonomies** of corrections, and there is discrepancy even in the terminology, so we will follow Ortega’s concept of a continuum where most unobtrusive or implicit feedback is placed at one end, while the most explicit or direct type of feedback rests at the other end. In between we will have different types of corrective moves with more or less explicitness (Ortega, 2009). Figure 3 below features the whole spectrum of types placed in the continuum.



1. Recasts; 2. Clarification Requests; 3. Repetitions; 4. Elicitations; 5. Metalinguistic Clues; 6. Explicit Corrections.

*Figure 3 : Continuum of corrective feedback types on the basis of explicitness*

Examples of the types of feedback moves mentioned above would be the following (2-7):

(2) **Recast**: the teacher reformulates ‘*all or part of the student’s utterance minus the error*’ (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Student: \**And the boy goed to school...* (Error)

**Teacher:** *The boy went to school*

Student: *The boy went to school...* (Repair move)

(3) **Clarification Request**: The teacher prompts a reformulation.

S: \**The boy goed to school...* (Error)

**T:** *What?*

T: *The boy went to school...* (Repair move)

(4) **Repetition**: the teacher repeats the erroneous utterance (generally with rising intonation or in the form of a question).

S: *And the boy \*goed to school...* (Error)

**T:** *The boy goed to school?*

S: *The boy went to school...* (Repair move)

(5) **Elicitation**: The teacher prompts a complete sentence.

S: *The boy\* goed to school...* (Error)

**T:** *The boy..?*

S: *The boy went to school...* (Repair move)

(6) **Metalinguistic clue**: The teacher provides information about the erroneous utterance.

*S: The boy \*goed to school... (Error)*

*T: No, 'go' is an irregular verb*

*S: The boy went to school... (Repair move)*

(7) **Explicit correction**: the teacher clearly states that there has been an error<sup>5</sup>.

*S: And the boy \*goed to school... (Error)*

*T: No, that's not how we say it.*

*S: The boy went to school... (Repair move)*

Besides classifying CF according to the degree of explicitness, Ellis (2009) establishes a difference between the different types of feedback episodes based on the reaction they create on the learner.

Table 1 features the taxonomy Ellis (2009:8) provides:

	IMPLICIT	EXPLICIT
INPUT PROVIDING	Recasts	Explicit correction
OUTPUT PUSHING	Repetition	Metalinguistic explanation
	Clarification request	Elicitation Paralinguistic signals

*Table 1: Types of CF (Ellis 2009)*

The difference between them is mainly informative quality. Input-providing types provide the correct form, thus they are more informative, whereas output-prompting or output-pushing types aim at obtaining self-repair on the part of the learner, just

<sup>5</sup> In other studies, explicit correction is defined as a clear statement of an error and the provision of the target form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). However, we consider that providing the correct form would be a recast, so we have defined explicit correction merely as an indication of the commission of an error.

indicating there has been an error or providing information to help learners to self-correct. These latter types are less informative. The output-pushing corrective moves are what Lyster has termed prompts (Lyster, 2002, 2007; Lyster & Mori, 2006, 2008; Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Prompts are claimed to help learners *'[...] to reanalyze what they have already internalized at some level and may thus contribute to a destabilization of interlanguage forms'* (Lyster 2002: 248). The two types of CF above engage the learner in different cognitive processes; input-providing types make learners use their working memory whereas output-pushing types lead the learner to retrieve information from long-term memory (Yang & Lyster 2010). Consequently, it would be reasonable to think that both types will be beneficial and even complementary for effective learning.

To sum up, there are several types of CF that teachers might use. However, not all of them are used in all contexts; some of them are very often used whereas others appear scarcely in the data collected in classroom observation studies. Besides, the effectiveness of each type of feedback move is still being researched. In the next section we will review the studies that have been conducted up to date on the distribution and the effectiveness of the different types of CF.

### **2.3.1. LITERATURE REVIEW: STUDIES ON CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK**

In this section we will examine previous studies focused on CF. Different variables have been researched: the use of CF on the part of the teachers, the effect these types have on the learners and the influence that the learning context might have on the learners' reaction to CF.

#### *Distribution and types*

Quite frequent occurrences of corrective moves have been found in classrooms: more than 50% of errors, even 90% of them, were provided with CF (Lochtman, 2002;

Panova & Lyster, 2002). Lower rates were found in laboratory studies: about 30% or less of the errors received feedback (Mackey et al, 2003; Oliver, 1995). As far as the **types** of corrective moves are concerned, recasts were the most frequent (Doughty, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Pica et al, 1989, Sheen, 2004). Explicit correction is relatively infrequent (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Mori, 2000) but metalinguistic clues are also quite often present in classroom interaction (Lyster & Mori, 2006).

### *Effectiveness*

The next point that we need to look at in the literature is research on the effectiveness of CF. Researchers have mainly looked at immediate uptake<sup>6</sup> as the signal of effectiveness, although some of them have also conducted delayed post-tests to check a later effect of the treatment (Dekeyser, 1993; Doughty & Varela, 1998). In general, learners' performance has been found to be better after correction (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Russell & Spada, 2006; Spada, 2011) although different results correspond to the different types of correction. On the whole, the more explicit the larger benefit (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada, 2011) and if the learner has opportunities for self-repair, the correction will show more effectiveness (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Explicit feedback and metalinguistic clues have been found to lead to a greater awareness of the gap and they do not intrude in the communication flow (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006). Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that although recasts were the most frequently provided type of feedback, other more explicit types such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition were more effective for negotiation of form as no correct form was provided and the corrective move led to greater repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

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<sup>6</sup> Uptake '[...] refers to a student's utterance which immediately follows the teacher's feedback and which constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance' (Lyster & Ranta, 1997:49).



Similar results were found in a replication of this study by Panova and Lyster (2002), with a different type of instruction. Whereas in Lyster and Ranta (1997) the participants were young learners in a Content Based Language Teaching (CBLT) setting, the replication study conducted by Panova and Lyster (2002) involved adults in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The authors here found that recasts were very often used but uptake was greater with more explicit type of feedback. The authors encourage teachers to find a balance of the different types of CF and use each of them in different cases (Panova & Lyster, 2002). A similar proposal is found in Lyster (2004). The author investigates the effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction for gender. Besides finding that form-focused instruction is clearly effective, the results suggest that prompts are more effective than recasts. However, Lyster does not discard recasts completely but, rather, he suggests a balance between prompts and recasts, taking into account specific features in the students' IL (Lyster, 2004). Even in writing, the results obtained by Sheen (2007) showed that direct corrections with metalinguistic information led to better results in a post-test than direct-only corrections. Both experimental groups did better than the control group.

Other studies have found that uptake is similar responding to the different types of feedback. Lochtman (2002) points out that each type of feedback seems to lead to different learning results such as item learning after the use of recasts or rule learning after metalinguistic clues.

Dabaghi and Basturkmen (2009) look at the effectiveness of explicit and implicit CF in developmental early and late linguistic features<sup>7</sup>. The results showed that explicit feedback was more effective for early features and implicit feedback worked better for late features. Overall, though, they obtained higher scores in the test of those students

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<sup>7</sup> The authors classified features according to whether they were acquired in the first stages of the acquisition process or later, based on other authors' proposals for the acquisition order (Krashen, 1977).

corrected with explicit feedback. In a study looking at effects of CF on implicit and explicit knowledge, Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006), found that metalinguistic explanations worked better than recasts for both types of knowledge. Havranek (2002) looked at the effectiveness of CF as well as at the influence of situational (type of error, length, and communicative focus) and linguistic factors on the results after correction. The post-tests showed that CF facilitates learning and revealed the clear influence of situational and linguistic factors on the participants' responses.

In a recent study, Yang and Lyster (2010) investigated the effects of prompts and recasts in the production of regular and irregular past tense forms. Results showed that the effects of prompts were larger than those of recasts in terms of accuracy in the use of regular past tense forms, whereas prompts and recasts had similar effects on improving accuracy in the use of irregular past tense forms. Overall, prompts were found to be more effective.

Explicit correction seems to be more easily perceived by learners of all levels of proficiency (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

A large number of researchers have looked at variables intervening in the effectiveness of the type of recast. For instance, the **level of L2 proficiency** has been considered as affecting uptake. Ammar and Spada (2006) showed that '[...] *one size does not fit all*', students with higher proficiency level benefited equally from recasts and prompts, but lower proficiency students benefited more from prompts. Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that teachers whose students were more proficient used fewer recasts, showing that teachers somehow know that proficiency affects noticing. Other studies have also found that proficiency level may influence students' ability to perceive teacher feedback (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Philp, 2003). Proficiency is a possible factor leading to uptake because lower-level students cannot locate the errors to be attended to.

Similarly, Carroll, Swain and Roberge (1992) findings suggest that advanced learners use CF more efficiently.

Many studies have been conducted investigating the **age** effect on students' response to CF, with varied results. In a recent meta-analysis, Lyster and Saito (2010) found that younger learners benefit more from CF than older learners. However, in a study conducted by Sheen (2004), more uptake and repair was found to occur in educated adults than children or less-educated adults.

**Language aptitude** has also been studied as having a role in the efficacy of CF (Dekeyser 1993; Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Sheen, 2007), and learners with higher aptitude seem to obtain larger benefits from CF than those who have a lower aptitude.

Another variable that has been considered as playing a role in the response to CF has been the **language feature** involved in the corrective episode (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Harley, 1989; Lightbown & Spada, 1994; Lyster, 1994; White, 1991). Lyster (1998) researched the different types of feedback given to different types of errors. He found that phonological and grammar errors received recasts whereas lexical errors were corrected via negotiation of form. The results showed more repair occurring with negotiation of form in lexical and grammar errors. Phonological errors were repaired in higher proportion with recasts. The author concludes that teachers are on the right track when they use recasts for phonological errors and negotiation of form for lexical errors. He proposes that grammar errors should be corrected via negotiation of form, as this is the type of feedback that seems more effective for uptake in this type of errors (Lyster, 1998). The type of language feature also made a difference in the results of the study conducted by Nabei and Swain (2002): recasts to morphosyntactic errors were less often perceived than recasts to lexical and phonological errors. However, the authors

recognize that in this case uptake might not be enough to measure effectiveness. They claimed that effectiveness depends on discourse content.

Another element that has been analysed has been that of learners' **noticing**. Mackey et al (2000) found that, whereas feedback on phonology and lexis was perceived more accurately, especially when provided in the form of negotiation and combination episodes, morphosyntactic feedback was seldom perceived as being about morphosyntax, especially when provided in the form of recasts.

### *Instructional context: the Counterbalance Hypothesis*

Another variable that has been considered as possibly intervening in the effectiveness of CF is the **instructional context**. Lyster and Mori (2006) looked at the immediate effects (uptake) of explicit correction, recasts and prompts on learner uptake and repair. They chose two learning settings which have a fairly different instructional focus. On the one hand, Japanese immersion classrooms for English-speaking students in the United States. These classrooms were considered to have a more analytic orientation and the focus of the lesson was predominantly on form. On the other hand, French immersion classrooms for English speaking students in Canada with a more experiential orientation and the focus of the lesson generally on meaning or communication and rarely on form.

Results showed more repair from prompts (negotiation of form) in French immersion and from recasts in Japanese immersion. Based on these findings, the authors proposed their **Counterbalance Hypothesis**, which '*... is predicated on the role of attention in L2 learning*' and suggests that the effectiveness of the type of feedback will depend on the predominant communicative orientation of the lesson. The Counterbalance Hypothesis states that:

*‘Instructional activities and interactional feedback that act as a counterbalance to the predominant communicative orientation of a given classroom setting will be more facilitative of interlanguage restructuring than instructional activities and interactional feedback that are congruent with the predominant communicative orientation’* (Lyster & Mori, 2006 p.294).

Thus, students in a class with a main focus on meaning (such as the French immersion program in their study) will obtain more benefit from a more focus-on-form-type of instruction. On the other hand, in those classrooms which are more oriented to form (such as the Japanese immersion classrooms), corrections which focus on meaning will be more effective. According to the authors, if the interventions differ from the predominant orientation, there will be *‘[...] a shift in attentional focus’* as those interventions will be more salient. This salience will consequently result in stronger *‘[...] connections between changes in long-term memory and actual language use’*. (Lyster & Mori, 2006: 294). Therefore, the type of communicative orientation and the correction provided should be balanced in order to be more effective. The most effective CF is that feedback which differs the most from the other instructional activities (Lyster & Mori 2006). Similar results have been found in another very recent meta-analysis by Lyster & Saito (2010) and in the article by Spada (2011).

As we have briefly summarized above, there has been ample research on CF in oral interaction, most of it focusing on the possible factors that might lead to more efficient corrections. The type of teaching methodology (more or less focused on form or meaning) has been the object of some of these studies. In the next section we will summarize the different approaches to teaching languages and explain the two settings involved in the present study.

## 2.4. METHODS OF INSTRUCTION: FROM DRILLING TO CLIL

Since the beginning of the last century, language teaching methodologies have been varied. They have evolved from a Focus-on-forms (FonFs) approach and structural syllabuses such as the Grammar-translation method. Thus, the first L2 teaching methodologies had a FonFs orientation. Afterwards, the reverse perspective was adopted, with a turn to focus on meaning and procedural syllabuses. The Natural Approach and the multiple immersion programs in Canada and other countries in Europe would fit here. Finally, the most recent methodologies have opted for a FonF approach, within a task-based approach (Fotos & Nassaji, 2007) with process syllabuses. Here we can find CLT, Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) or Content Based Language Teaching (CBLT). Thus, new methodologies advocate for an integration of focus on meaning and incidental FonF in the lessons. Probably the best example of this approach is CLIL, where *'a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint role'* (Marsh, 2002: 58).

As we have seen in the previous sections, researchers have extensively explored the type of feedback that teachers provide in second language classrooms as well as the effectiveness of these corrective moves in the students' immediate uptake. Although classes with different type of instruction have been observed, there is one that has been left behind. This is the CLIL type of instruction, which is one of the approaches that are gaining more and more popularity nowadays. A small number of studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of a CLIL type of instruction in the students' IL (Basterrechea & García Mayo, 2011a, 2011b; García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2009; Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2010, 2011; Martínez Adrián & Gutiérrez Mangado,

2009; Villarreal Olaizola & García Mayo, 2009). However, much more research is needed on the effectiveness of this approach (Sierra, Gallardo del Puerto & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2011). A gap in research appears in the type of correction episodes used in these classrooms and whether they are more effective than those taking place in traditional English lessons. It must be taken into account that CLIL is an integration of language and content. Language is important, but it is just one element of the teaching approach, together with content, cognition and culture (Coyle, 2007). This new teaching approach, with scaffolding<sup>8</sup> as its main pillar, must lead to different types of corrective moves on the part of the teachers and different reactions on the students which need to be researched.

Before moving on to the next section, we should offer a brief overview of the notion of CLIL, clearly constrained by space limits in this paper. CLIL is not a methodology but a new view of how to teach a language across the curriculum. Obviously, it derives from the immersion programs in Canada, but, while the immersion programs only considered language as the matter to be taught, CLIL is a holistic vision that includes skills, competences and contents as well. Language is not an end but a means to learn some content. It is not the same as the Content Based Language Teaching (CBLT) an approach used in the US and Europe in the past decades, since in CLIL the language is a tool that teachers and students use to communicate and negotiate, whereas in CBLT language was the target and content was the tool.

Table 2 below shows the differences between traditional FL teaching and CLIL classrooms (Moore, 2009).

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<sup>8</sup> The neo- Vygotskian metaphor of scaffolding refers to those facilitating actions that the tutor or more expert peer brings into the interaction in order to help the novice through their process of internalization (Wood et al., 1976). It is directly linked to the concept of the ZPD proposed by Vygotsky (1978).

FL TEACHING	CLIL
L1 usage as problematic	L1 use not necessarily a problem
Artificial input	Authentic discourse
Focus on language	Focus on content/meaning
Language learners	Language users
Teacher as an authority	Teacher as a guide
Teacher insists on self-correction	Teacher/peers provide recasts

Table 2: *Differences between FL teaching and CLIL* (Moore, 2009: p. 254-255)

CLIL deviates from traditional foreign language (FL) teaching in many aspects, as we have just seen. The role of learners and teachers has changed, language is not an end but a means, the focus of the lesson has moved to content and input as well as pushed output is intended to be authentic. Therefore, CF in this setting might be hypothesized to be different, too. The main motivation in the present study was to observe the differences in the types of feedback provided in each learning context and how this change affects the learners' response to those corrections

In the present study two different instructional settings are compared. On the one hand, a traditional EFL classroom with a focus on language, and which is perceived by the teacher to be a form-focused instruction, as attention to form is given in a meaningful context. On the other hand, a CLIL classroom, with meaning and content as the main basis of the lesson. The findings obtained from the classroom observation procedure we have carried out in order to gather exploratory data are expected to be in line with the predictions put forward in the Counterbalance Hypothesis, as the focus of these two settings is similar to those in Lyster and Mori (2006).

### 3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS



The main aim of the present study is to contribute to the existing literature on CF by exploring the two main concerns of previous researchers, namely: teaching techniques in the form of correction and the effect of these corrections in the learners' uptake. Nevertheless, a new variable has been included: the comparison between a traditional EFL lesson, with a focus more oriented to form, and a CLIL lesson in Business Studies, with a focus clearly oriented to content. The goals are twofold: on the one hand we will compare the two settings in terms of the CF types provided and, on the other hand, we will look at the effect of CF on learners' uptake in the two settings. These are the **research questions** motivating the present study:

- ▶ **RQ1:** What type of feedback do teachers provide to students' errors in oral interaction? Is there a difference between CLIL and EFL lessons as far as type of CF is concerned?

The objective of this question is twofold. On the one hand, we will look at the errors committed and the feedback received to these errors in general. On the other hand, we will make a comparison of the proportion of errors receiving feedback as well as the types of feedback in the two contexts, the CLIL lessons and the English lessons. As reported in the relevant literature, recasts are the most frequent type of feedback. Metalinguistic clues are expected to be quite frequent too. In CLIL classrooms, the focus is on content, so the teacher is expected to correct fewer errors than in EFL lessons. However, language should be integrated in the lesson, so the CLIL teacher will also focus on form occasionally. Correction is predicted to be more implicit in the CLIL classroom and more explicit in the traditional English lesson, on the basis of the focus of the lesson.

- ▶ **RQ2:** How do learners react to implicit and explicit feedback? Do learners show greater awareness of one of the types of correction?

In this case we will look at the immediate uptake shown by the students. This response will be examined from the point of view of the type of feedback provided, trying to elucidate whether some kinds of feedback are more effective than others. According to previous studies, more repair moves are expected with explicit correction due to a greater awareness of those on the part of the learner. This will happen given that a balance in focus takes place. If this is so, the students will experience a '*shift in attentional focus*' (Lyster & Mori, 2006) when the teacher's responses are focused on form more than on meaning or content. Consequently, students' uptake will be larger with more explicit corrections. Obviously, we are referring to immediate uptake and not to long-term improvement in the students' IL. Students' uptake will be studied by focusing on their repair moves.

- ▶ **RQ3:** Does the Counterbalance Hypothesis apply to CLIL and traditional EFL lessons?

The last motivation of this study is to translate the ideas of the Counterbalance Hypothesis (see p. 28 for details of this hypothesis) to the contexts selected for the study. In this sense, a comparison will be made between the students' uptake in each of the contexts, focusing especially on the response to each type of feedback. We will analyse whether the Counterbalance Hypothesis applies in the contexts of this study: a CLIL class with a focus on content and the more form-focused EFL class. On the whole, more repairs are expected in the CLIL lesson due to the salience of grammar corrections.

Therefore, the research questions and predictions in this research paper are related to the error correction episodes occurring in oral interaction. In the next section, the methodology used to answer these questions will be presented.

## **4. THE PRESENT STUDY**

In this section we will describe the method used to answer our research questions, the teacher and students who participated, the data collection procedure and the way we analysed these data.

### **4.1. METHODOLOGY**

The methodology used to examine oral interaction in the two contexts selected was a classroom observation procedure, as usual in this type of descriptive studies (Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). In what follows, we describe the school, teachers and students participating in this study.

The study aims at observing classroom interaction in CLIL and EFL lessons, so the setting chosen had to be a school or university. The idea was that students were the same for both contexts under study. University students were not accessible but a school was thought to be very appropriate too. Secondary or high school students were thought to be more appropriate participants as they are expected to be more fluent than primary school students, since their English level is supposed to be higher.

#### **4.1.1. SCHOOL**

The school selected for the study is a well-known public high school in Bilbao. This school has post-compulsory secondary education students as well as several professional courses. At the post-compulsory secondary education level the school

offers a trilingual program in Spanish, Basque and English with a similar proportion of hours in each of the languages. In order to be admitted to the program students have to pass an English test unless they have attended any kind of trilingual program in compulsory secondary education (ESO) or they have an official certificate of their English level.

#### **4.1.2. TEACHERS**

The school subjects selected for this study were Business Studies and English in the second year of post-compulsory secondary education. Students have four lessons of Business Studies per week and three lessons of English. The length of the lessons is about 55 minutes or 50 in some occasions, depending on the day of the week. The researcher carried out an informal interview to find out about the teachers' practices and preferences concerning CF. Besides, during the data collection procedure, the researcher had the opportunity to talk with the two teachers, who were always collaborative and showed great interest towards studies of the kind. Therefore, we could obtain a great deal of information about the way they organise their lessons. Both teachers are non-native speakers of English, they use English all the time in their lessons but they have different views as far as correction and methodology are concerned.

In the informal interview and later conversations with the researcher, the teacher of Business Studies, an enthusiastic teacher, stated the importance of content over form and of fluency over accuracy. He uses English '*as a tool*' and his aim is that students feel comfortable and confident talking about the content of the subject in English. He admitted not being a very proficient speaker of the language himself so he does not correct pronunciation, although he sometimes tries to correct basic grammar errors as well as lexical errors, mainly those having to do with terminology related to the subject.

He considers that students have a positive attitude towards his corrections and believes that the corrections are effective on the short term due to this positive attitude of the students. However, he would like to have more time and less pressure from the '*Selectividad*' exam (the university entrance examination in Spain), so that he could focus a little bit more on the language and be more consistent with corrections, as he thinks this is the only way they can be effective in the long term, repeating them and with a lot of effort on both parts, teachers and students.

The English teacher is a conscientious and methodical person who was also willing to take part in the experiment and to be informed about the results. In an informal interview and non-scheduled conversations, she acknowledged the essential nature of CF for effective learning. She focuses on those errors which can cause misunderstanding. Thus, she pays especial attention to pronunciation errors but also, depending on the focus of the lesson, she corrects grammar or lexical errors. She usually prefers to correct errors right after the student's utterance, not interrupting them, although in the case of slips-of-the-tongue (mistakes) she stops the student and makes them self-correct. As far as corrective techniques are concerned, she tries to indicate the error (explicit correction) and give the learners some kind of metalinguistic explanation, generally with the aim of allowing students to self-correct (elicitation). She considers her students' attitude to be positive towards correction, showing immediate repair. However, she also believes long-term repair (and subsequent acquisition of the corrected structure) is much more difficult to achieve. She thinks repetition and consistency are essential, along the lines of Dekeyser (2007) and she would like her students to have some knowledge of phonetics, although she recognizes that it is a complex subject. The same as her colleague, she mentions lack of time as well as the

big size of groups as the two main aspects that hinder a more effective correction process.

Therefore, we can see that both teachers recognize the importance of correction for an effective learning, although the main focus of their lessons is a different one. Previous studies on correction have shown this awareness of teachers towards the need of CF (Ferris et al., 1997; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Lee, 2004). In this case, the two teachers differ in their preferences regarding the types of errors corrected and the way to provide these corrections.

#### **4.1.3. STUDENTS**

The 30 participant students belonged to an intact class in the second year of post-compulsory secondary education in the trilingual program. The whole class attended the English lessons but only 18 of these students attended the class of Business Studies. A questionnaire (see Appendixes 1a, 1b) was given to them in order to find out about their personal and linguistic background and the results of such questionnaire will be presented below.

As Table 3 below shows, the students were sixteen to eighteen years old. Seventeen of them were female and thirteen were male. All students but two were born in the province of Biscay, one of them in another neighbouring province of the Basque Country and one of them in another bilingual community in Spain (Catalonia). Therefore, all the students had been raised in bilingual environments, both at a social and educational level, English being their third language (L3). Their mother tongue was Spanish, except for three cases that had Basque as their mother tongue. The parents' mother tongue was also Spanish except for three cases of Basque and two cases where the mother tongues were Catalan and Galician.

QUESTIONS	RESULTS (N=30)
Age	6: 16years old      23: 17 years old      1: 18 years old
Sex	17 female      13 male
Birthplace	28 Biscay      1 Álava      1 Catalonia
Mother tongue	27 Spanish      3 Basque
Parent's mother tongue	25 Spanish      3 Basque      2 Other
Language at home	26 Spanish      4 Basque & Spanish
Languages at school	6 Spanish      11 Spanish & Basque      13Spanish, Basque & English
Languages watching TV or internet	15 Spanish      11 Spanish & Basque      4 Spanish, Basque & English
Trilingual programs	20 Yes      2 One subject in English+ bilingual      8 No
Extra-curricular English lessons	11 No      8 Since Primary      11 Since Secondary
Summer courses abroad	15 No      15 Yes
English important language	0 No      30 Yes
Reasons for studying English	5 Career      7 Social life      18 Career & Social life
Want to be corrected	0 No      30 Yes
Reasons for correction	21 Learn & improve      6 Realize & self-correct      3 Learn & self-correct

Table 3: Results of students' background questionnaire

The language used at home and with friends was mainly Spanish with a few cases of Basque combined with Spanish. However, students showed much more diversity in the use of languages at school or when watching TV or surfing the net. In these contexts, they used Spanish, Basque and English. Most students had attended trilingual programs (Spanish, Basque and English) in primary and secondary education. Since one of the conditions to enter the trilingual program in this school was to have studied in a trilingual program in previous education, these results were expected. However, half of them have not attended extra-curricular lessons of English or summer courses abroad, that is, half of them had only studied in an EFL context, with non-native teachers.

When asked about whether they consider English an important language for their future, all of them answered positively, most of them recognizing the importance that

mastering this language has for their future careers as well as for socializing or travelling.

Finally, all the students showed willingness for being corrected when making errors. Most of them gave the possibility of improving and learning as the reason for the need of correction. Moreover, some students pointed out to the possibility of becoming aware of the error and self-correcting it. Therefore, these students had a positive attitude towards correction and they were able to see the advantages that being corrected has for their language learning process.

Besides filling in the questionnaire, the students completed the Oxford Placement Test (Syndicate, U.C.L.E., 2001) where their English level was assessed. The results of this test showed that the level in the group was quite homogeneous. On the basis of their score in the test, most of them had an intermediate level, either upper or lower, as shown in table 4 below.

<b>LEVEL</b>	<b>n.</b>
ELEMENTARY	2
LOWER INTERMEDIATE	15
UPPER INTERMEDIATE	11
ADVANCED	2

*Table 4: Results of the OPT. Number of students per level.*

Although there are four students who obtained different results from the majority (2 elementary and 2 advanced), and should be considered outliers, we did not exclude them from the analyses. The same as with the answers in the background questionnaire, we included all students in the research because of the limited amount of data obtained in this study. Those students with higher level were especially necessary, as they were more fluent and took part in more frequent interaction moves. This led to their making



more mistakes and, consequently, to being corrected. If we had eliminated the outliers' interventions from the corpus, our data would have been even more limited. As mentioned above, this is an exploratory study, aiming at filling a research gap: the need to carry our research on CF in CLIL classrooms. Our goal is mainly to identify trends and discarding the oral data from those four participants mentioned would clearly make the data more limited.

The students were not told about the specific purpose of the study. They only knew they were being recorded and observed by the researcher on the basis of their oral interaction with the teacher. The idea was that they acted as naturally as possible, in order to obtain authentic results. That is the reason why we did not give the teachers any indication about their provision of feedback or the types of tasks that they had to carry out. The classes were taught by the teachers in the usual way.

As we wanted teachers to maintain their usual classroom development, this decision led to having different types of activities in each of the two contexts analysed, which may be problematic when comparisons need to be established. However, this decision was made on the basis of ecological validity in research, which, on this case, should depict what actually goes on in the two classroom settings.

As far as lesson development is concerned, we should take into account that the contexts in this study were not exactly the same as in Lyster and Mori (2006). The students of French in that study belonged to a FSL classroom, whereas the students in the present study were in an EFL setting. This fact may have some influence on the way these students react to corrections; it seems more logical that, as they are acquiring the language in a formal context, where correction is much more frequent, they might be used to being corrected when using the language. Consequently, their uptake should be

higher than in an ESL context, where the students use the language in natural environments that generally present fewer cases of CF (Crookes & Rulon, 1985; Gaskill, 1980).

#### **4.2. DATA COLLECTION: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION**

A total of seven sessions (six hours and seventeen minutes) were audio-recorded by using four recorders (Olympus DS-5000, DS-65, WS-450S, VN-6800PC) placed in strategic points of the classroom. The researcher sat down at the back of the room taking notes of the verbal and non-verbal language expressed in the interaction as well as the type of activities conducted (See Appendix 2 for observation scheme). The organization of the lesson was reflected in the researcher's notes following the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) scheme (Spada and Fröhlich, 1995) (see Appendix 3 for details).

Three lessons of the Business Studies subject, two consecutive and one non-consecutive class, were selected, in order to cover both the theoretical and the practical aspects of the subject. In the English class four lessons were selected. On Fridays, the 30 students are divided in two groups of 15, so the number of students in each of them was fifteen. We considered these Friday lessons more convenient as the interaction would be greater in these more reduced groups.

#### **4.3. DATA ANALYSIS**

After the classroom observation and the recording procedure finished, the oral data collected after six hours and seventeen minutes of the student-teacher interaction were transcribed using CHILDES conventions (MacWhinney, 1995). Then, a codification system was applied. Different codes were provided for every error

occurrence indicating error type, CF moves indicating types of correction and uptake moves for every type of CF. The CLAN program was used to quantify the occurrences of all these elements, as will be explained in the results section below.

In the present study, the unit of analysis was the corrective feedback episodes (CFEs) based on the error treatment sequence provided in Lyster (1994: 44) and Lyster and Mori (2006: 281).

Figure 4 displays the error treatment sequence:

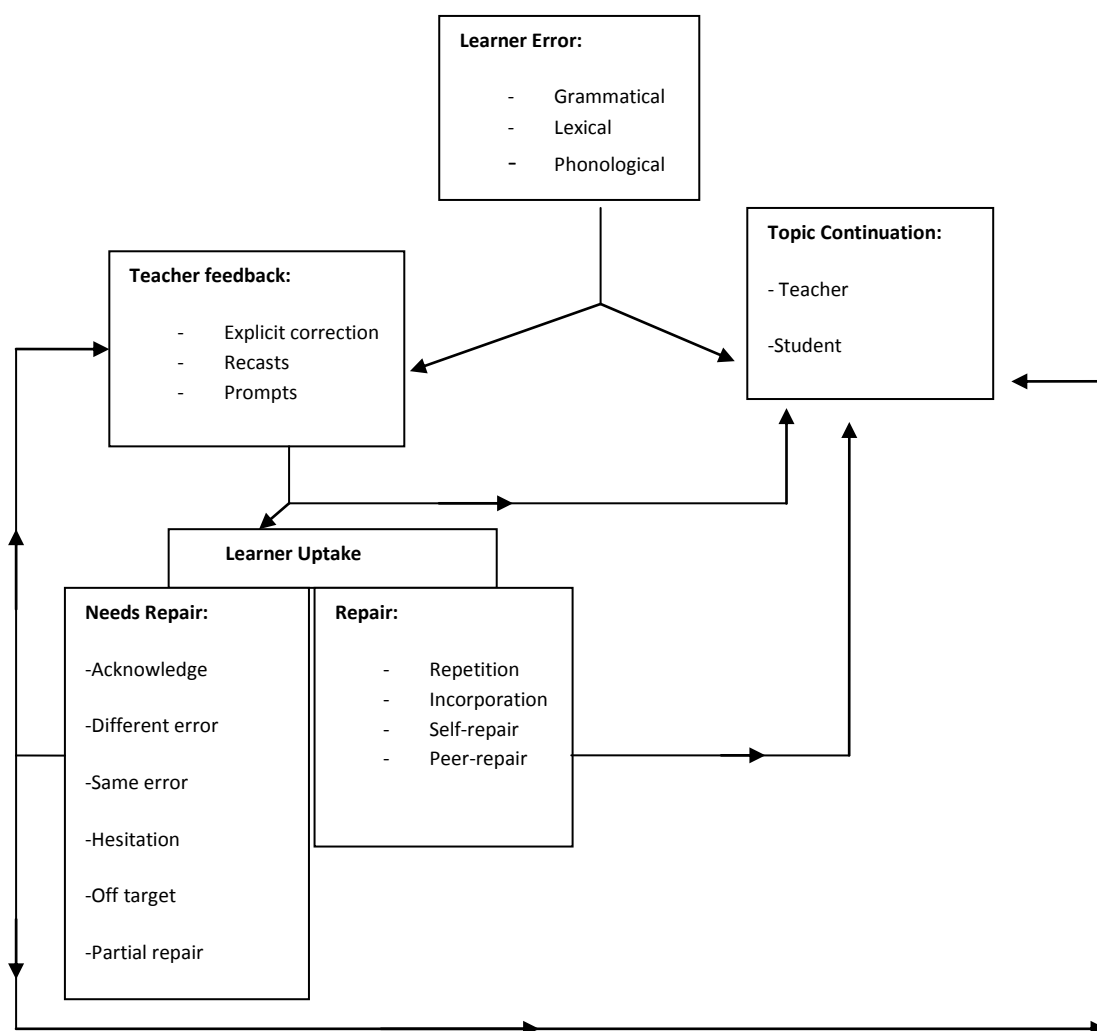


Figure 4: Error treatment sequence (adapted from Lyster & Mori, 2006: 281)

This sequence begins with an erroneous utterance on the student's part. The error will be classified according to its type: grammatical, lexical, phonological and L1 usage,

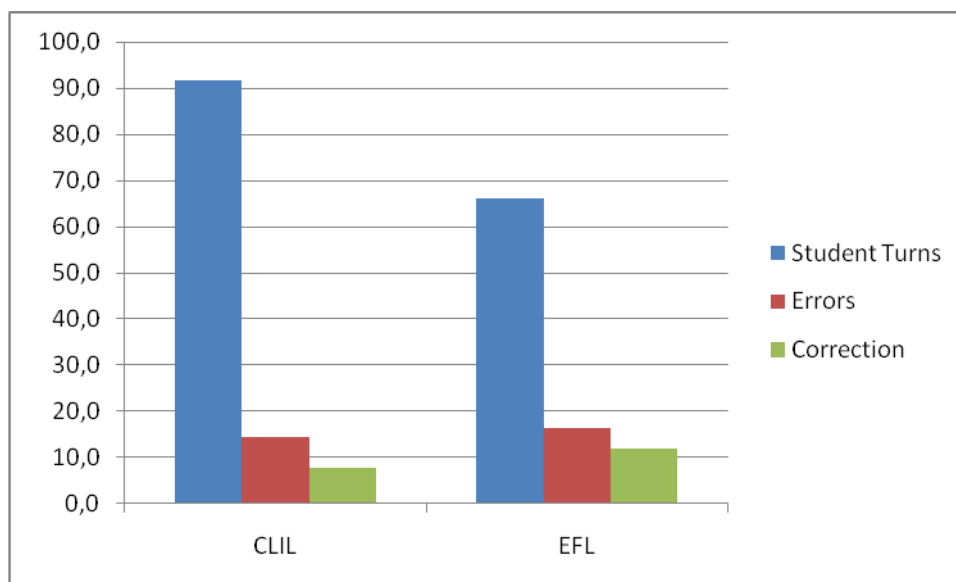
although in this case we did not consider the error type for the present data analysis. In response to this error the teacher can simply ignore it and the topic will continue or he/she may provide some sort of CF. In this study the following feedback types were considered: recast, clarification request, repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic explanation and explicit correction. Definitions and examples of these types were provided in the theoretical background section above (see pages 21-22 in Section 2.3 above). After the feedback move, students might react in two ways: either no uptake occurs and so the topic continues, or there is some kind of uptake. Uptake moves in this study were analysed in a general way for each of the lessons recorded as well as grouped according to the type of feedback they respond to. There may be some problem with the repair-this would be the 'needs repair' situation-, in this case, the teacher can provide further feedback or the topic can continue. In this paper, we have not analysed the 'needs repair' occurrences due to space constraints, but we have explored this situation in the qualitative analysis of the data.

Once the data were collected and codified we proceeded to analyse it from different perspectives and compare these results with previous related studies, especially with Lyster and Mori's (2006) study. In the following sections we will describe these analyses and discuss the results obtained in the light of the predictions we had made based on the literature review.

## **5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The first aspect to be analyzed in the data was the number of students' and teachers' turns. We were interested in examining the proportion of errors in relation to students' turns. After this proportion was obtained, our goal was to study the correction these errors would receive.

Graph 1 below shows these initial results.



*Graph 1: Mean average of students' turns, errors and correction in CLIL and EFL classes.*

The first aspect to be noticed is that the average number of students' turns was higher in the CLIL lessons but the mean number of errors was similar in both contexts. Thus, it seems that the proportion of errors in the CLIL lessons was lower. However, something we have to take into account here is that students in the CLIL lessons were required to read from some copies, and these reading occasions were considered turns, as well as their spontaneous utterances, but of course, the number of errors when reading was smaller. When students were reading they did not commit grammatical or lexical errors, the only possibility of error being of the phonological type. Another problematic aspect here could be that the type of activities in the two classrooms are somehow different, as we allowed the teachers to follow their own criteria in developing the lessons, so we will have to take this into account when we look at the results, and obviously, in future research.

After calculating the proportion of errors committed by the students, we examined the reaction of the teachers to these errors. We expected a high proportion of errors to

be corrected, as other researchers have showed this tendency in previous studies (Lochtman, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002). The proportion of correction seems to be quite high, as expected in a classroom environment. In studies about teachers' preferences as far as correction is concerned, most teachers recognized the importance of correction and FonF (Ferris et al., 1997; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Lee, 2004). On the basis of the proportion of correction these two teachers provide, it seems that these results are in line with previous research.

The second aspect to be noticed in this graph is that the proportion of corrective moves seems to be higher in the EFL lessons. The total percentage of correction is of a 65.1% of the errors, the errors in the EFL lessons received correction in 72.7% of the cases whereas errors in the CLIL context were corrected in 53.5% of the cases. This might be related with the main focus of these lessons, but this matter will be considered in more detail below in section 5.3.

Now we will go back to the research questions that motivated this study and explore the results in relation with the three questions.

The three research questions, stated here for the reader's convenience, were as follows:

- ▶ 1. What type of feedback do teachers provide to students' errors in oral interaction? Is there a difference between CLIL and English language lessons as far as type of CF is concerned?
- ▶ 2. How do learners react to implicit and explicit feedback? Do learners show greater awareness of one of the types of correction?

- ▶ 3. Does the Counterbalance Hypothesis (Lyster & Mori, 2006) apply to CLIL and traditional English lessons?

In the sections below the data obtained will be examined from a quantitative and a qualitative perspective in relation to these three questions.

## 5.1. RESEARCH QUESTION 1

We wanted to explore the types of feedback provided in order to answer Research Question 1. The types were ordered according to the degree of explicitness, so Recasts were located on one end of the continuum and Explicit Correction on the other end as shown in figure 5 below. The types in middle positions (clarification requests, repetition, elicitation and metalinguistic clues) have been referred to as prompts in previous research, as they all *'push learners to self-repair'* (Lyster & Mori, 2006: 271). However, we have separated them here as we consider that the type of response they motivate can be varied. Besides, in their 2006 study Lyster and Mori studied the difference of provision of and uptake to recast versus prompts whereas in this study we are interested in examining the provision and uptake of each of the types and see if the general trend is towards one or the other end of the continuum.

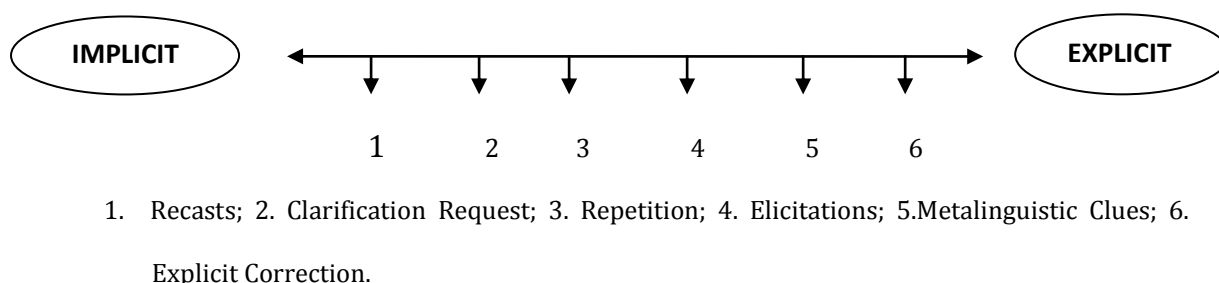
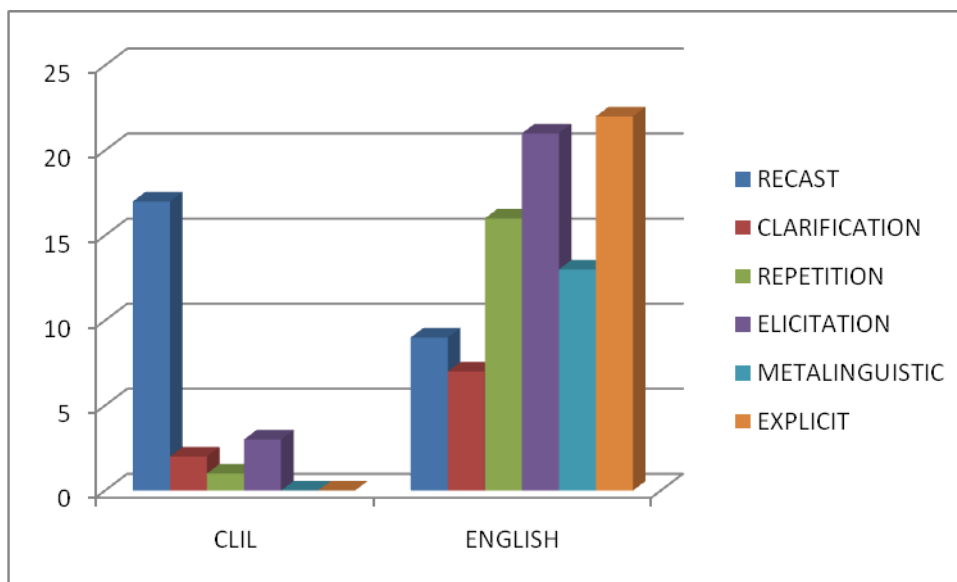


Figure 5: Continuum of the types of corrective feedback in order of explicitness.

Therefore, in order to answer the first research question we computed the number of occurrences of each type of error correction technique in both contexts. We expected

recasts to be the most frequent type of feedback, as was in the studies reviewed in the literature section above (Doughty, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Pica et al, 1989, Sheen, 2004). Furthermore, we expected a considerable number of metalinguistic clues as in Lyster and Mori's (2006) study. On the other hand, we expected rare occurrences of explicit correction, as previous researchers have found (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Mori, 2000). Furthermore, the EFL lesson was expected to contain more explicit types of correction as it was a form-focused type of classroom. On the other hand, clarification requests, elicitations and repetitions were also expected to be more frequent (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Mori, 2006).

Graph 2 below shows that correction techniques were varied in EFL lessons, whereas in CLIL lessons most of the corrective moves were of the recast type.



Graph 2: Types of feedback moves in CLIL and EFL lessons

It also seems that correction moves in EFL lessons tend to be more explicit than in CLIL, where correction was provided in a more implicit way. These results are in line with those in Lyster and Mori (2006) study, where the teacher in the Japanese context provided more explicit correction due to the focus of the lesson, more oriented to form.



Similarly, the researchers also found more occurrences of implicit correction in the more meaning-focused lessons that took place in the French immersion context. These findings seem to be in line with ours as well. What the present study contributes with is that we have observed a CLIL lesson which is clearly more oriented to content than any type of EFL or ESL classroom (Coyle, 2007). This is probably the reason why the teacher in our CLIL classroom nearly exclusively offers implicit correction.

Another contribution to the topic of CF is the type of feedback that the EFL teacher in our study provides, which is, in most cases, a combination of types. This idea appeared already in Lyster and Ranta (1997) and was termed ‘multiple feedback’. This combined correction is much richer than using a specific type of feedback, as it brings students’ attention to the errors in different ways, which clearly shows the orientation of the lesson towards form. The teacher in our EFL context was very concerned with accuracy, and these feedback moves of a combined type are a clear reflection of it. What is interesting now is to know whether the combination of feedback was more effective than the implicit correction that the teacher in CLIL provided. We address this issue in the next research question.

Considering the data presented in Graph 2, it seems that the predictions for RQ1 are fulfilled, that is, the types of feedback provided were different for each of the contexts. However, we carried out statistical analyses in order to check whether these differences between the two contexts were significant or not. Individual ANOVA analyses were performed to see if there was an effect of the context in the use of each of the types of feedback.

Table 5 features the results for each type of feedback:

Feedback type	F-statistic	p-value	Context effect
RECASTS	2.45	0.172	NO
CLARIFICATION REQUESTS	2.94	0.147	NO
REPETITION	7.55	0.04	YES
ELICITATION	3.46	0.122	NO
METALINGUISTIC INFO	5.51	0.066	NO
EXPLICIT CORRECTION	27	0.003	YES

Table 5: ANOVA results for context effect on use of feedback types

Therefore, the two teachers only use repetition and explicit correction moves in a significantly different way. The conclusion would be that, as predicted in the literature, recasts are the most frequent type of correction no matter the classroom orientation, as it is considered to be the less intrusive type of feedback in the flow of communication. Besides, the EFL teacher seems to be more form-oriented as she uses more explicit types of correction as well as a combination of types. On the other hand, the teacher in CLIL lessons follows a content-focused orientation, providing feedback only in an implicit way and not using metalinguistic explanations or explicit correction. Nevertheless, we have to take into account that these differences are not significant so we should be careful when generalizing the findings.

One of the reasons for this lack of significant results might be that the number of feedback moves is small, due to the limited number of lessons recorded. Maybe these results would be significantly different if the amount of data were greater. This should be explored in further research, as it seems interesting that, at least in this case, there seems to be a difference between the two teachers in spite of the fact that we cannot apply these differences to other contexts.

Once we have looked at the types of feedback provided in each of the classrooms from a quantitative point of view, we can see that the results are not really robust, so will proceed now to examine the different examples of CF from a qualitative perspective.

In the CLIL context the most frequent (and nearly the only one) type of feedback move was the recast type. That is why most of the examples of CF that are included in this paper will be of this type of correction when we are addressing this context. Consider example (8):

(8) **Student:** *who is their \*immediat line manager.*

**Teacher:** *immediate [RC]*

Here we can see that the teacher interrupts the student as she is speaking, to correct a pronunciation error with a recast.

As far as the EFL lessons are concerned, feedback provision was very different, as Example (9) shows how the teacher uses different types of CF moves (numbers in parentheses indicate each type of CF type, which is explained afterwards):

- (9) **Student:**....*instead of using the speech and rhyme to express meaning \*singers use their hands in fact anything that can be expressed through spoken language can also be expressed through \*sing language.*

**Teacher:** *What was the problem with their speech? There was a very big problem*

(1) [EC]....*No it was this* (Teacher writes the word 'sign' on the whiteboard (2) [RC] *that their text was about sign language* (3) [RC] *and they invented a language: 'singers were singing the language'* (4) [RpC] *and you could see a person who wasn't singing at all, right? She was moving her hands! Be careful! Some pronunciation mistakes stop communication altogether!* (5) [MC] *How do you say this?* (6) [EIC]

**Students:** *sign!* [EIR]

**Teacher:** *sign and remember that the g should be omitted it's a silent letter in English* (7) [MC] *so sign language, right? And you don't say singer* (8) [EC], *say* (She writes the word 'signer' on the whiteboard) *signer sign language signer* (9) [RC].

In this CF episode, we can see the difference between both teachers: While the CLIL teacher just provides a reformulation and tries not to interrupt the student's idea, the EFL teacher waits until the student has finished his utterance and so some time is devoted exclusively to the provision of CF. We can also notice that the teacher does not use one type of feedback but a combination of types:

- (1) Explicit correction
- (2) Recast (written feedback)
- (3) Recast
- (4) Repetition

- (5) Metalinguistic clues
- (6) Elicitation
- (7) Metalinguistic clues
- (8) Explicit correction
- (9) Recast (written feedback)

So the teacher uses nearly the whole spectrum of CF types, even after the students' peer-repair, she offers metalinguistic information and repeats the recasting of the word's pronunciation. We can also notice that she uses this strategy with the idea of bringing students' attention to the error and to try to provoke peer-repair. The teacher is concerned with students paying attention to form occasionally, especially as far as pronunciation is concerned, and she uses the combination of methods to emphasize the importance of accuracy for communication.

After this episode, in the same EFL lesson, we can see example (10) when a clarification request occurs with the same error:

- (10) **Student:** *\*sing language...*  
**Teacher:** *eh?[CC]*  
**Teacher:** *sign [CR] languages are not...*

Thus, in this case, the teacher only needs to provide a clarification request for the student to realize and correct it. This may be due to the fact that a lot of feedback was provided for the same error a few minutes earlier. However, the fact that the student makes the same error right after all those corrective moves seems to suggest that corrections are not very effective, at least in the short term.

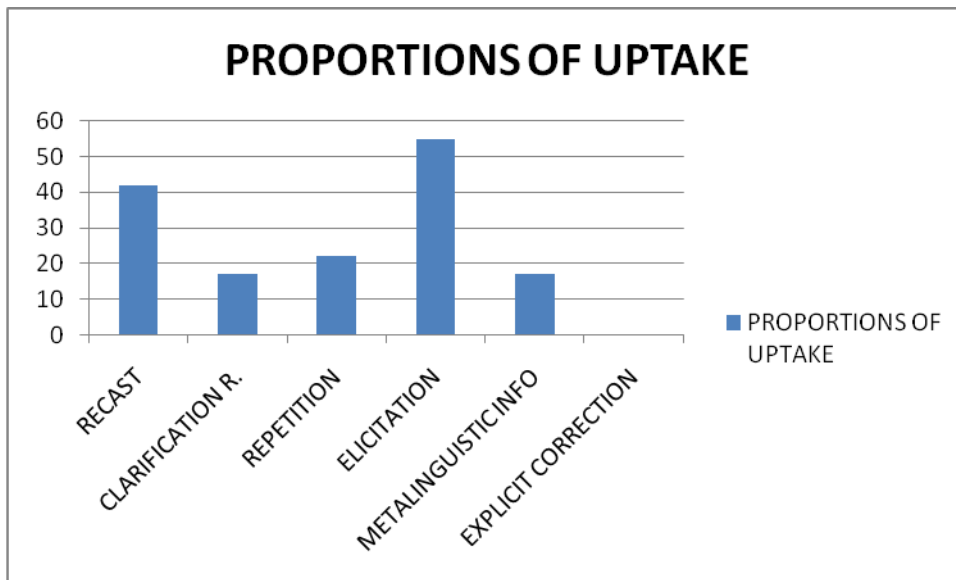
As we can see in these examples, the manner of providing CF differs notably from one teacher to the other one. All in all, we should keep in mind that the differences do not necessarily be of application to other contexts, as quantitative results has proved to be not significant statistically.

Once having analysed CF types from a quantitative and qualitative perspective, we will proceed to see the uptake or response that these CF had on the students.

## **5.2. RESEARCH QUESTION 2**

The second research question aims at exploring the reaction that students have towards the different types of feedback. Previous studies reviewed above section show a tendency for further uptake in more explicit types of feedback (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada 1997, 2011), such as explicit correction or metalinguistic explanations (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Lyster, 2004; Panova & Lyster, 2002) and especially to those which offer opportunity for self-repair, such as elicitation or clarification requests (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Mori, 2006). This is what we expected to find in our case. Greater uptake was expected in those corrective moves provided in a more explicit way, and the greatest uptake was predicted to occur with those moves that lead to self or peer-repair, that is, when the correct form is not provided.

We first looked at the proportion of uptake moves to the different types of feedback. Graph 3 below shows the comparison among these proportions.



Graph 3: Proportion of students' uptake to the different types of feedback

Unexpectedly, students' uptake to the different types of feedback did not coincide with the one reported in the literature. We can see that the types of feedback that triggered greater uptake were recasts and elicitation, that is, the most implicit one (recast) was the second in receiving the highest proportion of uptake. Moreover, the most explicit types (metalinguistic information and explicit correction) receive the lowest proportions of uptake. Therefore, it seems that in our study students did not behave in the same way as in other contexts. However, we wanted to find out if these results were significant in any way.

Therefore, we carried out a binomial contrast of one proportion test conditioned to the value of the other variable. The samples were dependent, as they were from the same students, so we needed to look at the proportions of uptake for each type of CF and check if they were significantly different among them. This way we would see if the students reacted in a significantly different way to the different types of feedback.

Table 6 features p-values obtained for this test:

Feedback types	p-values	SIGNIFICANT
RECAST-CLARIFICATION	0.82	NO
RECAST-REPETITION	0.013	YES
RECAST-ELICITATION	0.007	YES
RECAST-METALINGUISTIC	0.0004	YES
EXPLICIT-CLARIFICATION	0.00004	YES
EXPLICIT-REPETITION	0.014	YES
EXPLICIT-ELICITATION	0.018	YES
EXPLICIT-RECAST	0.00008	YES
EXPLICIT-METALINGUISTIC	0.04	YES
CLARIFICATION-REPET.	0.1	NO
CLARIFICATION-METALING.	0.02	YES
CLARIFICATION-ELICIT.	0.019	YES
REPETITION-ELICITATION	0.88	NO
REPETITION-METALING.	0.52	NO
ELICITATION-METALING.	0.58	NO

Table 6: Results of statistical analysis of differences of uptake to the different types of feedback

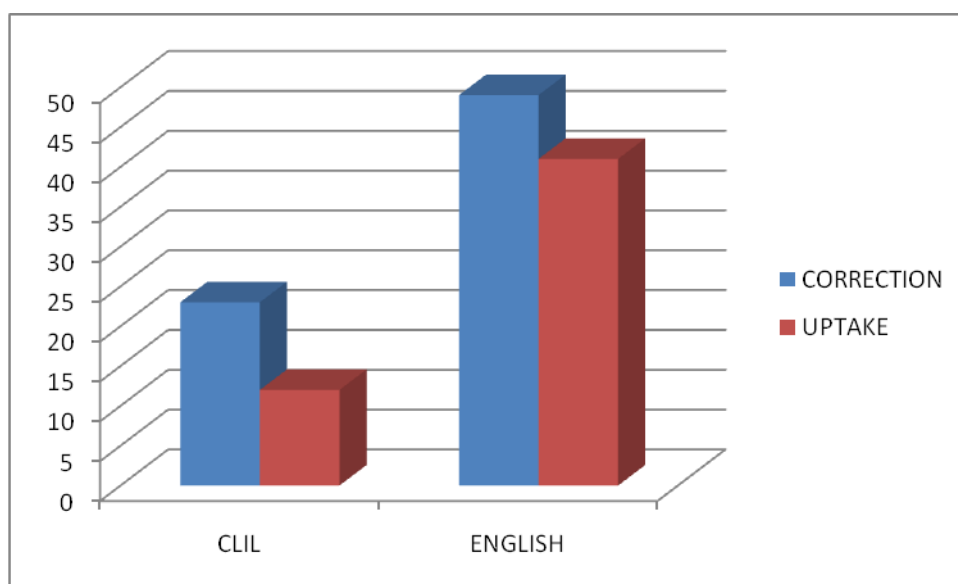
As we can see in Table 6, there are significant differences among students' uptake to the more implicit and to the more explicit types. Nevertheless, the differences did not turn out to be the way we expected them to be. The literature predicted greater uptake to more explicit types, and in our case it is just the opposite. It seems that in our context students behave in a different way from those in other contexts, so our predictions for the second question are not fulfilled.

One reason for this difference in the results might be again the limited number of data collected. Nevertheless, we will see the reasons for this difference if we look at students' uptake in more detail, as we will in the next section.



### 5.3. RESEARCH QUESTION 3

This research question addressed the issue of whether the context influenced uptake and, if it did, in which way the students' behaviour was different. First, we looked at students' uptake in general in the two contexts (see graph 4 below). We can see that, although correction is much more frequent in EFL lessons, the proportion of uptake was similar.

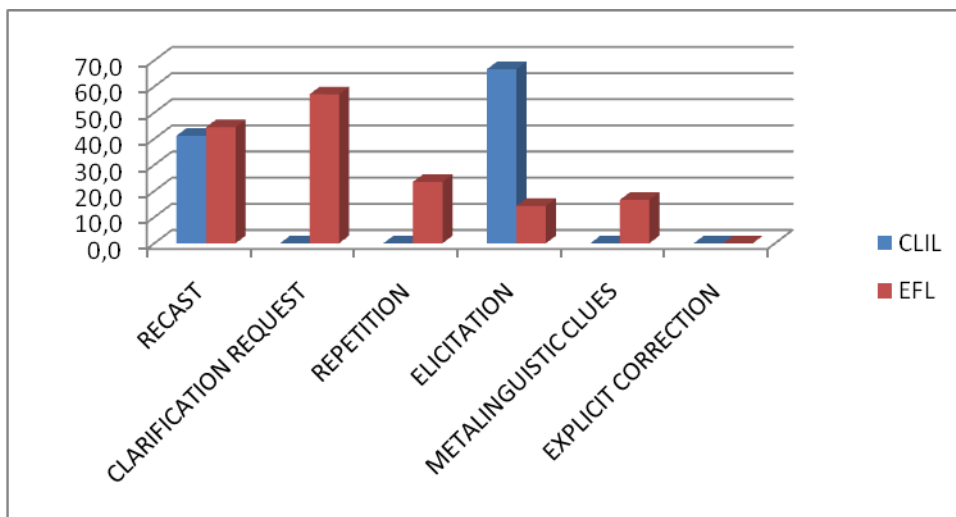


Graph 4: Proportion of corrective moves and students' uptake moves.

However, we were interested in the differences among the different types of feedback. Therefore, proportions were calculated<sup>9</sup> to compare uptake to each type in CLIL and EFL. Graph 5 below shows the results of these calculations. There we can see that some feedback types have no uptake at all in the CLIL context, and that the proportion of uptake to recasts was similar whereas response to elicitation moves was very different apparently.

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<sup>9</sup> The proportions of uptake to each type were calculated taking into account the amount of correction.



Graph 5: Proportion of uptake to the different types of feedback in each context.

We wanted to explore whether there was an effect of the context in the uptake proportion to each type of feedback. Therefore, we carried out an ANOVA analysis. The results of this test were  $F=0.34$  and  $p\text{-value}=0.575$ . Consequently, we see that there was no significant difference between the proportions of uptake to each of the feedback types in the CLIL and EFL lessons. These findings, therefore, do not seem to support the Counterbalance Hypothesis.

One of the reasons for this finding is that the contexts analysed here are not exactly the same as in Lyster and Mori (2006). Although we have a setting which is more oriented to form (the EFL lesson here and the Japanese immersion classroom in Lyster and Mori's study) and another context more oriented to meaning or content (CLIL lesson here and French immersion in Lyster and Mori 2006), some differences exist between the contexts here and in Lyster and Mori's (2006) study. First, our CLIL context is oriented to content in a different way from the French immersion classroom. In CLIL there is a balance between content and language. Thus, language is not only part of the lesson but the tool to develop content (Coyle, 2007). Besides, we have to take into account that the students in our contexts were enrolled in their final high-

school level, previous to entering the university and they have to prepare a university entrance exam. This might be the reason why both teachers, especially the EFL one, focus on specific features and error types that might not be so important in a general English course.

Bearing in mind that the settings were somehow different and the fact that we have obtained negative results compared with previous studies we will analyze these data from a more qualitative perspective and see how correction and uptake work in the specific context of our study.

Looking at Graph 5 above, we can see that the proportion of uptake varied. Uptake was higher to recasts in both contexts and to clarification requests and elicitations in EFL and CLIL, respectively. Besides, as some of the types were used just once or not used at all, obviously there is no uptake for them. Therefore, we shall concentrate on those which were actually used in the contexts of our study.

On the one hand, recasts, which were frequently used in both contexts, obtained a similar proportion of uptake. As we can see the proportion of uptake is not very high, and this could be due to different reasons. One of them could be the lack of explicitness of this type of CF, which might stop students' noticing them. Another reason can be that the focus on meaning of the activities might be restricting students' attention to form, and so, they do not capture the corrective nature of the reformulation. This all has to do with the lack of salience that recasts have been found to have (Carroll, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Schachter, 1981).

In the CLIL lessons, nearly all corrections were recasts, but not all corrective moves were given in such a way that students had opportunities for repair. We can see this in example (11) below:

(11) RECAST

**Student:** *the value that it has when the company start\*.*

**Teacher:** *ok when the company starts [RC] and do you remember that in order to calculate we have a simple formula ok? it is...?(addressing a student) Do you remember?*

**Student:** *eh eh xxx [NU].*

(No option for the student to respond to the recast, as the teacher makes a question to another student immediately after the correction).

As we can see in example (11) above, the teacher in some occasions kept on talking and the student corrected in that turn had no option to repeat the reformulated utterances. In other cases, the teacher interrupted the student with a recast but did not add any further information, thus allowing the student to repair the error and continue his/her speech. These cases of recast with uptake occurred mainly when students were reading aloud from some photocopies, as in example (12) below:

(12) RECAST

**Student:** (reading aloud from copies) *...who is their immediate\* line manager.*

**Teacher:** *immediate [RC]*

**Student:** *immediate [RR] line manager.*

In other cases, students are more focused on meaning and do not pay attention to recasts, as in examples (13) and (14) below, which is part of a negotiation of meaning episode about the word '*Limited*' :

(13) RECAST

**Student:** *yes, limited is when you can lose something or the money that you have invest\*...*

**Teacher:** *that you have invested invested [RC].*

**Student:** *and unlimited when you lose the personal wealth [NU].*

Similarly, in example (14) below where we can see students do not pay attention to the correction as they are also engaged in a negotiation of meaning episode.

(14) RECAST

**Student:** *and taking into account other xxx the rest of the people that is\* under the control of xxx that is under your control?*

**Teacher:** *yes yes I mean no normally here you take into account the people that are [RC] under your control.*

**Student:** *the span of control [NU]...* (More focused on the meaning: “span of control”)

In the EFL classroom, as we saw above, the teacher used a combination of methods in most cases. That is why it seems that recasts were not always effective, as students had no opportunity for repair until the teacher finished offering her feedback. Let us illustrate this with Example (15):

(15) RECAST+EXPLICIT CORRECTION

**Student:** *the awards presentation ceremony which is celebrated xxx many artists perform xxx popular televeesed\* xxx.*

**Teacher:** *televised* [RC] *no televeesed* [EC] *televised, right, yes, so we have got that, yes, so, what do we know about it? In general what, the adjective they use to talk about the....*

The teacher continues talking so there is no option for repair. However, a couple of minutes later another student makes the same error, illustrated in example (16):

(16) RECAST (Same error)

**Student:** *in the annual awards presentation is a televeesed\* performance.*

**Teacher:** *televised!* [RC].

**Student:** *televised* [RR] *in which many artists do their best.*

So we can see that recasts in this case work, but only after the error is corrected several times.

On the other hand, we have elicitation, a quite explicit type of feedback. It was included in the category of ‘prompts’ in Lyster and Mori’s (2006) study, as they considered it to be one of the types which triggered students’ self-repair included in this category. There we can find repetition, clarification request, metalinguistic clues and elicitation. Of course, this category includes types with different degrees of explicitness, but they all have in common their output-pushing quality (Ellis, 2009). In our study elicitation was hardly ever used in the CLIL lessons. However, this type rendered a very high proportion of uptake, which goes in line with Lyster and Mori’s (2006) study: prompts obtained greater uptake in the more content-oriented lessons than in the more form-focused ones. In our case we can see that elicitation in the EFL lessons obtained a small proportion of uptake, which is somehow coherent with the Counterbalance Hypothesis, the same as the fact that explicit correction and metalinguistic clues

obtained a very small proportion of uptake. We can see this in examples (17) to (20) below:

(17) ELICITATION IN CLIL

**Student:** *yes el proceso\**.

**Teacher:** *try in English [ElC] because we are...*

**Student:** *it is the process [ElR] where the machines do the work more...*

EXAMPLES IN THE EFL CLASSROOM:

In example (18) below, we can see that the teacher uses several types of methods, numbered 1 to 5. As repetition and elicitation are inefficient, she has to provide metalinguistic information, and eventually, once the student has realized of the error but cannot repair it by himself, she provides a recast, offering the correct form. Nevertheless, we cannot be sure that this last type is the only one that triggers response, maybe after the use of the other three types, the student finally becomes aware.

(18) COMBINATION OF CF TYPES IN EFL

**Student:** *he admait\* he didn't know* (after the whole activity is corrected, she focuses on the errors)

**Teacher:** *and some things Monica when you say I heard this admait [RpC] (1) but you didn't mean this at the beginning you meant [ElC](2)?*

**Student:** *eh [NU]...*

**Teacher:** *how do you say this [ElC] (3)?*

**Student:** *admait [NR].*

**Teacher:** *no you have a double consonant here admit but it's not a present [MC]*

*(4) so...*

**Student:** *admit [MR].*

**Teacher:** *make it past [MC] (5) cause can you say it no you have to say admitted [RC] and say it.*

**Student:** *admittd\* [NR].*

**Teacher:** *admitted [RC] (6).*

**Student:** *admitted [RR].*

**Teacher:** *ok, admitted*

(1) Repetition

(2) Elicitation

(3) Elicitation

(4) Metalinguistic clues

(5) Metalinguistic clues

(6) Recast

In example (19) we can see another instance of the combination of types for the same error in the other group of EFL.

(19) **Student:** *a singer\* who uses British sign language may even not be able...*

(The student finishes reading and they start correcting some activities about the text and after a couple of minutes teacher corrects the errors)



**Teacher:** *you read very well but anyway you made a little mistake the first time and then you corrected in the second one [EC] (1) when you said the first one the first time this word (writes on white board) in fact you said something like this right (writes) [RpC](2) something similar what's the difference in English in the second the second time what did she say [ElC](3)?*

**Student:** *sign [ElR].*

(1)Explicit

(2)Repetition

(3)Elicitation

They respond to the elicitation but actually we do not really know which of the three corrective moves would trigger their response if used independently.

Therefore, as we have seen in examples (18) and (19) above, in the EFL classroom the types of correction and the manner of combining them are not identical to other studies, where types were provided in a more individual way, one at a time, and where uptake was clearly originated (or not) by the type of correction involved in each case. This difference in the use of CF types in our study might be one of the reasons why our results are opposite to other results in previous studies.

Moreover, we must take into account that uptake in our case was limited by the teachers themselves. On the one hand, the CLIL teacher, more concerned with content than with accuracy, did not allow students to repair in many occasions, as shown in example (20).

## (20) RECAST IN CLIL

**Student:** ... *ok but it's time and money for the... for Moscú\* that wants to do ...*

**Teacher:** ....*I will not talk with the major of Moscow [RC] in order to tell ah him about.....* (No opportunity for uptake)

On the other hand, the EFL teacher, very much concerned with accuracy, tried to offer all kinds of feedback so that students could really understand and remember the error. Although results suggest that uptake was low, actually most of the errors addressed obtained uptake. The conclusion is that correction was focused on certain errors, which received combined feedback as we have seen in examples (15), (18) y (19) above.

Summing up, these different manners of providing feedback may account for the difference in the results that we have found in the quantitative analyses of the students' uptake. In the next section we will conclude by reviewing all these interpretations and possible implications of these results, as well as pointing out the limitations that might have contributed to these differences too.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

The goal of this paper was to investigate the use and effects of CF in oral interaction in two different settings: a CLIL classroom and a more form-oriented classroom (EFL). The purpose was to examine the types of feedback provided in each of the contexts and to consider whether there was a context effect for CF provision and students' uptake. The present paper was inspired by the Counterbalance Hypothesis

(Lyster & Mori, 2006), and we intended to check whether it could be applicable to our learning contexts.

In order to compare both contexts we recorded and observed a total of seven lessons. The total recording time amounted to six hours and seventeen minutes (see Appendix 4 for recording details). Then, the data were transcribed and analysed according to the three research questions we wanted to answer, using corrective feedback episodes (CFEs) as the unit of analysis.

Results obtained from the classroom observation procedure indicate that there are differences in the types, quantity and manner of provision of CF between the two classroom contexts. However, the differences are not statistically significant, so these results cannot be generalized. The analyses for the first research question revealed no significant differences in the manner these two teachers provided feedback. The second research question aimed at exploring differences in the students' response to the different types of CF. These differences did not turn to be significant in general, although there were significant differences among the most implicit and explicit types. Moreover, results for the third research question show that the Counterbalance Hypothesis does not illuminate these results, as students do not have a significant different uptake according to the general orientation of the lesson.

The reasons for these quantitative results can be explained by examining the data in more detail from a qualitative perspective. We can see the different behaviour of the teachers towards CF, which in turn influences students' uptake (or absence of it). In addition to this, we have to take into account the differences between our EFL context and the Japanese context in Lyster and Mori's (2006) study, ours being a more content-focused one, and the different quality of our CLIL lessons and Lyster and Mori's French

immersion lessons. These differences in the settings might account for the different results obtained.

We cannot ignore that one of the possible reasons why our results are not in line with previous literature on CF is the limited number of observations we collected. Possibly, if we had included more data, statistics would have been robust. This is not the only limitation in this paper, although we could say it is the main one. The second one would be that the teachers' different teaching styles might be influencing the results. The third limitation is one that has been acknowledged in many studies of the kind: effectiveness has been based on students' immediate uptake. However, long-term acquisition should be looked at, in order to examine the real benefit of CF on students' IL. Another limitation is that we have only looked at oral correction, when maybe written feedback that students in these contexts receive should be examined, as Ortega proposes (Ortega, 2011).

Therefore, in our future research these shortcomings will be taken into account. Thus, we plan to increase the number of participants (both teachers and students). Also there will be a larger number of classrooms observed and lessons recorded, which will allow us to identify the type of CF offered and analyse its types in a more detailed and reliable fashion. We also plan to create a corpus of explicitness inherent to each type of practice. Besides, we plan to study EFL and CLIL classrooms, as both types of settings are in need of further research on CF.

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## APPENDIXES

### 1A. Questionnaire (Basque)

#### GALDETEGIA

1. Izena eta abizenak:  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Sexua: G  E
3. Adina: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Jaiotze data: \_\_\_\_\_
5. Jaioterria: \_\_\_\_\_
6. Nazionalitatea: \_\_\_\_\_
7. Zein da zure ama hizkuntza? \_\_\_\_\_
8. Amaren ama hizkuntza: \_\_\_\_\_
9. Aitaren ama hizkuntza: \_\_\_\_\_
10. Ondorengo tokietan erabiltzen dituzun hizkuntzak:
  - etxean: \_\_\_\_\_
  - familiarekin (aitite-amama/osaba-izeko/lehengusu-lehengusina):  
\_\_\_\_\_
  - ikastetxean: \_\_\_\_\_
  - lagunekin: \_\_\_\_\_
  - \*telebista ikusterakoan: \_\_\_\_\_
  - \*interneten: \_\_\_\_\_
11. Zein beste hizkuntzetan dakizu
  - irakurtzen: \_\_\_\_\_
  - hitz egiten: \_\_\_\_\_
  - idazten: \_\_\_\_\_
12. Ingeleseko eskoletara joan al zara ikastetxetik kanpo?  
Zure erantzuna baiezkoa bada, zehaz ezazu:

Noiztik: \_\_\_\_\_

Zenbat ordu astero: \_\_\_\_\_

13. Egon al zara inoiz ingelesez egiten den herrialde batean? Bai  Ez

Zure erantzuna baiezkoa bada, zehaz ezazu:

Noiz: \_\_\_\_\_

Non: \_\_\_\_\_

Zenbat denbora: \_\_\_\_\_

Interkanbioko programaren batean hartu al zenuen parte zure egonaldian? \_\_\_\_\_

Ingelesezko eskoletara joan al zinen zure egonaldian? \_\_\_\_\_

14. Joan al zara inoiz ingelesez hitz egiten den udalekuetara? Bai  Ez

Zure erantzuna baiezkoa bada, zehaz ezazu:

Noiz: \_\_\_\_\_

Non: \_\_\_\_\_

Zenbat denbora: \_\_\_\_\_

15. Zure ustez, ingelesa garrantzitsua da zure etorkizunerako? Zergatik?

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16. Akatsak egiten dituzunean, irakasleak zuzentzea nahiago duzu? Zergatik?

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MILA ESKER ZURE LANGUNTZAGATIK!!

## **1B. Questionnaire (Spanish)**

### **CUESTIONARIO**

1. Nombre y Apellidos: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Sexo: H  M
3. Edad: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Fecha de nacimiento: \_\_\_\_\_
8. Lugar de nacimiento: \_\_\_\_\_
9. Nacionalidad: \_\_\_\_\_
10. ¿Cuál es tu lengua materna? \_\_\_\_\_
8. Lengua materna de tu madre: \_\_\_\_\_
9. Lengua materna de tu padre: \_\_\_\_\_
10. Lenguas que utilizas en las siguientes situaciones:
  - en casa: \_\_\_\_\_
  - con la familia (abuelos/tíos/primos):  
\_\_\_\_\_
  - en el colegio: \_\_\_\_\_
  - con los amigos: \_\_\_\_\_
  - \*viendo la tele: \_\_\_\_\_
  - \*en internet: \_\_\_\_\_
11. Otras lenguas que sabes:
  - leer: \_\_\_\_\_
  - hablar: \_\_\_\_\_
  - escribir: \_\_\_\_\_
12. ¿Has cursado asignaturas en inglés durante la educación primaria y secundaria?  
¿Cuáles? \_\_\_\_\_

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13. ¿Has ido a clases de inglés fuera del colegio?

Si tu respuesta es sí, especifica:

Desde cuándo: \_\_\_\_\_

Cuántas horas a la semana: \_\_\_\_\_

14. ¿Has estado alguna vez en un país de habla inglesa? Sí  No

Si tu respuesta es sí, especifica:

Cuándo: \_\_\_\_\_

Dónde: \_\_\_\_\_

Cuánto tiempo: \_\_\_\_\_

¿Tenías clases de inglés durante tu estancia? \_\_\_\_\_

15. ¿Has ido alguna vez a un curso de verano en inglés? Sí  No

Si tu respuesta es sí, especifica:

Cuándo: \_\_\_\_\_

Dónde: \_\_\_\_\_

Cuánto tiempo: \_\_\_\_\_

16. ¿En tu opinión, ¿el inglés es necesario para tu futuro? ¿Por qué?

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17. ¿Prefieres que el profesor te corrija cuando cometes errores? ¿Por qué?

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¡¡MUCHAS GRACIAS POR TU COLABORACIÓN!!

## 2. Observation scheme

Classroom/Subject:

Date:

No of Students:

Time:

Teacher:

### OBSERVATION SCHEME

Student's error	Type	Teacher's feedback	Type	Student's uptake	Type

Type of error: M-morphosyntactic, L-lexical, P-phonological, 1-L1 use (Basque or Spanish)

Type of feedback: R-recast, CL-clarification request, Rp-repetition, E- Elicitation, M-metalinguistic info, EC-explicit correction

Type of uptake: R-repair, NR-needs repair, NU-no uptake

### **3. COLT scheme of the lessons**

Instead of looking at the time distribution belonging to each category, we have elaborated a list of all the activities carried out during the lessons and we have classified them.

#### **ACTIVITY LIST**

1. Oral revision of previous concepts and gradual introduction of new ones. CLIL lesson 1
2. Students read aloud from some photocopies and teacher explains concepts. CLIL lesson 1
3. Revision of previous lessons. CLIL lesson 2
4. Students read aloud from some photocopies and teacher explains concepts. CLIL lesson 2
5. Correction of homework. EFL lesson 1
6. Activity on Reported Speech: teacher gives instructions EFL lesson 1
7. Students do the activity in small groups. Teacher monitors. Then they perform the dialogues. EFL lesson 1
8. Students work in small groups and change the dialogues to reported speech. Teacher monitors. EFL lesson 1
9. Correction of activity EFL lesson 1
10. Correction of homework and oral realization of a True/False exercise. EFL lesson 2
11. Activity on Reported Speech: teacher gives instructions EFL lesson 2
12. Students do the activity in small groups. Teacher monitors. Then they perform the dialogues. EFL lesson 2



13. Students work in small groups and change the dialogues to reported speech.  
Teacher monitors. EFL lesson 2
14. Correction of activity EFL lesson 2
15. Revision of previous lessons CLIL lesson 3
16. Exercises (orally) CLIL lesson 3
17. Group work-projects. Teacher monitors CLIL lesson 3
18. Teacher gives instructions for exercise (reading comprehension) EFL lesson 3
19. Students choose best answer for each question in small groups. EFL lesson 3
20. Students read best answer aloud and teacher writes them on the board. She corrects them and chooses the best one. EFL lesson 3
21. Teacher gives instructions for exercise (reading comprehension) EFL lesson 4
22. Students choose best answer for each question in small groups. EFL lesson 4
23. Students write best answer of their group on the board. Teacher corrects them and chooses the best one. EFL lesson 4

### **Participant organization (activities)**

<b>Activity</b>	<b>EFL</b>	<b>CLIL</b>
Whole class		
Teacher led	5,6,9,10,11,14,18,20,21,23	1, 3,15,16
Student led	-	2,4
Choral	-	-
Individual	-	-
Group	7,8,12,13,19, 22	17

**Content focus (activities)**

<b>Content focus</b>	<b>EFL</b>	<b>CLIL</b>
Classroom Management	18,21	-
Language	5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14	-
Thematic	5,10,20,23	2,3,4,16,17
Combinations		
Management+ theme	-	1, 15
Language+ theme	19,22	-

**Content Control (activities)**

<b>Content Control</b>	<b>EFL</b>	<b>CLIL</b>
Teacher/text	18,21	1,3
Teacher/text/student	5,6,9, 10,11,14,20,23	2,4,16
Student	7,8,12,13,19,22	17

**Student modality (activities)**

<b>Student modality</b>	<b>EFL</b>	<b>CLIL</b>
Listening	18,21	-
Speaking	-	-
Reading	-	-
Writing	8,13	-
Combinations	5,6,7,9,10,11,12,14,19,22,23	1,2,3,4,15,16,17

#### 4. RECORDED TIME

CLIL:  $50.13 + 49.54 + 45.16 = 147$  minutes

EFL:  $57.05 + 59.03 + 57.42 + 56.30 = 230$  minutes

TOTAL: 377 minutes = 6 hours and 17 minutes