Universidad del País Vasco
Euskal Herriko Unibertsitatea
LETREN FAKULTATEA
FACULTAD DE LETRAS

CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK EPISODES IN CLIL AND EFL CLASSROOMS

TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS' BELIEFS AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOUR

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Author: Ruth Milla Melero
Director: María del Pilar García Mayo

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All errors and omissions remain my own.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of abbreviations

BAC: Basque Autonomous Community

CA: Conversational Analysis

CAP: Certificado de Aptitud Pedagógica (Certificate of Pedagogical Aptitude)

CBLT: Content Based Language Teaching

CF: Corrective Feedback

CFE: Corrective Feedback Episode

CH: Counterbalance Hypothesis

CL: Clarification Request

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

COLT: Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching

EC: Explicit Correction

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EL: Elicitation

ESL: English as a Second Language

FFI: Form-Focused Instruction

FFL: French as a Foreign Language

FI: French Immersion

FL: Foreign Language

FonF: Focus on Form

FR: Further Research

FSL: French as a Second Language

G: Grammar error

GFL: German as a Foreign Language

ID: Individual Differences

IH: Interaction Hypothesis

IL: Interlanguage

JFL: Japanese as a Foreign Language

JI: Japanese Immersion

L: Lexical error (vocabulary)

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LAA: Language Analytic Ability

ML: Metalinguistic cue

NC: Non-corrected error

NNS: Non-Native Speaker

NR: Needs Repair

NRCL: Needs-Repair after Clarification

NREC: Needs-Repair after Explicit Correction

NREL: Needs-Repair after Elicitation

NRML: Needs-Repair after Metalinguistic Cue

NRRC: Needs-Repair after Recast

NRRP: Needs-Repair after Repetition

NS: Native Speaker

NU: No Uptake

NUEC: No Uptake after Explicit Correction

NUEL: No Uptake after Elicitation

NUML: No Uptake after Metalinguistic Cue

NURC: No Uptake after Recast

NURP: No Uptake after Repetition

OCF: Oral Corrective Feedback

OPT: Oxford Placement Test

P: Pronunciation error

Pe: Peer Repair

PeCL: Peer-repair after Clarification

PeEL: Peer-repair after Elicitation

PR: Prompt

RC: Recast

RF: Reformulation

RML: Repair after Metalinguistic Cue

RP: Repetition

RQ: Research Question

SCT: Sociocultural Theory

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SLT: Skill Learning Theory

SR: Self Repair

SRCL: Self Repair after Clarification Request

SREC: Self Repair after Explicit Correction

SREL: Self Repair after Elicitation

SRRC: Self Repair after Recast

STU: Learner

TAP: Transfer Appropriate Processing

TEA: Teacher

UG: Universal Grammar

WM: Working Memory

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

List of tables

List of graphs

List of figures

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation aims to explore corrective feedback (CF), a phenomenon that occurs in language learning classrooms, and to capture all the nuances that come into play when this teaching technique appears in a formal learning environment. The following Example (1)[1], from our own database, illustrates the phenomenon of CF. The learner (STU) makes a grammar error [*G] by using the wrong tense and the teacher (TEA) reformulates the error by providing the correct form. We will see more examples and CF types in following chapters.

(1) STU: there haven't been [*G] any victims

TEA: there weren't any victims.

The dissertation is framed within the field of research of second language acquisition (SLA). The acquisition of a second language (L2) is a complex process that involves multiple factors (Ellis, 2005). Errors appear in both first language (L1) and L2 learning and researchers and teachers nowadays see them as natural elements that occur in the process of language learning and not as something negative. Errors, as Corder (1967) explains in his seminal paper, provide different kinds of useful evidence: teachers learn about the point where the learner stands in their acquisition process. Researchers obtain information about the learning process and the strategies that learners employ. Finally, learners can use errors as a manner of testing hypotheses about the new language.

[1]All the examples from our database have been reproduced as they were transcribed originally. That is, CHILDES conventions for punctuation as well as codes have been maintained. In the transcription of the episodes, we decided to use different colours for the different moves of the CFEs. Thus, teachers' moves (TEA) appear in green while learners' interventions (STU) are in red.

In the following chapters, we will see that discrepancies appear when trying to decide the manner to react to them, that is, how to use CF to address errors in the SLA process.

CF occurs in natural learning environments as well as in formal contexts, although it is much more frequent and probably more beneficial, and even necessary, in the latter (Spada, 2011). SLA researchers have focused on CF in formal settings, finding positive effects of this technique for L2 learning that will be described below. There are two modes of CF, oral and written. Since research on oral corrective feedback (OCF) and written corrective feedback (WCF) deal with different aspects of CF and studies on the two modes are carried out using different methodologies, we have centred our dissertation on OCF, the feedback that occurs in oral interaction among teachers and learners in the formal setting of a classroom. More specifically, we are dealing with two formal learning contexts, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). EFL refers to a language setting where the L2 is not the official language of the country but a language spoken abroad, so the learners have few opportunities to use it outside the classroom. Different teaching methodologies have been followed throughout the years, with different approaches as to how to present, practice and assess language learning and with not very satisfactory outcomes in EFL settings. A new approach emerged in the 90s due to the rapid spread of multilingualism in Europe (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). This approach, known as CLIL (Marsh, 2002), promotes the balance between teaching language forms and content in the same lesson. This integrated approach is being implemented in many countries in Europe (Pérez Cañado, 2012) and, particularly in Spain and in our specific area, the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC), we can find that it is no longer an option for learners as most primary and secondary schools have included CLIL in their curricula. Due to this widespread use of a CLIL methodology, research has also started to proliferate about its potential benefits

for language learning. However, very little has been investigated about what actually occurs in CLIL classrooms, and particularly on CF (see García Mayo & Basterrechea, 2017), a topic about which we can barely find a couple of studies set in this type of learning context. Bearing in mind that CLIL differs from EFL in many aspects, it is sensible to think that differences will be found regarding CF. Therefore, the two contexts, EFL and CLIL, have been included in our research.

Not only did we consider the learning context as a factor that may influence CF provision and effect, but we found that researchers have examined other factors as potentially intervening as well. One of these factors is the learners' and teachers' beliefs about CF. Beliefs have been found to affect both teachers' use of CF as well as the effect it has on the learners. Once again, a gap in research exists concerning CLIL teachers' beliefs. Besides, the relation between beliefs and classroom behaviour needs to be further explored.

This dissertation aims to address both research gaps, namely, the lack of research on CF in CLIL settings and the relationship between teachers' and learners' beliefs as well as beliefs and classroom behaviour. Therefore, we conducted a study where we examined CF in CLIL and EFL classrooms. By means of a classroom observation scheme, we observed and compared real lessons in the two settings. Different aspects of the CF construct were analysed, such as the amount and types of CF provided, the proportion of learners' response and types of response. In addition to this, CLIL and EFL teachers were given a questionnaire about CF and their answers were compared. Teachers' responses were also contrasted with learners' responses to an equivalent questionnaire. Finally, questionnaire responses were compared with classroom behaviour in order to assess whether the system of beliefs held by a teacher affects their classroom behaviour and the effect that learners' beliefs have on their reaction towards CF. All the data were analysed

quantitatively by means of the programme R to test the significance of the differences among the settings and between learners' and teachers' beliefs. Furthermore, we analysed the results with qualitative descriptions that revealed interesting details of aspects that the quantitative results could not uncover. The study was conducted in a specific community in the north of Spain, with a reduced number of participants in this particular area. Therefore, we need to bear in mind that the findings, however interesting they might be, cannot be extrapolated to other settings. Nevertheless, we consider that this piece of research contributes to the field by providing answers to certain enquiries that previous studies have not been able to address.

In this introduction, we have presented the field of research that frames this dissertation, the aim of the present study, and the research gaps that motivated it. The rest of the dissertation has been organized as follows: We have divided the chapters into two different parts. Part I includes chapters 1 to 5, where we provide a theoretical background for the dissertation as well as a thorough review of the literature that will guide the reader through the bulk of research that exists on the different variables involved in the present study. Then, in part II, we present the study itself, with its methodology, the results and the discussion of the findings. Finally, in the concluding chapter we offer a summary of the dissertation, pedagogical implications deriving from the findings as well as the limitations and ideas for further research.

PART I

In this first part of the dissertation the theoretical background and research foundations for the present study are presented. First, in Chapter 1, definition and types of CF will be provided as well as an explanation of corrective feedback episodes (CFEs) and the elements that constitute them. Chapter 2 presents how the different theories in SLA research have considered CF and the role that each of these theories has given to this construct. In Chapter 3 research on different aspects of CF is reviewed. We analyse studies that have included the construct and tried to answer different questions in order to clarify the relevance of CF for SLA. These questions include whether CF is beneficial for L2 learning or not, whether oral correction should be made immediately after the error or in a more delayed manner, which error types and which proportion of oral errors should be attended, which type(s) of CF is more effective, whether only teachers should correct or peers can correct too, and other variables to be considered for the effectiveness of OCF such as the instructional context or teachers' and learners' beliefs.

Chapter 4 focuses on the instructional context, as it is one of the main variables influencing patterns of CFEs and it has been underresearched. English as a second language (ESL), EFL and CLIL settings will be examined, the latter two being the ones included in our study. Finally, Chapter 5 presents a review of the second variable we have explored in the present study: beliefs about CF. By reviewing relevant studies, we will see that teachers' and learners' beliefs are a fundamental variable influencing classroom behaviour and subsequent learning.

On the whole, we intend to provide the reader with a general yet detailed view of all aspects of research concerning CF, in order to have a complete picture of this construct,

what it means for L2 learning, which aspects have been studied so far and what is still to be done. The motivation for the present study will be clearly stated in this first part of the dissertation.

CHAPTER 1: CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (CF)

This chapter provides a definition of CF and illustrates its main types and taxonomies of these types. It also illustrates CFEs. First of all, some clarifications on terminology are in order. The issue we are dealing with has been termed as error correction, negative evidence (Long, 1991 et passim), interactional feedback (e.g. Lyster & Mori, 2006), corrective feedback (Lyster, 1998; et passim) and negative feedback (e.g. 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. Other authors prefer the term interactional feedback (e.g. Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000). The term we will use in this dissertation is **corrective feedback (CF)**, as this term includes 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.

1.1. DEFINITION

Different definitions have been provided but we will stick to a recent one given by Yang and Lyster (2010: 237): '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'. Therefore, CF is the reaction of the teacher or peers to the erroneous utterance of the learner, when this reaction involves attention to language forms and a corrective intention. When the learners' output contains an error, the teacher uses different types of CF moves to respond to these errors, focusing on form in this incidental way. By providing CF, teachers promote noticing of target forms (Schmidt, 1990; VanPatten, 1990) and facilitate L2 learning (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Russell & Spada, 2006; Sheen,

2011; Spada, 2011). Moreover, research has found that it has a general positive effect on learners' performance (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Erlam & Loewen, 2010; Russell & Spada, 2006; Salazar Campillo, 2006; Spada, 2011; Swain, 1985).

1.2. CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK EPISODES (CFEs)

As seen above, CF is a reactive move to an erroneous utterance. This corrective move is part of what has been termed as CFEs (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). Typically, CFEs consist of three moves: Error, CF and Uptake. Examples of these moves will be provided below. Figure 1 below displays a scheme of a CFE, adapted from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) proposal for an Error Treatment Sequence. We have chosen the term CFE as it is the most frequently used in the literature (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000) after their seminal study.

Let us illustrate CFEs with an example, taken from our database:

CFE example:

(2) STU: (…) there *haven't been any victims. ERROR MOVE

TEA: there weren't any victims you are talking about the past right there weren't any victims there weren't any what other word do you have for victim? CF MOVE

STU: but was today! UPTAKE MOVE

TEA: yes but the the tense that you have is past were involved it is not there has been an accident and then you can use the present no the past another word for victims? CF MOVE / TOPIC CONTINUATION.

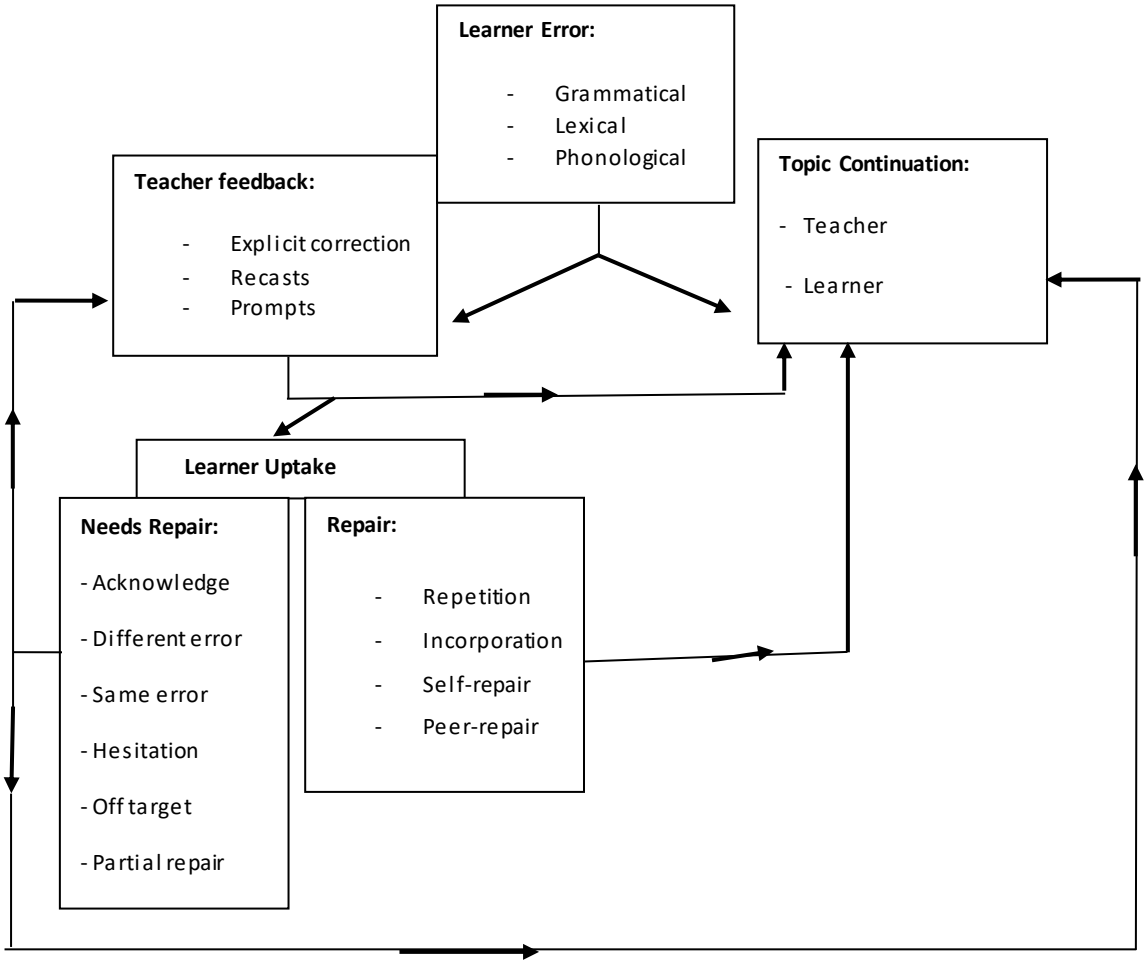


Figure 1: Error treatment sequence (adapted from Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 44).

Example (2) consists of four moves. In the first one, the learner uses an incorrect verb tense. This would be the error move, of a grammatical nature. Then, in the CF move, the teacher reformulates the learner's sentence and provides the correct form. Besides, there is an attempt on the part of the teacher to continue the topic ("What other word do we have for victims?"). However, the learner does not acknowledge this topic continuation attempt and responds to the CF move in the following utterance, the uptake move. As seen in Figure 1 above, this uptake move can consist of a repair of the error or, as in this case, a *needs repair*. Thus, the learner does not repair the error, asking for explanations or justification as to why the tense is wrong. After needs repair, the teacher might either continue the lesson (topic continuation) or provide more CF in order to obtain repair from the learner. This is exactly the case in Example (2), although the teacher here is simply responding to the learner's question by giving some metalinguistic information about the erroneous utterance. After offering this CF, she tries to continue the topic again ("Another word for victims?"). This is only one example of a CFE where the teacher uses two types of CF: recast and metalinguistic feedback. These and other different types of CF will be presented in section 1.3 below.

1.2.1. ERROR

The CFE begins with an erroneous utterance on the learner's part, the Error move. Before proceeding with the explanation of the CFE, let us stop here to clarify the concept of error. Error has been defined as a deviation from the norm, but as we saw in the Introduction, a necessary element in the learning process (Corder, 1967). In the SLA literature, we can find the distinction between error and mistake: error would be any incorrect utterance that is due to the learner's lack of knowledge of the rule, either because they have not learnt them yet or because they have misinterpreted them. On the other hand, if the learner knows the rule but occasionally does not follow it (although in other

cases they have correctly used the form) we would be talking about a mistake or a 'slip of the tongue'. As Ellis (2009) explains, an error "takes place as a result of lack of knowledge", and a mistake "is a performance phenomenon, reflecting processing failures that arise as a result of competing plans, memory limitations, and lack of automaticity" (Ellis, 2009: 6).

The former types of incorrect utterances, the errors, are the ones that should be addressed by the teachers, as they can become fossilized[2] in the learner's interlanguage[3] (IL; Selinker, 1972) if they fail to recognize the erroneous nature of their productions. Mistakes can be easily repaired, sometimes by the learners themselves, even without the teacher's intervention.

As explained above, errors are part of any learning process and teachers, learners and researchers must see them as a positive sign of learning and make use of the evidence they offer (Corder, 1967). Some authors also distinguish between global and local errors. Ellis (2009: 6) describes global errors as "errors that affect overall sentence organization (i.e., wrong word order)" and local errors as "errors that affect single elements in a sentence (errors in morphology functors)".

In the SLA literature, there is still a controversy about whether errors should be corrected or not. As we will see in Chapter 2, authors have different views with respect to error correction. Although nowadays, due to intensive research on CF, most authors agree that oral correction is beneficial for L2 learning, especially in instructed

[2]Ellis (1985a: 48) provides a definition of this phenomenon: 'Fossilization occurs in most languages and cannot be remedied by further instruction. Fossilized structures can be realized as errors or as correct target language forms. If, when fossilization occurs, the learner has reached a stage of development in which feature X in his interlanguage has assumed the same form as in the target language, then fossilization of the correct form will occur. If, however, the learner has reached a stage in which feature Y still does not have the same form as the target language; the fossilization will manifest itself as an error.'

[3]'The term Interlanguage was defined by Selinker (1972) as the separate linguistic system evidenced when adult second-language learners attempt to express meaning in a language they are in the process of learning. This linguistic system encompasses not just phonology, morphology, and syntax, but also the lexical, pragmatic and discourse levels of the interlanguage' (Tarone, 2001: 476).

environments, there are still some voices that disagree. Some teachers and methodologists advocate for the avoidance of correction, especially explicit correction, for two main reasons: One is the innatist view that correction does not have any effect on language acquisition. However, this is true for L1 acquisition or naturalistic settings, but not for L2 learning in foreign language (FL) classrooms. The other reason is that CF may create anxiety or low-esteem in learners, as explicit CF may be face-threatening when provided in oral interaction in teacher-fronted classrooms. Nevertheless, as we will explain later, learners are willing to be corrected and, in general, are not negatively affected by teachers' negative feedback, obviously given that this feedback is carefully selected and tailored to learners' idiosyncrasy.

Thus, the learner's error is the first move in the CFE, or the trigger for CF on the part of the teacher. This error may be of different types: grammatical, lexical or phonological.

1.2.2. CF MOVE

In response to the error the teacher may simply ignore it (no CF-Topic continuation in Figure 1 above) and the interaction will continue, or some sort of CF can be provided, in which case we will refer to this move as the CF move. This CF move can be of different types: recast, prompt and explicit correction. Definitions and examples of these types will be provided in the section 1.3 below.

1.2.3. UPTAKE

After the CF move, learners might react in two ways: either they do not acknowledge the correction and so the topic continues (no uptake), or there is some kind of response to the teacher's CF move (uptake).

The term uptake refers to "a learner's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the learner's initial utterance" (Lyster & Ranta 1997:49)[4]. When there is uptake, this may take different forms or types: the error may be repaired successfully with any of the techniques listed in Figure 1 (*repair*), or there may be some problem with the repair-this would be the *needs repair* situation. In this latter case, the teacher could provide further feedback or the topic may continue.

1.3. TYPOLOGY

There are different manners in which CF can be offered. In their seminal study on CF, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six types, together with various combinations of these types. In the previous section we have mentioned three types of CF: recasts, explicit correction and prompts (see Figure 1 above). This latter CF type consists of four different subtypes which share certain characteristics, as we will see in section 1.3.1. However, we consider it necessary to describe these four types separately here, as they also differ in certain aspects and in our data, we will analyse them together as prompts but also separately, as previous researchers have done. Thus, in what follows, we illustrate the major six types with examples from our database.

Recast: the teacher reformulates '*all or part of a learner's utterance minus the error*' (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 46).

(3) STU: …depends also *in your personality in the company.

TEA: you have said the first one **on your personality depending on your personality** explain that a little bit.

[4]Uptake has also been defined in a different manner by other authors. Ellis (1995) defines it as "what learners report learning at the end of the lesson". In this paper, we will stick to the definition provided in Lyster and Ranta (1997) study since it is the most widely used among researchers on CF.

As we can see in this example, recasts consist of the repetition of the erroneous utterance but repairing the error, this is, providing the target form. This is by far the most frequently used CF type, not only in classrooms but also in laboratory studies, as well as in natural settings as it occurs in conversations among non-native speakers (NNSs) and native speakers (NSs) or with other NNSs of the language (Long, 1983). That is the reason why recasts are the most widely researched CF type, with multiple studies, both of a descriptive and experimental nature, looking at their distribution in oral interaction and the different factors governing its effectiveness, as we will explain in Chapter 3. Although they are the most frequently occurring type, there are other CF types that, although to a lesser extent, also appear in research databases in both classrooms and laboratory settings. We will proceed now to define and illustrate these types.

Clarification Request: The teacher prompts a reformulation by pretending not to have understood the learner's utterance.

(4) STU: …in 1666 the Great Fire of London ended the plague */plɑ:g/.

TEA: **pardon?**

STU: the plague /pleɪg/.

When using clarification requests, teachers are indicating that something has been misunderstood or that repetition or reformulation is needed. Thus, clarification requests can function as communication strategies or corrective moves. In this dissertation, we only consider those clarification requests happening after some erroneous utterance and seeking correction. Teachers might use expressions such as the one in Example (4): *Pardon?, What do you mean by X?, What did you say?, Eh?, What?*, thus eliciting a repaired form on the part of the learner.

<u>Repetition</u>: the teacher repeats the erroneous utterance (generally with rising intonation or in the form of a question).

(5) STU: I'm thinking *to buy a new car.

TEA: **I'm thinking to buy?**

In the case of repetition, as seen in Example (5), the correct form is not offered, but rather the erroneous utterance is repeated in isolation and, "in most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997:48).

<u>Elicitation</u>: The teacher prompts a complete sentence or elicits the correct form by encouraging self-repair.

(6) STU: **tirar de la bomba.*

TEA: **in English?**

STU: flush.

Elicitation can be performed by using different techniques: repeating right up to the error, pausing and leaving the sentence unfinished for the learner to repair, asking a question for the learners to repair of translate, as in Example (6), or directly asking them to reformulate. However, if teachers ask them to repair by giving some kind of information about the linguistic nature of the error, it would be an example of the following type, metalinguistic clues.

<u>Metalinguistic clue</u>: The teacher provides information about the erroneous utterance.

(7) STU: it was in Saint Tropez *where he threw…

TEA: a huge party we don't say where we say that all the time **we get who for people but we are going to use that for the rest** so we say no it was in Saint Tropez that he threw a huge party **that or who for people sometimes but for the rest of the items of information we always use that.**

By using this type, the teacher is offering "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere." (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 47). Metalinguistic cues can be related to the nature or the location of the error (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

<u>Explicit correction</u>: the teacher clearly states that there has been an error and provides the correct form.

(8) STU: these days London has spread further */ˈfʌðə /onwards.

TEA**: sorry A. further /ˈfɜːðə / not further /ˈfʌðə / further /ˈfɜːðə /.**

As in the case of the recast, the target form is offered, but contrarily to that type, explicit correction consists of a straightforward rejection of the erroneous utterance by using expressions such as: 'No, that's not correct'; 'That's wrong'; 'We don't say that'; or, as in Example (8), 'not X'. The teacher is highlighting the fact that there is an error and then offering the repaired utterance. This is one of the least frequently used types, probably because of this explicitness which might make the CF move seem too abrupt in teachers' views, as we will see later.

However, we have to take into account that these types are not closed categories, and can be made more or less explicit by means of non-verbal indications or intonation. Therefore, CF types must be analysed carefully when studying CF in real classrooms. These six types are the ones that are typically included in observational and experimental studies. Additionally, Nassaji and Fotos (2011) as well as Lyster et al. (2013), among other authors, also consider paralinguistic signals or nonverbal feedback such as 'gestures, facial expressions, head, hand and finger movements' (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011:78). In the present study, these techniques will be examined carefully in the qualitative analysis of the data presented in Chapter 7.

Similarly, these types have been found to combine among themselves creating instances of what has been termed as "multiple feedback" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). More information about the possible combinations will be offered in the data analysis section in Chapter 6 as well as qualitative descriptions of this phenomenon in Chapter 7.

In the following section, the six types of CF will be classified according to different characteristics they may present.

1.3.1. CLASSIFICATION OF TYPES OF CF

Different CF taxonomies have been proposed since Chaudron's (1977) pioneering study. We have selected two which we believe include the fundamental features of CF types, i.e. the type of information they provide and the degree of explicitness they entail.

TAXONOMY 1: TYPE OF INFORMATION PROVIDED.

In this first taxonomy, we will follow Ellis's (2009) proposal. This author establishes a difference between the different types of feedback episodes based on the learner's reaction and also uses the implicit-explicit dichotomy to classify them.

Table 1 features the taxonomy that Ellis (2009:8) proposes:

TAXONOMY OF CF TYPES	IMPLICIT	EXPLICIT
INPUT PROVIDING	Recasts	Explicit correction
OUTPUT-PUSHING	Repetition Clarification request	Metalinguistic explanation Elicitation Paralinguistic signals

Table 1: Types of CF (Ellis, 2009: 8).

The difference between the types of CF is mainly their informative quality. Input-providing CF techniques are reformulations of the erroneous utterance which provide the correct form, thus they are more informative, whereas output-prompting or output-pushing types aim to obtain self-repair on the part of the learner, just 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 (WM) 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.

TAXONOMY 2: DEGREE OF EXPLICITNESS

In the taxonomy above, we saw CF types classified according to the kind of evidence provided as well as according to another dichotomy: explicit or implicit. 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 infer from the evidence that the form of their utterance is responsible for the comprehension problem. An example of this implicit feedback would be a recast. But it seems more appropriate to classify CF types according to the degree of explicitness they entail instead of keeping them in two separate groups. As seen above, CF types are not closed categories and they can be made more or less explicit by means of different techniques. Therefore, we can say they tend to be more or less implicit or more or less explicit. For this taxonomy, we will follow Ortega's (2009) and Lyster and Saito's (2010) 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. Figure 2 below features the whole spectrum of types placed in the continuum:

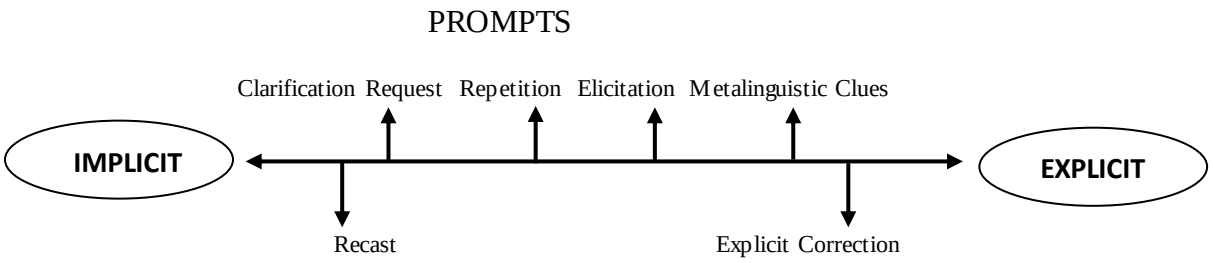


Figure 2: Continuum of corrective feedback types on the basis of explicitness (from Lyster & Saito 2010: 278).

In Figure 2 we can see the types classified not only by explicitness but also following the criteria of the type of information they provide, as in the first taxonomy.

Following Ranta and Lyster's (2007) distinction, those types above the line are **prompts** (clarification request, repetition, elicitation and metalinguistic clues) and provide learners with negative evidence (indication of an error or some kind of communication problem) while promoting self-repair. Below the line we can find the **reformulations** (recasts and explicit correction), those types that provide positive evidence, that is, the teacher offers the target form by repairing the error. This taxonomy includes the classification provided by Ellis (2009) together with the information about the degree of explicitness and that is why we (as a large number of previous researchers) have adopted Lyster and Saito's (2010) model for the analyses of the CF types found in our database.

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 employed 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, as we will see in chapter 3.

1.4. CONCLUSION

We have seen in this chapter that CF is a technique that teachers use in the classroom which has been found to be beneficial for L2 learning. This technique is part of CFEs, which occur in oral interaction and consist of three moves: error, CF, and uptake. Different CF types have been presented and illustrated with examples. Taxonomies to classify these types have also been explained in this chapter. Finally, uptake has also been defined and typified. Chapter 2 considers how different SLA theories have regarded the role of CF for L2 learning.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter considers the relevance of the construct of CF for SLA, so we need to analyse the role that CF plays in the different theories on language acquisition. We will consider SLA theories exclusively in this dissertation as L1 acquisition is a different process where other elements are taken into account. Since the aim of this dissertation is to investigate a specific aspect of SLA in different instructional settings, we will review the theories that account for CF in this kind of formal learning environments.

2.2. UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR (UG) BASED THEORIES

Originally, Chomsky's (1959 et passim) innatist approach was aimed to describe L1 acquisition. The author tried to 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 (UG)** with which all humans are endowed 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). SLA researchers in the field of UG endeavour to clarify whether the principles of UG are accessible to learners while learning a L2 as well as in which way these principles can be parameterized during the process. UG theory is based on the poverty-of-the-stimulus argument and the idea that learners are able to overcome input deficiencies by accessing UG. However, it is possible that they can also make use

of negative evidence (i.e. CF) that is offered to them in the classroom. If this is so, the process of SLA would be of a different nature from that of L1 acquisition, where learners can mainly rely on positive evidence. Concerning the role of negative evidence in L2 acquisition, three positions have been put forward from the UG-based perspective (see Sheen (2011) for a more detailed explanation). One view proposed by L. White (1991) argues that learners do not have continued access to UG and so negative evidence is beneficial as complementary information. Another view states that negative evidence can only be transformed into explicit knowledge; therefore, it cannot be of use in SLA. According to this perspective (Schwartz, 1986; Schwartz & Gubala-Ryzak, 1992), only positive evidence plays a role in the activation of UG. The third position advanced by Carroll (1997, 2001) argues that for negative evidence to play a role in the process of L2 acquisition, it must be interpretable. Thus, beginners would not be able to interpret it and teachers would not be able to provide with appropriate CF in advanced stages, as these learners' errors do not generally cause communication problems. This author, then, proposes a learning process based on an interaction of UG and other cognitive faculties, with CF being effective in intermediate stages and not playing a central role.

To sum up, UG-based theorists do not consider negative evidence as one of the main issues of the L2 acquisition process either (similarly to what they claim for the L1 acquisition process). Rather, they regard this construct as an external element which may contribute to the development of explicit knowledge in any case, and only in the intermediate stages of SLA.

2.3. COGNITIVE THEORIES

Cognitive theories focus on the psychological processes that the learners undergo when learning a language. They present differences in some aspects but, as far as CF is concerned, they all share the view that this phenomenon does play a substantial role in

SLA. In what follows, we will explain the commonalities and differences these theoretical perspectives hold with respect to CF.

2.3.1. INTERACTION HYPOTHESIS

The interactionist perspective, based on Long's **Interaction Hypothesis (IH)** (Long, 1983; 1996), claims that acquisition will be facilitated by interaction. He showed with empirical evidence that when NNSs interact in conversation with 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 (9) illustrates interaction:

(9) NNS: There is a three bird in my picture
NS: Three birds in your picture?
NNS: Three bird yeah

(Mackey et al., 2000: 480)

The interactional example (9) shows how the NS uses a reformulation with the form of a question which provides the learner (NNS) with negative input as to the comprehensibility of the message. The learner, in turn, modifies his output partly ('*three bird*').

Obviously, negotiation of meaning does not only appear in natural NNS-NS interactions but it also takes place in FL classrooms, with non-native teachers, and in peer

interaction. Negotiation of meaning is claimed to connect input, internal learner capacities and output (Long, 1996). By means of conversational interaction learners notice differences between their IL and the target language 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. Therefore, there are three main tenets in the interaction process: input, negotiation of meaning and output. Moreover, interactionists remark the importance of noticing to pervade the whole process. Learners' noticing can be achieved, among other manners, through the provision of feedback. Figure 3 below illustrates the whole process, in a model proposed by Gass and Mackey (2007), where we can see all the elements of interaction and how they work together to lead to learning. As we can see, feedback is here separated into positive evidence, or recasts, and (negative) feedback, which corresponds to prompts or explicit correction.

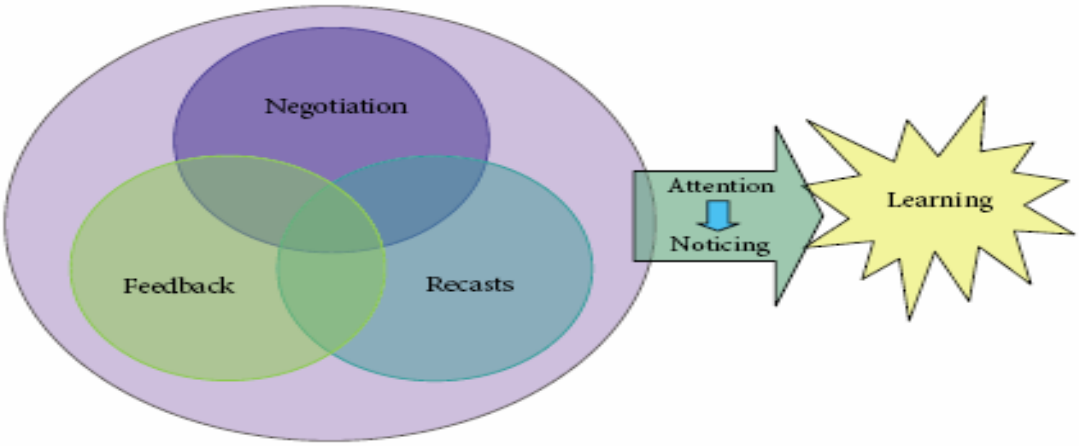


Figure 3: Model of interaction and learning (Gass & Mackey, 2007).

All these elements are related among them to promote learning. In this dissertation, we are interested in the role that CF plays in the process. We have already seen how negotiation of meaning involves feedback as part of the interaction. Moreover, different hypotheses have shown how the rest of these constructs are essential for successful L2 learning and we will explain how CF relates to each of them in this process under the interactionist perspective.

First, Krashen's (1982) **Input Hypothesis**, states that exposure to comprehensible input is the only way to acquire a L2. Comprehensible input contains forms and structures just beyond the speaker's proficiency level. Interactionists agree with the idea of input as essential for L2 learning. In formal settings, input 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 (J. White, 1998) and can be made comprehensible via negotiation, not just simplification (Ellis, 1985b). There is another distinction that should be established when talking about input: it can provide 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). Similarly to UG-based models, the Input Hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1982) states that negative evidence plays little or no role at all in L2 learning since only positive evidence in the form of comprehensible input is sufficient to develop implicit knowledge. However, as explained above, Long (1983, 1996) and other interactionist authors acknowledge the value of CF (especially recasts) as contributing to acquisition although

they believe that certain circumstances need to concur. These circumstances are the combination of form and meaning in what has been termed 'focus-on-form' (FonF) instruction. The notion of FonF (or form-focused) instruction (FFI) deserves a separate section as it goes beyond the negotiation of meaning or input constructs, so we will return to this construct in the next section 2.3.2.

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 (Basterrechea, García Mayo, & Leeser, 2014) 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).

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. This idea is captured in the **Noticing Hypothesis** developed by Schmidt (1990) and subscribed to by other researchers (Ellis, 1991; Gass & Varonis, 1994). Learner's noticing has been studied by many researchers (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey et al., 2000; Philp, 2003; Roberts, 1995) as one of the main elements necessary for acquisition. Therefore, for interaction to be beneficial for L2 acquisition, learners need to be aware of the *positive* as well as the *negative evidence* they receive when engaged in communicative activities, as explained above. One of the elements of interaction that has been claimed to promote noticing of target forms is CF (Schmidt, 1990; VanPatten, 1990).

Wrapping up, the IH and the different hypotheses associated with it consider feedback as an essential element in the SLA process. According to this perspective, through CF (recasts, negotiation of meaning and feedback) the input is made more salient or comprehensible; learners notice differences between their own IL and the target language; and can modify output, which has been shown to promote learning. CF is thus one of the pillars of interaction, and, as mentioned above, if it does not appear naturally, the circumstances have to be adapted for the learners to receive it. These circumstances refer to the FFI, explained in what follows.

2.3.2. FOCUS-ON-FORM

Negotiation of meaning, which serves the function of guaranteeing comprehension, has been defined above. Yet, there is another type of negotiation that takes place in this context of FFI, the **negotiation of form**. This construct refers to the episodes that occur in FFI and '[...] serve a pedagogical function that draws attention to form and aims for both accuracy and mutual comprehension' (Lyster, 2002: 243). Examples and a classification of these interactional moves, the CF moves, were provided in the previous chapter (see 1.3).

In spite of the debates about the nature and features of FFI, there has been enough research to state that this teaching approach needs to be incorporated in meaning-oriented classrooms (Bouffard & Sarkar, 2008; Erlam & Loewen, 2010; García Mayo, 2011; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Nassaji, 2000). 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 programmes in Canada), some linguistic features do not ultimately develop to target-like levels (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

(2) Aspects of the L2 input that 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 (explained below), input becomes intake[5] if it is noticed, so drawing learners' 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 of form because '[…] learners cannot attend to and process both meaning and form at the same time' (VanPattten, 1990).

Once stated the rationale for this teaching approach, we will provide definitions for this type of instruction proposed by different authors:

> 'Focus on form … overtly draws learners' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication' (Long, 1991: 45).
>
> '… 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*

[5]The concept of intake refers to 'that portion of input that learners notice and therefore take into temporary memory' (Ellis, 1994:708)

> 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 & Williams, 1998: 4, emphasis in the original).

An updated definition has been proposed by Ellis (2016: 411) in a review article on this construct:

> '…focus on form occurs in activities where meaning is primary but attempts are made to attract attention to form. Thus, it is not an approach but rather a set of techniques deployed in a communicative context by the teacher and/or the learners to draw attention implicitly or explicitly and often briefly to linguistic forms that are problematic for the learners.'

The focus of the lesson will be shifted either by the teacher or by a learner 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. Let us look at Figure 4 below:

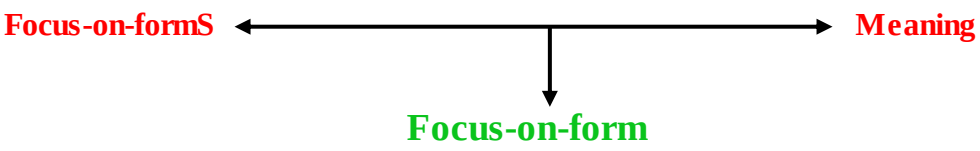


Figure 4: Continuum on instructional foci in SLA

If focus on forms (FonFs) is at one end of the continuum and meaning-based instruction on the other, 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 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 (J. White, 1998). Which of them is preferable is still a debate nowadays. Nevertheless, in a meta-analysis[6] 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, although the question of the type of knowledge (explicit or implicit) that FFI fosters is still being debated (see Spada, 2011, for more detailed explanations).

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

[6]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.

errors already produced, whilst a proactive FonF ensures opportunities to use problematic forms (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

To sum up, FonF has been found to be beneficial for language acquisition, with CF as one of its main pillars. Yet, some questions remain unanswered such as the perfect time to provide this type of instruction, the type of knowledge that results from explicit instruction, what type of FonF is more effective and the influence of learners' individual differences (ID) and instructional setting on the effect of FonF on SLA (see Spada (2011) for a complete review).

The hypotheses reviewed in this and the previous section (Interaction, Output, and Noticing Hypotheses, as well as the FonF approach) have considered feedback as a crucial element within the L2 learning (and teaching) process. They have also been the ground for most of the research on SLA for several decades. However, they have not been the only SLA theories that have addressed the construct of CF. In recent years, other cognitive theories have questioned aspects of interactionist hypotheses while trying to examine SLA from different perspectives, namely the Counterbalance Hypothesis, the Skill Learning Theory and the Transfer Appropriate Processing, that we will describe in what follows.

2.3.3. SKILL LEARNING THEORY AND TRANSFER APPROPRIATE PROCESSING

Skill Learning Theory (SLT; DeKeyser, 2007) claims that language learning is not different from any other skill acquisition, that is, there exists a general learning mechanism by which any new skill will be acquired in a three-step procedure: First, declarative knowledge will be obtained (i.e. grammar rules), then this knowledge will be proceduralized (become implicit), and finally it will be automatized. In order for a language 'skill' to become automatic, practice is needed and this is the role that SLT

researchers give to CF: a learning opportunity for automatizing partially acquired knowledge. In other words, CF is beneficial as long as it helps to convert declarative knowledge into implicit knowledge. More explicit types would be preferable, especially to learners in middle and later stages of development, as younger or beginner level learners may fail to be able to use this kind of CF, as we will discuss later (see Chapter 3 for a revision of research on CF). According to Lyster, one of the main authors working from a SLT perspective, language learning is aided by the use of CF in the classroom, ideally by means of learners' self-correction motivated by output-pushing CF types or prompts (Lyster, 2004).

The Transfer Appropriate Processing (TAP) principle, closely connected to SLT, states that the conditions of the context where some kind of knowledge is acquired should resemble the most the conditions of the context where that knowledge will be retrieved (Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999). Thus, L2 knowledge that is acquired in a communicative activity will be of use when learners are in a communicative situation outside the classroom. Therefore, learners should be focused on meaning in order to develop their communicative ability. From here we could infer that CF then should not be provided as learners will make no use of it, as it has been observed in immersion classrooms in Canada where teachers' recasts were apparently ineffective. Nevertheless, it seems that CF effectiveness in communicative settings depends on the type of CF provided. Lyster's (2004, 2007; Yang & Lyster, 2010) research has found that learners will make good use of a CF type that pushes them to communicate, such as prompts. These learners will be able to retrieve internal knowledge and put it into practice, which contributes to the automatization of those language forms.

To sum up, CF has been found to be beneficial by researchers working in the framework of the SLT as long as this feedback allows for an automatization of the explicit

knowledge through communication practice. The instructional setting and learners' orientation (to meaning or form) have been found to influence the effectiveness of the CF (Sheen, 2004). This finding is further supported by research guided by the Counterbalance Hypothesis, which will be explained in the next section.

2.3.4. COUNTERBALANCE HYPOTHESIS

The Counterbalance Hypothesis arose from the findings in Lyster and Mori's (2006) research work. Theirs was a comparative study of French immersion (FI) classrooms in Canada (data from Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and of Japanese immersion (JI) classrooms in the USA (data from Mori, 2002). The researchers compared the type of activities using the error treatment model by Lyster and Ranta (1997) to explore the CF moves and the learners' response moves and they also used the coding scheme by Spada and Fröhlich (1995) communicative orientation of language teaching (COLT) to examine the lesson's orientation (to meaning or form, among other details). They found that, although teachers' in both settings used similar patterns of CF types, there were differences in the learners' response to those corrections. They attributed these differences to the nature of the classrooms and postulated the Counterbalance Hypothesis:

> 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: 294)

With this hypothesis, the authors made an attempt to explain their findings and contributed to CF research by offering a hypothesis that describes the potential influence

of instructional setting in real classroom environments. According to this hypothesis, there should be a balance between CF types and classroom orientation. Thus, in those contexts where the focus of the lesson is on meaning, such as immersion classrooms, more explicit types, such as prompts, would be preferable. On the other hand, in those contexts which are oriented to form, more implicit CF such as recasts can be provided. In these lessons that are more form-focused, the learners' attention is already directed towards language forms so they will perceive recasts more easily. With this balance of form and meaning in the types of CF and the type of context, CF becomes more salient, which makes it more effective and may lead to subsequent learning. This hypothesis explains not only the data in Lyster and Mori's (2006) study, but also the variations in the results of the studies on CF, as we will see in Chapter 4. Instructional context can interact with CF types to lead to more successful L2 learning.

Therefore, the construct of CF evolves from a notion that was seen as more static in other theories and hypotheses to a phenomenon which varies according to multiple factors, one of them being the context where it takes place. In the next sections (2.4 and 2.5) we will follow this line of research by looking at two theories that consider CF within a context and not in an isolated manner.

2.4. SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

One of the theories that consider learning as a socially mediated activity is Sociocultural Theory (SCT), which is based on Vygotsky's (1978) work and the construct of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Researchers working within a SCT perspective see CF as a necessary technique to fill the learners' gaps through scaffolding[7]

[7]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, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). It is directly linked to the concept of the ZPD proposed by Vygotsky (1978).

by providing them tailored assistance when engaged in interaction. By filling these 'gaps' with the appropriate aid (neither too much nor too little) the ZPD is constructed. Through classroom interaction, teachers and learners collaborate in the construction of the learner's individual ZPDs and consequent L2 learning. The ultimate goal of this process is learner's self-regulation (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007) and this will be obtained by using the mediation of CF that is adapted to the learners' individual needs (Lantolf & Aljaafreh, 1995). According to the authors working within the SCT, no CF type is better than the others, and there is not an 'ideal' type, since the effectiveness of a CF type depends on the individual learner, and what works for one learner may not be effective for another one.

Besides this focus on the individual learners and social interaction as a means for successful L2 learning, SCT criticizes the interactionist framework in the emphasis that the latter places on negotiation for meaning. Authors in the SCT consider negotiation for meaning an instrument for interaction, not necessarily a learning device. On the other hand, they believe CF is an essential construct in the SLA process, provided it is tailored to individual learners' ZPDs.

2.5. CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS

Authors within the Conversational Analysis (CA) perspective have followed Firth and Wagner's (1997) criticisms to cognitive-interactionist models of SLA. They call for further attention to the social and contextual aspects of language and not only focusing on the individual learners' cognitive and psycholinguistic mechanisms. In this line, Seedhouse (1997, 2004) found that corrective techniques in the classroom were sometimes confusing and of an ambiguous nature, with teachers accepting incorrect utterances (by using expressions such as 'that's right', 'OK') and providing the target form in the same turn. He also explored the potential benefits of recasts and the problems

that the analysis of this CF type presents. The main contribution of CA is the call for more detailed and emic analyses of the data and the danger of classifying CF types exclusively from a quantitative perspective, when it is not a monolithic phenomenon, as other theories have also pointed out (such as SCT, Counterbalance Hypothesis).

2.6. CONCLUSION

We have seen above the main elements that researchers working within the interactionist perspective consider necessary conditions for the SLA process, namely, interaction, input, output, noticing and feedback. We have seen theories and hypotheses that regard CF not only as a convenient technique, but as an essential element for learning to occur in the L2 classroom.

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 be developed by means of these form-focused methodologies. Nevertheless, we have seen in this chapter that a growing number of researchers claim that there is not an 'ideal' CF type for all learners but that the context and the learners' IDs have to be taken into account when providing CF in the L2 classrooms. In the following chapter, we will explore these claims by reviewing the findings of existing research on CF on the different aspects of this construct and its role in L2 in real classrooms and laboratories. We will review the studies that have been conducted up to date on the distribution and the effectiveness of the different types of CF, as well as different factors that may intervene in the quantity and quality of CFEs.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH ON CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (CF)

Research on CF is wide and multi-faceted. One way of looking at this bulk of research is by classifying studies according to their main focus. Therefore, in this chapter we will provide a detailed description of most of the studies carried out by taking into account the questions they aimed to answer. In a very early and comprehensive review of the issue of CF in classroom settings, Hendrickson (1978) proposed the following framing questions:

1. Should learners' errors be corrected?
2. When should learners' errors be corrected?
3. Which errors should be corrected?
4. How should errors be corrected?
5. Who should do the correcting?

(Lyster & Ranta, 1997:38)

These questions have been the main concerns of CF researchers in the last decades. Throughout the present chapter we will try to offer answers to these and other relevant questions by describing the findings of the most relevant studies on CF.

3.1. SHOULD LEARNERS' ERRORS BE CORRECTED?

This first question has already been answered from a theoretical perspective in Chapter 2. Theorists give different degrees of relevance to CF, but in general they consider this construct as an intervening element in the process of SLA. Research has also attempted to show the benefits of CF for SLA. Thus, the first step to answer the question is to confirm that CF really exists in real data from classrooms and laboratory settings. Research has found CF occurrence in the classroom in a high proportion (Lochtman, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Yoneyahm, 1982) and in a lower, but still existing,

proportion in laboratory settings (Iwashita, 2003; Mackey, Oliver & Leeman, 2003; Oliver, 1995).Once established that CF is a widely used teaching technique in oral interaction, not only in laboratory settings but also, and specially, in the L2 classrooms, the point is whether it is an intervening factor in the process of language learning.

3.1.1. NEGATIVE VIEWS

Although in general researchers have found a beneficial effect of CF in SLA, there are some voices who disagree. Some authors (Edge, 1989; Harmer,1992; Norrish, 1983) have criticised teachers who focus too much on accuracy when involved in communicative activities instead of encouraging learners to speak fluently without worrying about the correct or incorrect forms. We can also find some early studies that found a negative effect of CF in production, but most of them refer to written CF (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Truscott, 1996; 1998; 1999; Walker, 1973; Young, 1991). These authors suggest that CF "should be avoided for two main reasons: first, because it interrupts the learner's flow of thoughts and development of fluency. The second reason is the potential negative affective impact that CF may have on learners by creating anxiety and de-motivation." (Mifka Profozic, 2012:4). However, in what follows we are going to see that in general OCF has been found to have a positive impact on the L2 acquisition process, for the reasons that we have already presented in the theoretical background in Chapter 2.

3.1.2. POSITIVE VIEWS

A great number of studies have demonstrated the **beneficial role of CF in L2 acquisition** (Ammar, 2008; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Ellis, 2007; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Erlam & Loewen, 2010; Iwashita, 2003; Long, Inagaki & Ortega, 1998; Lyster, 2001, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Muranoi, 2000; Philp &

Tognini, 2009; Salazar Campillo, 2006; Sheen, 2008; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Takashima & Ellis, 1999; Swain, 1985;L. White, Spada, Lightbown & Ranta, 1991; Yang & Lyster, 2010). Besides, several meta-analysis and reviews of the literature have also confirmed this positive effect (Keck, Iberri-Shea, Tracy-Ventura & Wa-Mbaleka, 2006; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lyster et al. 2013; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006; Sheen, 2011; Spada, 2011).

Therefore, we can state that CF facilitates L2 learning and it has been hypothesized as necessary in order to learn certain difficult structures (Long, 1996). As Gurzynski-Weiss (2010: 9) puts it, "interactional feedback is viewed by many researchers as central to L2 learning particularly in light of the limited amount of time, input and opportunities for interaction learners have with their target language, unlike when learning their L1 (Ellis, 2007; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Philp & Tognini, 2009)". SLA differs from L1 acquisition mainly in the lack of these elements; therefore, providing L2 learners with only (limited) input or positive evidence will not be enough to learn the language (Doughty, 1994; Lightbown, 1998; Robinson, 1996; Swain, 1985). Similarly, from a pedagogical perspective we can say that communicative activities only will not be enough either (Lightbown, 1998, Skehan,1996), so there is a need for teachers to use FonF techniques integrated in the communication, as we have explained in section 2.3.2 above.

Among the benefits of CF in oral interaction, research has revealed the following ones: learners' noticing of problematic forms and restructuring IL (Gass, 1997; Schmidt & Frota, 1986); opportunity to modify output and test hypotheses, "automatization of existing knowledge, as well as syntactic processing (Swain, 1985,1995)" (Gurzynski-Weiss & Révész, 2012:852). Linguistic accuracy has been found to be increased and

maintained in delayed post-tests (Spada & Lightbown, 1993) after the use of explicit CF. As Gurzynski-Weiss (2010: 9-10) summarizes it:

> Interaction, particularly the feedback within interaction, is believed to be a necessary component of language learning for several reasons: First, it alerts learners of errors in their speech during meaning-based interaction. Second, it assists learners in noticing mismatches between their interlanguage (IL) and the target language (TL). Third, it encourages learners to hypothesize the correct forms and test those hypotheses and, finally, interaction leads learners to modify their IL and their output, a process considered necessary for language development to take.

In sum, although a few early authors tried to discourage teachers from correcting oral and written errors, recent literature has shown that it is not only positive but even necessary to provide L2 learners with negative evidence after an oral error. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) point out that successful uptake does not indicate that the learner has acquired the form but "these responses have been considered to contribute to L2 acquisition because they may indicate that the learner has noticed the feedback and has made some use of it (Mackey & Philp, 1998)". (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011:75). Nevertheless, despite researchers' agreement on the need of CF, the jury is still out concerning the specific aspects of this issue, as we will see in the following sections.

3.2. WHEN SHOULD LEARNERS' ERRORS BE CORRECTED?

The debate in this respect is between those authors who consider that correction should be immediate, even interrupting the learner after they make a mistake (Doughty, 2001; Loewen, 2004) or those who advocate for a correction delayed in time, either after the learner's utterance or in a more delayed manner after the task has been completed or even in a later lesson (Dabaghi, 2006; Rahimi & Dastjerdi, 2012; Rolin- Ianziti, 2006).

Before exploring this matter further, we need to point out that we are dealing with OCF, which, unlike WCF, tends to be provided immediately. Teachers, while immersed in oral interaction, generally offer OCF right after the error has been uttered, in order to make a contrast between the target form and the incorrect form, especially in the case of recasts. Prompts might be provided later in the lesson, so as learners have finished producing meaning and they can focus on language itself.

Feedback has been suggested to be optimally provided within forty seconds of the error (Doughty, 2001), which has been corroborated in a few studies. For instance, in her study on uptake in incidental focus on form, Loewen (2004) found that feedback timing, together with its complexity and type, influenced the occurrence of uptake as well as "successful uptake" or repair. Thus, immediate feedback produced higher rates of uptake and repair. This is explained because delayed feedback often consisted of form-focused episodes with no opportunity for uptake in the form of comments on the errors. In a small-scale study on delayed feedback, Rolin-Ianziti (2006) found that delayed feedback had a positive effect in uptake and repair as long as this feedback was made in such a way that encouraged learners' self-repair: "Delaying the provision of feedback offers teacher and learners the opportunity to engage in the negotiation of form after the completion of a meaning-based activity. Such negotiation, allowing learners to reflect on form and to reformulate his or her erroneous utterances, may help develop accuracy within the communicative classroom." (Rolin-Ianziti 2006:12).

Furthermore, as Rolin-Ianziti (2006:2) points out, not only researchers but also methodologists advise teachers to delay feedback provision: "Many teaching recommendations also favor delayed feedback (Edge, 1989) arguing that learners should not be interrupted "in the middle of what they are saying" (Bartram & Walt, 1991:41)". The reason for such recommendations tends to be related to affective concerns. In a more

recent small-scale study on delayed feedback and anxiety, Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012) provide another example of the benefits of delayed feedback, in this case improving fluency and accuracy (though not complexity) measures as well as reducing learners' self-perceived level of anxiety.

On the whole, the answer to when to correct learners' errors seems to be that teachers ought to delay CF a little in order not to hinder learners' fluency or self-esteem. Moreover, in order to obtain these benefits, feedback provision has to be selective as well as delayed, as we will see in the following section.

3.3. WHICH ERRORS SHOULD BE CORRECTED?

The debate on whether CF should be made in a comprehensive or selective manner seems to be quite settled. In general, authors support the idea that OCF should be selective. As opposed to WCF, where generally teachers correct all or the majority of learners' errors, OCF tends to be selective, since teachers usually ignore some of the errors when involved in oral interaction, either unconsciously (because they miss some errors), or deliberately (making a selection of the learners' errors following different criteria). The question is, then, how teachers can make this selection in order for CF to be most effective. From a theoretical point of view, we may follow Nassaji and Fotos's (2011) suggestions concerning which errors to correct. They make a distinction between errors and mistakes, local or global errors (see section 1.2 for definitions). They suggest that errors and global errors should be corrected. Priority should be established in terms of frequency or stigmatizing effects of the error.

As far as research is concerned, a variable that has been investigated as having a potential effect on uptake is error type or the type of language feature involved in the CFE (Al-Surmi, 2012; Choi & Li, 2012; Dabaghi & Basturkmen, 2009; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Ellis, 2007; Harley, 1989; Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Jeon, 2007; Kartchava &

Ammar, 2014a; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 2007; Lyster, 1994, 1998, 2001, Mackey et al., 2000; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Rolin-Ianziti, 2006, Sheen, 2006; L. White, 1991; Yang & Lyster, 2010). Learners seem to perceive feedback on some kinds of errors better than on others. For example, Gass and Lewis (2007) found out that learners notice feedback on lexical and phonological errors more accurately than when they are corrected on their morpho-syntactic errors. This finding was also present in Mackey et al. (2000) study and in a more recent study Mifka Profozic (2014: 115) expresses the same idea: "It seems that the **lack of saliency**, more than the implicitness of negative feedback, could explain why recasts in certain situations may be difficult to notice. Specifically, morpho-syntactic corrections in recasts may not be as easy to notice as recasts containing lexical or phonological corrections (Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Mackey & Goo, 2007). […]. Talmy (2008) posits that closed-class (functional) categories are less salient than open-class (lexical) categories". Therefore, there seems to be a clear relation between CF noticeability and the grammatical target it addresses (Kartchava & Ammar, 2014a).

Another idea connected with the type of error to be selected is the learners' developmental level. It seems that recasts are better to be used when errors are beyond learners' knowledge whereas prompts are beneficial when the learners can self-repair their errors. In a study looking at early and late[8] language features, Dabaghi and Basturkmen (2009) found that late features were better learned with implicit feedback and early features with explicit CF.

Furthermore, it seems that there is a connection between the type of error corrected and the CF type as far as uptake is concerned. For instance, Lyster (2001) and Mackey et al. (2000), among others, indicated that learners were more likely to perceive recasts when

[8] Features that are typically acquired at an early or late stage in the process of language learning.

they addressed phonological and lexical errors than when they addressed morpho-syntactic ones. In this respect, Tsang (2004) comes to the conclusion that input-providing types are more appropriate for phonological errors while prompts facilitate repair of grammar errors. Similarly, Gurzynski-Weiss (2010) concluded in her review of CF studies that implicit feedback is better perceived when it targets phonological and lexical errors (Carpenter, Jeon, MacGregor, & Mackey, 2006; Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Han, 2008; Mackey, et al., 2000; Sheen, 2006). We can also find this idea in Saito (2013). The author explains that for phonological learning recasts have been found to be more salient and therefore more effective, in spite of the tendency of the teachers and interlocutors to offer recasts for morphosyntactic errors instead of phonological errors (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Kim & Han, 2007; Lyster, 1998; Mackey et al., 2000; Sheen, 2006). This has been found in French as a L2 (FSL; Lyster, 1998) ESL (Ellis et al., 2001) and EFL (Sheen, 2006) as well as laboratory settings (Mackey et al., 2000, Kim & Han, 2007). Saito (2013) further argues about the multiple benefits of recasts for phonological errors since this CF type provides learners with negative evidence about the nature of their pronunciation, positive evidence with the teacher's model and output practice when learners repeat the reformulated form.

Therefore, besides considering learners' developmental level and aiming at global and frequent errors, it seems that it is wise to take into account the type of error when deciding CF type, as each type of correction provides different benefits for L2 learning. This leads us to the next section ("How should errors be corrected?") where we will explore the effects of the different types of feedback on learners' uptake and repair.

3.4. HOW SHOULD ERRORS BE CORRECTED?

The variable of CF type is probably the one that has generated the greatest debate and has been the most widely researched, alone or in combination with other factors.

Researchers have tried to answer the question of which type is the most effective from different perspectives, using diverse methodologies and obtaining varied results. In this section, we will review exploratory studies on the frequency and distribution of CF types in real classrooms as well as on the effect that each type has on the learners' production. Moreover, we will also review those experimental or quasi-experimental studies conducted both in classrooms and laboratory settings with the same aim.

A large number of studies has examined the **distribution** of CF types, (Clavel, 2005; Lochtman, 2002, 2005; Lyster, 1998; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey et al., 2000; Oliver & Grote, 2010; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Samar & Shayestefar, 2009; Sheen, 2004, 2006; Vicente-Rasoamala, 1998) with the result that recasts were the most frequent (Doughty, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 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).

Besides looking at the distribution of CF, we find a large number of studies looking at learners' **uptake** and the potential variables influencing it (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Dabaghi, 2006; Dabaghi & Basturkmen, 2009; Clavel, 2005; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Havranek, 2002; Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Kim & Mathes, 2001; Lochtman 2002, 2005; Loewen, 2004; Lyster, 1998, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey et al., 2000; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Oliver & Grote, 2010; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Rahimi & Dastjerdi, 2012; Révész, 2012; Rolin-Ianziti, 2006; Saito & Lyster, 2012; Samar & Shayestefar, 2009; Sheen 2004, 2006, 2008; Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009; Veliz, 2008; Yang & Lyster, 2010). In general, CF has been found to be effective in leading learners' attention to target forms, as we mentioned above. Immediate uptake is the most frequently used measure to examine CF

effectiveness. However, some authors argue that it is not the best way to look at it, as immediate uptake does not guarantee learning (Goo & Mackey, 2013) and it is considered by some authors as 'a discourse move and not an instance of acquisition' (Llinares & Lyster, 2014), suggesting that delayed post-tests or even stimulated recall protocols are better procedures. Nevertheless, uptake is an indication of noticing of CF and, most probably, an indication or predictor of subsequent L2 learning. However, researchers have been interested in digging into the elements that can make CF more effective. The variable that has been more profusely researched is the type of CF that teachers (or NSs) provide to learners' errors and the proportion of uptake that these different types of CF obtain. Not only exploratory or quasi-experimental studies have been conducted, but also a number of meta-analysis exploring this issue (Li, 2010; Lyster et al., 2013; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Russell & Spada, 2006; Spada 2011).

Unexpectedly, although recasts are the most frequent type of CF, they have been found to obtain the smallest proportion of uptake in most studies. Since Lyster and Ranta's (1997) seminal study, an overall higher effect has been found in more explicit types of correction. In general, results show that the more explicit CF type the larger benefit (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada, 2011) and if the learner has opportunities for self-repair, the correction will be more effective (Lyster & Mori, 2006). So even recasts can be made more effective by making them more explicit and salient and triggering a repetition or some sort of response from the learner, as we saw in section 1.3.

The preference for more salient and explicit CF has to do with what we have explained in the previous section: it seems that different types of CF work better with certain types of errors or language features. Therefore, it could be advisable to combine the use of implicit and explicit types, and select one type or another taking into account the target form we are dealing with at each moment. As we have already mentioned, the

jury is still out on whether one type is more effective than another. However, we can find some tentative answers if we look at research on CF types in detail. In what follows we are going to explain the three most debatable issues on CF in recent literature: recast effectiveness, implicit vs. explicit types, and prompts vs. reformulations. The three revolve around the same topic, namely the degree of explicitness as a factor for CF effectiveness, but, since this is a widely researched question, we are going to examine each of the debates separately.

3.4.1. RECASTS

The most controversial CF type has been recast, with a debate on whether they are beneficial for L2 learning, effective only with some kind of errors or not effective at all. Révész (2012) explains that although some authors have disregarded the benefits of recasts for L2 learning (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster et al., 2013), several meta-analyses (Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007) and diverse empirical studies on CF have found that they play a beneficial role. The author points out that the influence of recasts on learning has been found to be mediated by a number of **factors** such as developmental readiness or proficiency (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Long et al, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Philp, 2003) or instructional context (Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2004), among others.

We can also find some conclusions in Saito and Lyster's study (2012) in which the researchers argue that recasts are effective for phonological development because learners' notice the corrective nature of recasts on pronunciation errors (Carpenter et al., 2006; Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster, 1998; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey et al., 2000; Sheen, 2006).

As recasts are the most frequent type of CF researchers have established different taxonomies based on their features. For instance, Sheen (2006) investigated the

relationship between recasts characteristics and learner uptake. In order to do so, she created a coding system that classified recasts according to their characteristics. First, she distinguished between multi-move and single-move recasts. Then, when looking at single-move recasts, several aspects were considered: mode (declarative or interrogative), scope (isolated or incorporated), reduction (reduction or non-reduction), length (word/short phrase, long phrase or clause), number of changes (one or multiple changes), type of change (addition, deletion, substitution, reordering, combination), and linguistic focus (pronunciation, vocabulary or grammar). In a more recent study, Kartchava and Ammar (2014a) provide us with another classification of recasts. They consider type of reformulation (full or partial), mode (interrogative) and scope (integrated reformulation). In Chapter 7 we will present the recasts found in our study and we will illustrate these types with examples from our database.

Besides addressing specific types of error, such as phonological, Sheen (2006) suggests that teachers can make recasts more salient by using more explicit **types of recasts** as in the studies conducted by Doughty and Varela (1998) and Mackey and Philp (1998). She also explains how the instructional setting can affect recast effectiveness, as suggested in Lyster's (1998) and Sheen's (2004) studies. The author also talks about the importance of the methodology used in the different studies on recasts effectiveness, and mentions the lack of rigour in many studies, where researchers did not take into account supra-segmental features of the interaction. In the concluding section of her paper she claims that "the majority of recasts arising in the classrooms investigated are short, more likely to be declarative in mode, reduced, repeated, with a single error focus, and involve substitutions rather than deletions and additions. These characteristics were observed to be positively related to learner uptake and/or repair" (Sheen, 2006: 386-387). These recasts Sheen (2006) describes were found to be rather explicit, in contrast to the

traditional view of recasts as an implicit CF type. These recasts would be didactic not conversational, as no negotiation of meaning took place. This idea of the type of recast as being an influencing factor on effectiveness has been found by other researchers (Kim & Han, 2007; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster, 1998; Sheen, 2006).

In addition, Al-Surmi (2012) refers to one possible explanation for the low rates of uptake following recasts: he explains that, as VanPatten (1990) found, when learners have to attend to both form and content at the same time they might focus only on meaning and fail to perceive the corrective nature of recasts.

In a paper where Goo and Mackey (2013) present arguments in favour of the use of recasts and explain why a case against them is "neither convincing nor useful for advancing in the field", the authors talk about the diversity of the recast type and, similarly to Révész (2012), consider numerous factors that mediate their saliency and, therefore, their efficacy: developmental readiness, language proficiency level, recasts features (length, intonation, number of changes), setting and discourse context (nature of activity), type of target feature, IDs (language aptitude, WM capacity, intelligence, personality, motivation, learning styles, learning strategies, age, gender, interlocutors, setting and task characteristics).

Similarly, in a recent study of recasts and scaffolded feedback from a sociocultural perspective, Rassaei (2014) also lists several aspects that interfere with recast effectiveness (diverse instructional settings, learners' orientations and perceptions, proficiency and developmental readiness, the linguistic targets) and agrees with Sato's (2011) conclusion "that instructional context and learners' explicit knowledge interdependently help learners to notice and, as a result, benefit from recasts" (Rassaei, 2014: 419).

Some of these and other factors (such as age) are also mentioned in a recent study by Mifka Profozic (2014). Goo (2012: 448) reviews some of these factors as well, referring specifically to developmental level and proficiency as well as the characteristics of the provided recasts as affecting their noticeability.

In sum, recasts are not really effective in terms of immediate uptake due to their implicit nature and the difficulty of learners to process form and content at the same time. However, they can be made more explicit by changing their characteristics (length, intonation, emphasis). Moreover, as they do not require self-repair, we cannot be sure whether learners are really perceiving them or not. It is likely that recasts are more effective in the longer run. As we have seen, researchers have concluded that recast effectiveness depends on a large number of factors, mainly learners' ID and learning context. These factors and the extent to which they affect recast effectiveness still deserve further investigation.

3.4.2. IMPLICIT vs. EXPLICIT TYPES

In addition to the debate on the effectiveness of recasts, researchers have been concerned with the implicit-explicit distinction. There is general agreement on the idea of a continuum of explicitness (see section 1.3.1 above for more information) and the fact that types are not closed categories but can be made more or less explicit/implicit by varying their intrinsic features, as we saw in the previous section with recasts. The controversy in this case is related to the preference for implicit or explicit CF types. Proponents of FonF (Doughty, 2001; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 2007; Long & Robinson, 1998) champion implicit types whereas other researchers favour explicit types (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2007). In experimental studies, groups receiving explicit feedback outperformed those receiving implicit feedback (Andringa, Glopper, & de Hacquebord, 2011; Ellis, 2008; Ellis et al., 2006;

Lyster, 2004; Nassaji, 2009; Shirazi & Sadighi, 2012). Other studies found no difference between implicit and explicit types (Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Loewen & Nabei, 2007; Sauro, 2009) and in some studies implicit feedback types such as recasts were found to be especially effective for specific features such as articles or verb tenses (Egi, 2007, 2010; Sheen, 2008; Révész, 2012). In meta-analyses findings are mixed: Mackey and Goo (2007) reported a higher effect size for an implicit feedback type (i.e. recasts) than an explicit feedback type (i.e. metalinguistic feedback). Li (2010) and Lyster and Saito (2010) reported higher effect sizes for explicit feedback types (i.e. explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback). However, these varied findings can be attributed to methodological differences among the studies.

Therefore, we do not have a definite answer to the question of explicitness. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) give some suggestions for teachers that seem to be logical: the best idea would be to use different types of feedback if repair is not obtained with the first one or combine CF with other types of form-focused activities (Lyster, 2004). In order to decide which corrective techniques to use, teachers need to consider different variables, such as context, language level or learners' differences and perceptions about CF. Besides, more research is needed as to how to combine the types and the influence of the different variables, and, as we will explain later, teachers should be informed of research results in order to obtain the greatest CF effectiveness.

3.4.3. PROMPTS vs. REFORMULATIONS

The third debate concerning correction type includes the dichotomy prompts vs reformulations. As explained in section 1.3.1 above, prompts are types that push learners to self-repair and in reformulations the teacher provides the learner with the correct form. As in the other two debates, there are authors and studies that favour each of the two types. Li (2014:197) proposes an intermediate solution: "One solution is to attempt to

elicit self-correction, and to follow this by teacher correction if the former fails (Ellis, 2010). This 'prompt-then-provide' approach is also supported by SCT, according to which CF should be contingent (i.e. provided only when it is necessary) and tailored to the needs of individual learners (Lantolf, 2000)". Li (2014) suggests that teachers should try to initiate the correction with 'indirect CF' such as clarification request, elicitation or repetition in order to promote learner autonomy. Then, if these types do not obtain expected results, 'direct CF' can be offered in the form of recasts or explicit correction.

Kartchava and Ammar (2014a) call for further research on multiple feedback techniques arguing that learners might benefit from a balanced provision of prompts and recasts depending on the main orientation of the lesson, as the Counterbalance Hypothesis (Lyster & Mori, 2006) proposes. Nevertheless, the variable of instructional setting as an intervening factor on CF effectiveness has not been widely researched, as we will explain in Chapter 4.

In sum, multiple factors influence the effectiveness of CF types. Research shows that teachers should be aware of learners' and context differences and adapt CF accordingly. It appears that more explicit and output pushing types (the so-called prompts) are to be favoured but we still need to know further about the influence of the mentioned factors mediating CF effect.

In the next section, we will try to answer the last of Hendrickson's questions about oral correction, concerning the provider of CF.

3.5. WHO SHOULD DO THE CORRECTING?

The debate we will cover in this section deals with the question of who should initiate the correction, that is, whether it is beneficial to encourage learners to correct each other's errors (peer-correction) or teachers should be the (only) ones that provide CF.

This dissertation is focused on teacher correction, but we think it is interesting to comment on the possibility of peer-correction as well.

Let us start by trying to answer the following question: Is it advisable to encourage learners to correct other learners' errors? In their state-of-the-art article, Lyster et al. (2013) explain that learners in peer-interaction do correct some of their classmates' errors, mainly in the form of prompts or negotiation of form, as can be found in several studies on interaction (Fujii & Mackey, 2009; García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Gass & Varonis, 1989; Porter, 1986; Shehadeh, 1999).

In addition, there are some studies which have shown that peer CF occurring during oral interaction can contribute to L2 development (Adams, 2007; Sato & Lyster, 2012), even more than teachers' CF (Sippel & Jackson, 2015). Having concluded in section 3.4.3 that prompts appear to be more effective (at least for some kind of errors), it seems reasonable to suggest that peer-correction might be beneficial for L2 learning. The reason for the positive effect of peer correction might be that learners, while involved in peer-interaction, feel comfortable and collaborate to solve both the task and the language problems that may arise in that interaction. Peer correction has not been as profusely examined as CF provided by teachers or NSs, as most studies on peer interaction have focused on other aspects of negotiation of meaning. More research would be desirable, but, in general, low rates of peer correction have been found in those studies (Mackey et al., 2003; McDonough & Mackey, 2000; Philp, Walter & Basturkmen, 2010; Sato, 2007; Williams, 1999), which may be partly due to the participants' young age, so maybe learners need to be encouraged and trained to use CF techniques in order for those corrections to contribute to L2 learning. These low rates of peer correction might also have to do with learners' perceptions about CF, which we will analyse in our study below. Therefore, we will come to this point later.

In what follows we will return to the factors that we have mentioned in previous sections as intervening in CF effectiveness, although not included in Hendrickson's original questions, but demonstrated by research to mediate in CF noticing.

3.6. OTHER POTENTIALLY INTERVENING FACTORS

Throughout this chapter, we have followed the framing questions proposed by Hendrickson (1978) on the issue of CF in SLA. However, these questions seem to be limited in the sense that they do not include several factors that have also been investigated as possibly having an effect on CF efficacy. These factors, mentioned in previous sections, are for example the IDs, an umbrella term that includes context-related as well as learner-related variables. Besides, there are other intervening factors related to instruction type such as task type or communication mode. In this section, we will present an overall review of some studies looking at those different factors.

Thus, we can find studies on **task-related** variables (Gurzynski-Weiss & Révész 2012; Mackey, Kanganas & Oliver, 2006; Révész & Han, 2006) where task factors (e.g. task content familiarity) were found to influence feedback patterns, not only in laboratories but also in real classrooms, supporting thus the theoretical claims (Long, 1996; Robinson, 2007) that task type is a mediating factor both in teachers' CF amount and type and learners' use of that feedback. **Communication mode-** face-to-face vs. computer mediated- has also been investigated by Yilmaz (2012) where he found no intervention of communication mode in the CF effectiveness, and more recently by Gurzynski-Weiss and Baralt (2015), with findings pointing to a beneficial immediate effect of computer mediated feedback (recasts and explicit correction) over face-to-face feedback. Even though these advantages faded in delayed posttests, the researchers consider it interesting to further explore this variable in relation to CF.

As we explained above, learners' individual features such as **proficiency** have been researched, too. Carroll, Roberge and Swain (1992) and Havranek and Cesnik (2001) found that high proficiency learners scored higher in post-tests after CF than lower proficiency ones. In a study looking at the differences of recasts and prompts, Ammar and Spada (2006) found that feedback effect depended largely on the learners' proficiency level. That is, high proficiency learners benefited equally from recasts and prompts, but the lower proficiency learners benefited much more from prompts than from recasts. In Kennedy (2010) differences were found not only in the types of errors produced by each proficiency group, but also in the type of feedback provided by the teacher. In other studies, recasts were found to be more effective for advanced learners as they are more aware of mistakes and cognitively more developed (Long et al., 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Nassaji, 2010; Philp, 2003; Veliz, 2008).

Age is another variable that has been researched as possibly interfering with CF effect (Lyster & Saito, 2010, Mackey & Oliver, 2002, Oliver & Grote, 2010; Panova & Lyster, 2002, Sheen, 2004) with general results pointing at higher benefits from CF for older learners. Moreover, in Loewen (2004) study on CF timing, higher rates of uptake (and successful uptake) than in other studies were found and the author interprets these findings as a possible consequence of the specific learning context, with adult learners.

Other IDs studied have been **motivation** (extrinsic low vs high; Dekeyser, 1993; Goldstein, 2006), **language aptitude** (Dekeyser, 1993; Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Sheen, 2007), **learners' awareness** (Mackey, 2006; Mackey et al., 2000) and **learners' anxiety** (Sheen, 2008), with results showing an intervention of these factors in CF effectiveness in most of them.

Therefore, learners' IDs as well as other instructional factors appear to be intervening in the effectiveness of CF so they are worth being considered when

conducting research on this issue. Ellis (2010:339) explains that individual learner factors such as age, proficiency, motivation and learner beliefs "interact with contextual factors to mediate between the CF that learners receive and their engagement with the CF and thereby influence learning outcomes". The author criticizes that the majority of previous studies on CF have only focused on CF types when they should consider IDs and contextual factors as moderators of the effect of CF on learning outcomes.

3.7. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have seen that research in real classrooms (and laboratory settings) has found a positive effect of CF on learners' IL, due to the benefits that negotiation of form and modified output have for L2 learning in instructional settings. In general, OCF is found to be more effective (and less face-threatening) when provided in a somewhat delayed manner: waiting after the learner has produced a whole utterance in order not to interfere with fluency development, but not too long after the error so that the learner can establish comparisons with the target form, especially in the case of reformulations. As to which errors to be addressed, teachers are encouraged to select global or repetitive errors or those errors which can cause communication breakdowns. The error type has been found to interact with CF type as far as effectiveness is concerned, so teachers should use different CF types for different errors, such as recasts for phonological and lexical errors and prompts for grammar errors, especially if the erroneous utterance involves a complex rule.

Overall, previous studies seem to conclude that more explicit and output-pushing types of correction lead to a greater uptake and consequently larger learning benefits. Thus, prompts should be employed in the first place, and then a combination of CF types can be offered, with the target form provided to the learner in the form of a reformulation, only if prompts do not obtain error repair. However, one shoe does not fit all, and

researchers working within a SCT perspective have found that there are individual and contextual factors that influence the effectiveness of CF types, such as age, proficiency level or task type.

As to who should do the correction, research has also shown that, although peer correction leads to a large amount of uptake, learners do not generally correct each other and teachers do not encourage or train them to do so. As we mentioned above, these low rates of peer feedback are related to **teachers' and learners' beliefs** about CF, another ID which should be considered when studying CF, but few studies have been carried out on what teachers and learners believe about oral correction and the potential effect that these beliefs might have on the CFEs that take place in real classrooms. Since this is one of the key elements in the present dissertation, we will devote Chapter 5 to this factor. Apart from these IDs, another variable that has been researched concerning CF effectiveness is the **instructional context** where this correction is provided. As we mentioned above, context has been found to moderate CF provision as well as uptake, but, unfortunately, in CF literature little research has been conducted studying instructional setting. Chapter 4 will be devoted to a detailed consideration of the influence of context on CF provision as this is a crucial aspect of the present study.

CHAPTER 4: LEARNING CONTEXT

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Research in the field of SLA has shown that the acquisition of a second language evolves in a different manner and rate depending on the setting where it is acquired. Different variables come into play when the acquisition occurs in a natural setting where the language is spoken in all social contexts, or in a formal setting. In this dissertation, we are concerned only with the latter type of L2 learning. This formal context involves several variables such as the teacher/instructor, the IDs of the learners and the methodology employed in the classroom. As we have seen in previous chapters, the instructional context and the factors associated with it, influence the elements of oral interaction. In this chapter, we will deal with the variable learning context and its potential effect on the types of CF provided and the learners' uptake of that feedback. First, in section 4.2, we will review studies on CF that have taken into account the variable instructional setting and we will show how, despite the results that show its influence on CFEs, this factor has been underresearched when investigating CF. Then, in section 4.3, we will focus on Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), we will explain the nature and origins of this learning approach in a foreign language setting and the manner in which it has been claimed to facilitate the SLA process. Finally, we will review the few studies that have included CLIL when investigating CF and we will present their major findings.

4.2. THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL CONTEXT ON CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK.

In this section, we will review studies that have explored the issue of CF comparing instructional settings. In Chapters 2 and 3 we saw that learning context could

be one of the factors affecting the development of interaction and consequently, CFEs, which are part of this classroom interaction. However, there are not many studies on CF that have paid attention to this variable, even though it seems that it has a considerable effect on both CF provision and learners' uptake, as we will explain in what follows.

In this section, we will review studies on CF that have been set in different types of instructional settings. The aim is to clarify whether studies in L2 and FL settings have obtained different results regarding the quantity and quality of CFEs and the possible explanation for these differences. Therefore, we have divided the section in three groups of studies. Those which have taken place in L2 settings such as immersion classrooms (Table 2), then, those in FL settings (Table 3) and finally, those studies which have compared two or more types of instructional contexts (Table 4).

4.2.1. SECOND LANGUAGE CONTEXT

Table 2 displays studies on CF that are set in classrooms where the target language is a L2, such as immersion classrooms. In general, noticing and subsequent use of CF by producing modified output has been found to benefit L2 learning (Mackey, 2006). CF has been found effective when combined with FFI while this type of teaching technique without CF was found insufficient for acquisition (Saito & Lyster, 2012). As explained in Chapter 3 (sections 3.3. and 3.4), recasts are the most frequently used type in these meaning-focused classrooms, however, prompts have been found to be more beneficial than reformulations (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Indeed, in studies where recasts, prompts, and no CF were compared, no differences were found between groups receiving recasts and groups not receiving CF at all (Lyster, 2004). In other studies, the effect of CF depended on age, with adult learners obtaining more benefits from recasts than children (Oliver & Grote, 2010), who made a better use of prompts. Research has also found that proficiency influenced the noticeability of recasts, showing that more proficient learners

were more able to notice the corrective intention of this CF type while low proficiency learners made a better use of prompts (Ammar & Spada, 2006) and obtained low rates of uptake and repair after recasts, even in studies that had adult learners (Panova & Lyster, 2002), which shows that proficiency makes a real difference in the perception and use of CF types (Philp, 2003). In general, it was found that the higher the proficiency level, the greater the uptake (Kennedy, 2010). Other IDs such as learners' anxiety level and motivation have been found to have an effect on how learners receive and use CF (Ellis, et al., 2006; Sheen, 2008).

As explained in the previous chapter, the effectiveness of CF types was conditioned by the error type addressed (Loewen, 2004). Therefore, phonological errors were better repaired after recasts, while morphosyntactic errors obtained higher rates of repair after the use of prompts (Choi & Li, 2012; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014a; Lyster, 1998), as recasts on morphosyntactic errors are not generally noticed (Mackey et al., 2000) in this setting where both teachers and learners focus almost exclusively on meaning and the nature of the interaction is communicative and not really concerned with accuracy. In spite of the apparent lack of effectiveness of recasts, teachers used a high amount of this CF type with all error types, leading to low rates of uptake probably due to the learners' inability to notice the corrective intention of those CF moves. Once again, recasts were more effective when combination or more explicit recasts were employed (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Philp, 2003), probably because of the greater noticeability and explicitness of these recasts types, as we have already commented before. However, recast type was not found to be influential in other studies that looked only at morphosyntactic errors (Al-Surmi, 2012).

TABLE 2: STUDIES IN L2 CONTEXTS

AUTHOR(S) Year **CONTEXT SL/FL Age**	**Aims**	**Findings**	**Implications**
Al-Surmi 2012 ESL Adults Different L1s	Learners' noticing of recasts to morpho-syntactic errors- dependent on recast type? Declarative vs interrogative 2 communicative tasks (spot the difference and picture sequencing, two introspective tasks (online journal & stimulated recall) and GJT.	RQ1: Recasts on MS errors are noticed but many are not. Due to attention to meaning (communicative tasks). RQ2: No effect of recast type. RQ3: Delayed noticing (but not enough for claiming learning-FR).	Recasts are not noticeable-teachers should reevaluate their use of recasts in classroom interaction and use other effective ways to draw learners' attention to their errors.
Ammar & Spada 2006 ESLL1 French	Benefits of recasts and prompts in 6 grades of proficiency. 3rd person singular possessive determiners.	Prompts more effective. Recasts' effectiveness depends on proficiency: -High proficiency equal benefit. -Low proficiency more benefit from prompts.	*'One size does not fit all'*
Choi & Li 2012 ESOL Child Different L1s	Corrective feedback and uptake.	Recasts and EC, no prompts. High proportion of uptake. Grammar errors received recasts and low uptake. Phonological errors high repair.	Differences due to instructional context (children).
Doughty & Varela 1998 ESL Middle School Science	Effectiveness of recasts on English past tense.	Recast group outperformed in accuracy and use.	
Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen 2001 ESL Adult Different L1s	Focus on form episodes (FFE). Uptake in communicative ESL teaching.	Uptake higher in reactive FonF and learner-initiated FonF than teacher-initiated. Most FFE involved negotiation of form as opposed to meaning but more uptake in meaning (vocab). More uptake than content-based French immersion in Lyster & Ranta (1997).	
Ellis, Loewen & Erlam 2006 ESL Different L1s	Recasts vs. metalinguistic explanation. Methodological problems in previous studies: implicit vs explicit knowledge.	Metalinguistic explanation better for implicit & explicit knowledge. IDs (motivation & anxiety) led to differences in effect of CF types.	
Kartchava & Ammar 2014a ESL L1 French	Noticeability & effectiveness of CF (recasts, prompts and combination of both) in response to errors of simple past & questions.	Noticeability dependent on target (CF on past tense errors noticed more) Prompts & combination show better the corrective intent of the CF move	FR: delayed posttest/other proficiency levels or L1.
Kennedy 2010 ESL Child L1 Chinese	Proficiency level as factor: type of error, type of CF and type of uptake & repair	Differences in type of error produced. Differences in type of feedback given to the 2 proficiency groups (finely tuned CF based on ID). Low repair but higher in Mid/High group.	More studies on individual teachers. Qualitative & quantitative. Teachers tailor CF to their perceived learners' level.
Loewen 2004 ESL Different L1s	Occurrence of uptake. Aspects of incidental focus on form that predict uptake and successful uptake.	Higher uptake rates than other studies. Characteristics such as complexity, timing, and type of feedback influenced both the production of uptake and the successfulness of it.	Learning contexts important for uptake (adults more) Be careful with tasks: if activities are meaning focused, more CFEs will occur.
Lyster 1998 FSLL1 English	Error & feedback types. Immediate repair to CF types.	Phonological & grammatical errors received recasts. Lexical errors negotiation of form. Grammatical least corrected.	Ts should use negotiation of form with grammar errors (& lexical).

		More repair with negotiation of form in lexical & grammar. Phonological more repair with recasts.	
Lyster 2004 FSLL1 English	Effects of prompts and recasts in FFI for gender.	FFI clearly effective. Prompts more effective in FFI. Significant improvement oral & written when using prompts over recasts or no feedback.	Balance between prompts & recasts, taking into account specific features in the IL.
Lyster & Ranta 1997 FSLL1 English	Frequency and distribution of 6 CF types. Frequency & distribution of uptake to each type.	Recasts although inefficient. Elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition more effective for negotiation of form (no correct form provided).	Level of proficiency important for type of feedback.
Mackey 2006 ESL	Relationship between noticing feedback and L2 development. Online journals, stimulated recall and exit questionnaires.	Almost 2/3 of learners reported noticing of CF (recasts & negotiation). Positive relationship between noticing and L2 development.	
Mackey Gass & McDonough (2000) ESL/IFL Adult Different L1s	Feedback on a range of morphosyntactic, lexical and phonological forms and subsequent learner recognition.	Accurate perceptions of lexical, semantic and phonological feedback. Morphosyntactic feedback generally not perceived. Due to communicative nature of the interaction.	
Oliver & Grote 2010 ESL Different L1s	Different types of recasts. Child vs adults/ teacher fronted vs pair-work.	Similar pattern in adults and child. More single-move recasts. Adults more repeated recasts, children more combination recasts. Higher uptake for adults.	
Panova & Lyster 2002 ESL Adults Different L1s	Range & types of feedback. Uptake & immediate repair. Lyster & Ranta 1997 (young learners and CBT) but with adults & CLT.	Implicit: recasts and translation (maybe due to ss' low level)- Low uptake & repair: due to type of feedback. Similar results.	-Not abandon recasts but use them after pre-selected errors. -Balance of types.
Philp 2003 ESL Different L1s	Learners' noticing of recasts in dyadic task-based interaction.	Noticing of 60-70% of recasts-depending on language level and length of recasts.	
Rolin-Ianziti 2006 FSL Different L1s	Descriptive study-two approaches of delayed feedback: review errors without repair option or initiation or repair.	Teacher initiation-highest uptake and repair.	Teacher training necessary for initiation techniques. FR: other contexts.
Saito & Lyster 2012 ESLL1 Japanese	Japanese Intermediate learners (contacted via e-mail, considered ESL). FFI and CF (recast) effect on pronunciation.	FFI+CF effective for acquisition of the consonant. FFI insufficient on its own.	
Sheen 2008 ESL Different L1s	Recasts & anxiety. Modified output.	Low-anxiety recast group outperformed high-anxiety recast group and low-anxiety control group, but no significant difference in high-anxiety recast and control groups. Recasts most effective for low-anxiety learners who produced high levels of modified output.	

4.2.2. FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONTEXT

As for the studies in FL settings, although the general positive effect of CF in L2 learning is also reported (Havranek, 2002), some findings diverge from L2 settings, as shown in Table 3 below and explained in what follows.

As in L2 classrooms, in FL settings the type of CF influenced the amount of uptake obtained by teachers' CF moves (Havranek, 2002; Havranek & Cesnik, 2001), although in some cases, no differences were found in the effectiveness of recasts and metalinguistic feedback for the acquisition of the target feature (Goo, 2012). In a study carried out from a SCT perspective, Rassaei (2014) found that scaffolded feedback led to better results in post-tests than recasts. In a study where they investigated the different CF types and the uptake and repair types in communicative classrooms, Samar and Shayestefar (2009) found that metalinguistic and explicit types obtained the largest amount of uptake but the highest rates of repair was achieved by metalinguistic CF. Recasts obtained the maximum no-uptake cases. Explicit correction has been found to be more effective than recasts (Yilmaz, 2012), but other variables such as language acquisition ability influenced the different results, with only learners with higher language analytic ability (LAA) and WM obtaining more benefits form explicit correction (Yilmaz, 2013). Moreover, the type of errors is also an intervening factor in the effectiveness of the different CF types, with implicit types such as recasts being more effective for late features and explicit correction for early developmental features (Dabaghi & Basturkmen, 2009). Prompts have been found to lead to more accuracy in the use of regular past forms than recasts or no feedback but similar benefits have been found after recasts and prompts with irregular forms (Yang & Lyster, 2010). Similarly to L2 contexts, Nabei and Swain (2002) found that recasts on morphosyntactic errors were less perceived than recasts on lexical or phonological errors. IDs were found to be related to the effect of CF (Havranek & Cesnik, 2001), with learners

with low extrinsic motivation obtaining higher scores after CF while those with high extrinsic motivation showed no improvement (DeKeyser 1993). Other IDs studied were WM and language acquisition ability, which were found to be related to the effect of explicit and implicit CF, respectively (Li, 2013). Proficiency has been found to influence CF effectiveness, with only low proficient learners benefiting from clarification requests (Mifka-Profozic, 2014) and recasts being more effective for advanced learners (Veliz, 2008). Task-related features were found to affect CF type, amount of CF provided and learners' use of that CF (Gurzynski-Weiss & Révész, 2012).

On the whole, it seems that results in L2 and FL contexts are similar regarding the amount of CF, types of correction, effectiveness of these types and variables that influence this effect. If we look at the two contexts separately, we cannot say that they lead to different findings. However, researchers and theorists have claimed that instructional context does play a role in the quality of the CFEs, so this apparent similarity found in our revision needs to be examined rigorously in comparative studies. Unfortunately, in spite of the call for comparative research on instructional settings, only a few studies have investigated the potential effect of this variable on CF provision and use.

TABLE 3: STUDIES IN FL CONTEXTS

AUTHOR(S) Year **CONTEXT L2/FL Age**	**Aims**	**Findings**	**Implications**
Alcón 2007 EFL L1 Spanish	Effect of incidental FonF on vocabulary noticing and learning.	Reactive FonF no effect on noticing but yes on vocab learning.	
Clavel 2005 EFL L1 Spanish	Type of correction & uptake in two different classrooms (ESO-non-native T & Bach-native teacher)	Differences in error type, CF types and uptake. *Bachiller* learners and teachers more concerned with final written exam (*Selectividad*) and anxious.	Take into account learners' anxiety. Use new feedback techniques.
Dabaghi & Basturkmen 2009 Liferent L1s	Implicit (recasts) vs Explicit correction Developmentally early vs late features	Higher scores for explicit feedback Late features better learned with implicit and early with explicit.	Role of metalinguistic awareness in language learning.
DeKeyser 1993 FFL	Effects of correction for a year.	Error correction did not have an overall effect on learner proficiency. Learners with low extrinsic motivation did better on oral tasks after error correction whereas those with high extrinsic motivation did better on oral tasks without error correction	
Goo 2012 EFL L1 Korean	Relative efficacy of recasts over metalinguistic feedback. How WM affects CF benefits.	Recasts were as effective as metalinguistic feedback in facilitating the acquisition of the target construction. Executive attention or attention control (considered as a critical component of WMC) is involved in the noticing of recasts, but not in the noticing of metalinguistic feedback.	
Gurzynski-Weiss & Révész 2012 SFL	Tasks-related variables as influencing CF provision/ modified output.	Task factors affect amount and type of CF provided as well as opportunities for and incidence of modified output.	Classroom orientation to meaning or form affects CF provision & uptake
Havranek 2002 EFL L1 German	Effectiveness of CF. Situational (type, length, focus of utterance) & linguistic factors. Learners as active participants vs auditors.	Facilitating. Influence of factors. Different extent: active needs to repeat & auditor needs time to reformulate silently.	
Havranek & Cesnik 2001 EFL	Success of error correction (measured by a test).	-Improved performance. -Success dependent on variables: type of error (grammatical over pronunciation in direct correction group and pronunciation better in peer-correction group), type of correction (CF techniques eliciting self-repair the most successful for repair), learners' personal characteristics (proficiency, verbal intelligence, attitude towards correction).	
Li 2013 L2 Chinese L1 English/Korean	Implicit (recasts) and explicit (metalinguistic) feedback. Interaction with LAA and WM.	LAA was predictive of the effects of implicit CF. WM was sensitive to the effects of explicit but not implicit.	
Lochtman 2002 GFL L1 French & English	Frequency & distribution in analytic FLT. Uptake to different types.	Mainly metalinguistic and elicitations. Similar uptake but maybe for different purposes.	FR: Whether recasts better for items or words and prompts for rules.
Lochtman 2005 GFL L1 French & English	OCF types in analytic FLT.	Fewer recasts than in ESL (only 30%) and a very high use of metalinguistic feedback and elicitation (23,9% and 30,2%) Higher recast uptake (35%) than in French immersion.	

Mifka Profozic 2014 FFL L1 English	Recast vs. Clarification Request. Past tense in French.	Recasts more effective for passé compose. Recasts & CR beneficial for imparfait. Only low proficiency learners benefited from CR.	Uptake not indication of learning with recasts.
Nabei & Swain 2002 EFLL1 Japanese	One adult in theme-based EFL classroom: stimulated recall interviews for awareness of recasts and GJT for learning.	Recasts to morphosyntactic errors less perceived than to lexical and phonological. Uptake not enough to measure effectiveness. Effectiveness depends on discourse content. More attention in group than in teacher-fronted interaction.	
Rahimi & Dastjerdi 2012 EFL L1 Persian	Immediate vs Delayed CF. Effects of CF in complexity, fluency and accuracy (CAF) Anxiety.	Delayed correction effect on fluency and accuracy but not complexity. Less anxiety with delayed correction.	
Rassaei 2014 EFL L1 Persian	Scaffolded feedback vs Recasts: effect on L2 development. Sociocultural approach (not cognitive-interactionist as most CF research).	CF better than no feedback. Recasts benefit on metalinguistic knowledge. Scaffolded feedback better than Recasts.	Collaborative and negotiated performance good for error correction. FR in open classroom and compare with explicit CF.
Révész 2012 EFL	Recasts	Recasts promoted both types of knowledge but better more procedural WM mediates on recast effect	
Saito 2013 EFL L1 Japanese	Recasts vs. Recasts+ FFI. Speech perception and production of /®/. Meaning-oriented lessons.	FFI only improvement under trained conditions. Recast + FFI improvement under trained and untrained conditions.	
Samar & Shayestefar 2009 EFL L1 Persian	CF techniques in 2 communicative EFL classrooms. Type of CF-uptake & repair to each.	90% errors with CF. Metalinguistic & recast most frequent. More attention to content in non-CF group. Metalinguistic & explicit most uptake and metalinguistic most repair. Recast most no-uptake.	
Veliz 2008 EFL L1 Spanish	Recasts effect on self-correction.	Recasts more effective for advanced learners but difference not striking.	
Yang & Lyster 2010 EFL L1 Mandarin Chinese	Effects of prompts & recasts. CF on content vs. on use of regular & irregular past tense. Chinese university learners. -form-focused production / EFL -oral, written & questionnaire for awareness	Significant gains by the prompt group on all eight measures, the recast group on four, and the control group on three. The effects of prompts were larger than those of recasts for increasing 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.	
Yilmaz 2012 FL Turkish L1 English	Effect of CF (EC vs. recasts), communication mode, target structure salience on the acquisition of 2 Turkish morphemes.	EC advantage over recasts. Neither communication mode nor target structure moderated difference between EC and recasts but contributed to CF effectiveness	
Yilmaz 2013 FL TurkishL1 English	Effect of LAA and WM on the benefits from CF (EC vs. RC).	WM and LAA moderated the effect of feedback. EC worked better than recasts only with high LAA or WM.	

4.2.3. COMPARISON OF SECOND AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONTEXTS

So far in this section 4.2 we have reviewed the main findings of studies set in L2 as well as FL settings and the results as to the use of CF by the teachers and the learners' uptake to these CF moves seem to be similar in both types of settings. Lyster and Saito's (2010) meta-analysis examined the potential influence of several factors on CF effectiveness, and one of those happened to be the instructional setting.The authors found no significant differences between L2 and FL settings as to the effect of CF, attributing the results to the 'too fluid' distinction between L2 and FL settings, meaning that the differences between the two contexts may not be so clear, or maybe to the fact that CF does not activate different cognitive processes across instructional settings. In spite of their unexpected findings, the authors refer to Mackey and Goo's (2007) meta-analysis, where a positive relation was found between setting and the effect of CF and they call for further research on this factor in qualitative studies where the relation between contextual variables and CF effectiveness may be better understood.

Not only meta-analyses have investigated the contextual variable but also a few researchers have attempted to compare their own results with previous studies' in other settings and they have reported differences. For example, in a study in an ESL context with adults, Ellis et al. (2001) found higher uptake rates than Lyster and Ranta (1997) in FI classrooms. Employing a different notion of uptake (i.e. what learners reported to have learned, see footnote 4), Slimani (1992) found that it was affected by the nature of the lesson. Thus, learners reported having learned more when teachers used form-focused techniques or CF. A similar finding was reported by the teachers in Oliver and Mackey's (2003) research. They preferred to provide learners with CF in interactions focused on explicit language and content, while management-focused exchanges attracted the smallest amount of CF moves. The learners in this study were most likely to use this

feedback in exchanges that were focused on language than on content or classroom-management.

In a paper where he presents a framework for CF research, Ellis (2010) speaks about two different types of contextual variables that might influence CF effectiveness: macro-factors or type of learning setting and micro-factors or type of activity. As to the learning setting, he mentions Sheen's (2004) and Lyster and Mori's (2006) studies- reviewed below- as evidence of the influence of learning setting in the differences in CF and uptake. Ellis (2010: 341) also claims that "contextual factors interact with individual difference factors."

Table 4 below includes studies that have been devoted to compare CFEs in different settings, with the aim of showing whether the instructional context is an intervening variable or not and to what extent. For a better understanding of the evolution of comparative research on CF in different instructional settings we will review them in chronological order instead of the alphabetical order in which they are displayed in the table.

TABLE 4: COMPARATIVE STUDIES

AUTHORS Year CONTEXTS L2/FL/CLIL Age	**Aims**	**Findings**	**Implications**
Llinares & Lyster 2014 FSL L1 English JFL CLIL L1 Spanish Primary Education	Comparison of CF and uptake.	More similarities between CLIL & JFL in CF. In CLIL recasts more effective. Prompts more effective in French immersion. JFL similar uptake to recasts, EC and prompts. Didactic recasts in CLIL and JI and conversational recasts in FI.	FR: T s' beliefs/ Comparison of contexts in secondary education.
Lochtman 2007 GFL L1 Dutch & CLIL (FSL) Primary Education		Fewer recasts than in ESL (only 30%) and a very high use of metalinguistic feedback and elicitation (23,9% and 30,2%) Higher recast uptake (35%) than in French immersion.	
Lyster & Mori 2006 JFL & FSL Primary Education	Immediate effects of explicit correction, recasts, and prompts on learner uptake and repair. Counterbalance Hypothesis.	Predominance of recasts. Different uptake & repair to different feedback. CH: more repair to prompts in French and recasts in Japanese.	
Milla & García Mayo2014 CLIL & EFL 17-18 years old (High school level) L1 Spanish/Basque	CF and uptake CLIL & EFL secondary learners	Differences in type and quantity of CF No significant differences of uptake but qualitative differences	
Sheen 2004 ESL & EFL Elementary education	Teachers' types of CF. Learners' uptake in different instructional settings: -French immersion, -Canadian ESL, -New Zealand ESL, -Korean EFL.	-Recasts most frequent but differences in explicitness. -Uptake greater in contexts where the focus of the recasts is more salient, as with reduced-partial recasts, and where learners are oriented to attending to linguistic form rather than meaning. -Influence of context- -More uptake & repair in educated adults than children or less-educated adults.	Importance of setting and IDs.

The first study in this group is **Sheen's (2004).** In this comparative study, the author examined CF provision and learners' uptake in four different classroom settings: FI, Canada ESL, New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL. Sheen (2004) acknowledges that there is great variability among the learners in each of the settings: different L1s, age, proficiency and educational background. However, the four settings share the feature of being content or meaning-based and the author explains that there was no attempt of controlling these variables since the aim of the study was to explore, describe, and analyse the similarities and differences in the four instructional settings. The findings showed differences as to CF provision and uptake. First, the use of recasts, although high in all settings, was significantly higher in New Zealand and Korean classrooms than in Canadian immersion and ESL. Significant differences were also found between the number of recasts in Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL settings. The rest of the types were used in a very small proportion in three of the settings, so the author does not analyse them in detail and focuses on recasts.

In addition to the differences in CF provision, the rate of uptake to recasts and subsequent repair was found to be higher in the Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL contexts than in Canadian ESL and immersion classrooms. The author attributes this difference in uptake to the learners' orientation to form rather than meaning in Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL, which consequently leads to greater noticing of this CF type. She also concludes that future CF research should consider the influence of contextual factors on CF patterns and learner' uptake. She also explains that learners' IDs such as age, proficiency and previous education strongly influence their ability to perceive CF since those learners who had received formal instruction longer showed higher rates of uptake and repair. Sheen (2004) argues that not only learners' variables and contextual factors but also teachers' beliefs and learners' perceptions might account for the

differences in CF provision and uptake. She calls for further investigation in these respects.

The second study we will elaborate on is **Lyster and Mori's (2006),** another of the scarce pieces of research that consider instructional setting as a relevant factor that may account for differences in CFEs. We have already mentioned this study and the Counterbalance Hypothesis that the authors proposed to explain their results. In this work, the researchers observed and recorded intact lessons in two different learning settings at the elementary-school level. On the one hand, there were 18.3 audio recorded hours of FI classrooms for English speaking learners in Canada with French as a Second Language (FSL). These data had been carefully presented in the seminal study by Lyster and Ranta (1997). On the other hand, Mori's (2002) data were used: video recordings of 14.8 hours of JI for English speakers in the US, Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL). In both settings, the lessons were designed to integrate language skills and content matter. The teachers were informed of the researchers' interest in oral interaction but no more details were given about the nature of the investigation. Thus, the six participant teachers followed their regular programme and no intervention was made by the researchers either in the activities or in the content of the lessons.

Lyster and Mori (2006) analysed the lessons with Part A of the communicative orientation of language teaching (COLT) coding scheme by Spada and Fröhlich (1995) and found that FSL lessons had a more experiential orientation and the focus of the lesson was generally on meaning and rarely on form, while JFL lessons had a more analytic orientation and the focus of the lesson was predominantly on form. The authors then, confirmed that the two settings were different in their pedagogical orientation and endeavoured to examine and compare CFEs occurring in each of them. As to the first move in the CFE, the errors, more turns with errors occurred in FSL (30%) than in JFL

(13%). However, the proportion of errors corrected by the teachers was similar in both settings (67% and 61%). They found that CF types were similarly used across the two contexts, with recasts being the predominant type (54% and 65% of all CF moves), prompts in a smaller proportion (38% and 26%) and explicit correction relatively infrequent (7% and 9%).

The third move in the CFEs showed differences: uptake in general was higher in JFL (76%) than in FSL (55%). Of these uptake moves, in JFL more repair moves were obtained (48%), while a low proportion of repair was achieved in FSL (28%). Uptake to the different types varied with thelargest amount coming from prompts in the FI classrooms (62%) and from recasts in the Japanese language learning setting (61%). Similarly, the proportion of repair was reversed, the highest amount of repair after prompts being found in FSL (53%) and after recasts in JFL (68%). Uptake and repair of explicit correction moves was similarly small in both settings, less than 10%. When the authors analyse the uptake moves taking into account uptake types (repair, needs repair and no uptake) occurring after each of the CF types they found that prompts obtained similarly high rates of uptake (88% and 89% of the total prompts) and repair (38% and 42%) while the effect of recasts was radically different in FSL and JFL as to uptake (72% and 32%) and repair (50% and 19%) rates.

Based on these findings the authors proposed the Counterbalance Hypothesis, already presented in Chapter 2 above and reproduced here for the reader's convenience: "instructional activities and interactional feedback that act as a counterbalance to a classroom's predominant communicative orientation are likely to prove more effective than instructional activities and interactional feedback that are congruent with its predominant communicative orientation." (Lyster & Mori, 2006: 269). Therefore, the teachers in the meaning-focused lessons of the FI context obtained more learners' uptake

with the use of form-focused teaching techniques, such as prompts. On the other hand, in the JI classrooms, which were found to be more oriented to form, more meaning-focused or implicit types resulted in larger rates of uptake and repair due to learners' awareness to CF in these setting. The authors acknowledge the difficulty to classify an instructional context as purely analytic or experiential, but they explain that the COLT coding scheme helps to recognize the orientation of a given classroom to form or to meaning. The analysis of the activities can help researchers to recognize the learners' orientation, which in turn, seems to predict their ability to perceive and use the different CF types. However, since instruction is not focused exclusively on form or on meaning, the authors advocate for a balanced provision of CF, using different types in order for the learners to be able to notice them. Concerning the study's limitations, Lyster and Mori (2006) encourage future investigations on the relation between learners' IDs and the Counterbalance Hypothesis. Moreover, they call for more 'fine-grained' classroom research where the target language is the same in all the settings and where classrooms with FL instruction are compared with immersion settings.

The third in our list of comparative studies on CF is that of **Lochtman's (2007).** She compared data from Lochtman (2002) in German as a Foreign Language (GFL) classrooms with data from Lyster and Ranta (1997) in FSL. The comparison revealed differences in CF provision: teachers in FL settings tended to prompt learners to self-correct errors while immersion teachers reformulated erroneous utterances themselves by means of recasts. As for uptake, similar results were found, with higher rates in response to prompts in both settings but in GFL recasts also obtained remarkable rates of repair. Therefore, Lochtman's (2007) results share with those of Lyster and Mori's (2006) study the finding that the instructional context influences the three moves of CFEs.

More recently, in a comparative study among FI in Canada, JI in the US and CLIL classrooms in Spain, **Llinares and Lyster's (2014)** analysis of CF and uptake revealed similar findings. They used data from Lyster and Mori's (2006) FSL and JFL classrooms, which were immersion programmes, as explained above. Then, they added a new context, CLIL, which involves an integration of form and meaning- language and subject matter- as we will explain in the next section 4.3.1. In this study, CLIL learners had Spanish as their L1 and were enrolled in a bilingual programme, with the FL English as the target language. Based on Lyster and Mori's (2006) comparison of two different immersion classrooms, Llinares and Lyster (2014) performed a three-way analysis of the CFEs, examining the frequency and distribution of CF types as well as repair and uptake to those types and trying to identify the factors that contribute to similarities of differences across the instructional settings.

First, CF types occurred in a similar proportion in the three settings: recasts were the most frequently used type, followed by prompts and the least used type was explicit correction. Second, uptake was reversed: higher uptake to recasts was found in CLIL and JI while FI learners showed more uptake to prompts. Third, recasts were much more effective- in terms of repair- in CLIL classrooms, with the opposite happening in FI classrooms. In JI, similarly high rates of repair were found for recasts, prompts and explicit correction. Finally, as to recast type, the authors use the distinction between conversational or implicit and didactic or explicit recasts proposed by Sheen (2006). CLIL and JI teachers used a greater number of didactic recasts while FI teachers preferred conversational recasts, difference that the authors present as a possible explanation for the differences in uptake and repair. As explained in Chapter 1, the explicitness of didactic recasts may favour the learners' awareness of the correction and, in turn, increase the effectiveness of this CF move.

Llinares and Lyster (2014) examined classroom differences in order to clarify the impact of context characteristics on quantity and quality of CFEs. They found that interaction in CLIL and JI shared more characteristics than JI and FI. The authors explain that this finding has to do with the fact that, as there are different types of CLIL programmes (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010), immersion programmes differ from one another as well (Tedick & Cammarata, 2012). Thus, in each of the contexts, teachers' beliefs and previous experience shape CF patterns and the type of instruction seems to influence learners' noticing of CF as well. The authors conclude that future research on teachers' beliefs and on the potential influence that these beliefs might have on their teaching practices, such as CF, should be carried out. Moreover, they consider it interesting to explore CFEs in secondary level classrooms, where teachers' background is different, since they are subject matter specialists and have no specific training as language teachers. Llinares and Lyster (2014) call for further research on the effect of the instructional context variable in CF patterns.

The last study in this group is **Milla and García Mayo (2014),** another comparative study where the authors compared the corrective behaviour of a CLIL and an EFL teacher as well as the uptake and repair patterns of a group of learners in the lessons of each of these two teachers. The learners were 17-18 years old and belonged to an intact class in the second year of post-compulsory secondary education in a trilingual programme (Spanish, Basque and English). The programme included about 30% of the time in which English was the target language. Following a classroom observation procedure, the authors audio-recorded a total of 377 minutes of this English teaching time which consisted of 3 lessons of Business English (CLIL) and 4 of English language (EFL). Besides the recording, the first author observed the lessons which were analysed using the COLT scheme as Lyster and Mori (2006). The results of this analysis revealed

that CLIL lessons were clearly oriented to meaning while EFL lessons were more form-oriented. This finding contrasts with Llinares and Lyster's (2014) CLIL classrooms, which were clearly form-oriented. The reason may lie on the fact that in Milla and García Mayo (2014) study, the CLIL teacher was a subject specialist with no specific training in language teaching, as it is typical in secondary education in Spain. Conversely, primary school CLIL teachers are generally English language teachers that also teach subject matters in English. Therefore, it would be expected that secondary school teachers are less oriented to form and their lessons more focused on meaning, in a similar way to immersion classrooms.

The analysis of the CFEs in the two contexts revealed significant differences as to the amount of errors corrected by the EFL (72%) and CLIL (53%) teachers. The authors also found that the CLIL teacher used recasts almost exclusively while the EFL teacher used the whole spectrum of types, favouring explicit correction, elicitation, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback. These findings are in line with Lyster and Mori's (2006) results, where the more form oriented teachers (JI) preferred prompts and the more meaning-oriented teachers (FI) used recasts in a remarkably higher proportion with respect to other types. Milla and García Mayo (2014) showed that the differences in the use of CF in the two classrooms were not significant but as to the use of repetition and explicit correction. The lack of significance was attributed to the small amount of data that was obtained out of the recorded lessons, problem that we will overcome with the study presented in this dissertation. The authors were interested in unravelling the details of the CFEs occurring in the two contexts and carried out a qualitative analysis of CF moves to dig into the differences found in the first place but not confirmed by the statistical analysis. This descriptive analysis revealed that not only teachers provided different types of CF but they also used the types in a different way. The CLIL teacher

used recasts and prevented learners' uptake by continuing the topic afterwards while the EFL teacher tried to elicit self-repair or repetition of the reformulation. She did this by means of more explicit CF types and by the use of several CF moves for the same error. Moreover, the EFL teacher used what Lyster and Ranta (1997) termed as 'multiple feedback', combining different strategies in the same CF move. In Chapter 6 as well as 7 we will see categorisations and examples of this technique as found in our present database.

As to the results of the analysis of the uptake move, CF was significantly more effective in EFL lessons (82%), leading to a higher amount of uptake than in CLIL (52%). Regarding the learners' immediate response to the CF types, we found the higher proportion of uptake after recasts and clarification requests in EFL and to elicitation and recasts in CLIL. Although these differences were not significant, we can see that there is a tendency for learners to respond more positively to implicit types in a form-oriented lesson and to explicit correction in the meaning-focused lessons of CLIL. These findings are in line with Lyster and Mori's (2006) and thus explained by the Counterbalance Hypothesis. Nevertheless, Milla and Mayo (2014) performed a qualitative analysis of the data and found that the manner that the EFL and CLIL teachers provided feedback might have an effect on learners' uptake. Thus, the use of multiple feedback and combination of CF types made learners react to CF in a different manner from learners in other studies. Moreover, the CLIL teacher's use of topic continuation prevented learners from responding to recasts, resulting in a low rate of uptake after this CF type. The authors acknowledge that one of the limitations is the small amount of CFEs that were found in the data so they called for further research in these two instructional contexts with a greater amount of recorded time, maintaining the ecological validity of classroom observation methodology in order to obtain detailed descriptions of CF in CLIL and EFL

classrooms. Milla and García Mayo (2014) consider that teachers' idiosyncrasy as well as learners' IDs should be considered for future classroom research on CF.

As we have just seen, the language learning context has been shown to be influential in the way CF is provided and the use that learners make of it. Numerous researchers have called for further work on this variable (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001; Russell, 2009; Schulz, 2001; Sheen, 2011; Spada, 2011). Nassaji and Fotos (2011) explained that context might have an influence on learner uptake. Choi and Li (2012) suggested that researchers should examine how content teachers respond to learners' errors. Furthermore, Batstone (2012) criticized studies on CF as not being so rigorous because they present only CFEs without considering the variable of context where they take place. In their comparative study, Llinares and Lyster (2014) called for research on explicit recasts at the secondary level, since they found a great amount of this type of CF in their study at the primary level. Moreover, they claimed that "comparing contexts is the key for understanding the effect of different interactional patterns on successful SLA." (Llinares and Lyster, 2014: 22).

We have seen above that researchers have included different types of contexts for their studies on CF in the classroom. A context that has been recently considered is CLIL, with findings revealing differences in CFEs between this context and others such as immersion or EFL. In the following section, we will provide a more detailed description of this language teaching approach in order to clearly identify the features that might account for these differences across the settings.

4.3. CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL)

In the first part of the section we will briefly present the notion of CLIL, its characteristics and the differences with other language teaching methods. In the second

part, we will present a review of the studies that examined CF in CLIL settings compared to other settings.

4.3.1. DEFINITION AND MAIN CHARACTERISTICS OF CLIL

As we have seen in the previous section, researchers have extensively explored the type of feedback that teachers provide in L2 classrooms as well as the effectiveness of these corrective moves in the learners' immediate uptake. Although classrooms with different types 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, especially in Europe. 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 is expected to lead to different types of corrective moves on the part of the teachers and different reactions of the learners which need to be researched.

In this section, we will offer an overview of the notion of CLIL as well as the different forms it might take and its main characteristics. Let us start by saying that CLIL is not a methodology but a new view of how to teach a language across the curriculum. One of the outstanding authors in the topic, Do Coyle, defines it as 'a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language' (Coyle, 2010:1). Another leading researcher, Christiane Dalton-Puffer gives a more detailed definition: 'CLIL can be described as an educational approach where curricular content is taught through the medium of a FL, typically to learners participating in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary, or tertiary level.' (Dalton-Puffer, 2011:183).

Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) provide with a very practical explanation of this integrated approach and the manner to put it into practice. The lessons will be planned taking into account a holistic framework, what they call "the 4 Cs": Content, Communication (language), Cognition and Culture. As to communication, the authors propose a "Language Triptych" that includes three different perspectives of language teaching: language *of* learning, language *for* learning and language *through* learning. Language *of* learning would be the specific vocabulary, syntax and subject-matter discourse that learners need to access the content of the lesson. Language *for* learning is the necessary to carry out the tasks. Finally, language *through* learning is the language that arises incidentally from interaction and cognitive processes as lessons are developed. The theoretical framework for CLIL is based on SCT and Bloom's taxonomy for higher-order and lower-order thinking (Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill & Krathwol, 1956).

The notion of CLIL derives from immersion programmes in Canada, but, while immersion programmes only considered language as the communicative vehicle to teach content, 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. Both at a theoretical and at a practical level, there are differences between CLIL and immersion programmes, as we will see in the next section. It is not the same as Content Based Language Teaching (CBLT), an approach used in the USA and Europe in the past decades, since in CLIL the language is a tool that teachers and learners use to communicate and negotiate, whereas in CBLT language was the target and content was the tool.

CLIL emerged in the mid-1990s in Europe (Coyle, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008) due to the growing globalization of English language and the need for plurilingualism. For the past two decades, it has gained great popularity within the European Union (Eurydice, 2006), and is nowadays implemented in most

primary and secondary schools as well as at university level in Europe. As it is an approach so widely and profusely implemented, one can find multiple variations across settings. However, there appear to be several characteristics which, as opposed to FL teaching, pervade throughout most CLIL programmes in Europe, South America and many parts of Asia (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009). Table 5 below shows the differences between traditional FL teaching and CLIL classrooms (Moore, 2009).

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 5: Differences between FL teaching and CLIL (Moore, 2009: 254-255)

Besides these points above, Dalton-Puffer (2011) adds some more typical features of CLIL, based on Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009). One of them is that the language of instruction is a FL or a lingua franca and not a L2, so the learners will not have the opportunity of using the language outside the classroom. This FL is typically English. As to CLIL teachers, they are not normally language teachers or native speakers of the language, but rather content subject teachers, such as Geography or Science. Consequently, lessons are usually planned as content lessons alongside the traditional FL lessons taught by language experts. This is not exact in all contexts, for example, in Spain and also in the specific context of our study, the BAC, we need to distinguish between

primary education and secondary education CLIL. While primary school teachers have a dual profile (as language and content teachers), the teachers in secondary CLIL classrooms are content specialists with a certified knowledge of English (Llinares & Dafouz, 2010). In CLIL programmes usually less than 50% of the curriculum is taught in the target language. Finally, these programmes are typically started once learners have already acquired literacy skills in their L1, thus, more often at the secondary than at the primary level.

As mentioned above, CLIL is an umbrella term for different models. Actually, Coyle et al. (2010) propose the idea of a continuum of CLIL types, with content at one end and language at the other. In Tedick and Cammarata (2012: 31) we can find a figure that represents many possible types of CLIL programmes (see Figure 5 below). Sylvén (2013) presents an interesting overview of CLIL in four European countries (Finland, Germany, Spain, and Sweden) according to different variables (policy framework, teacher education, age of implementation, and extramural exposure to English).

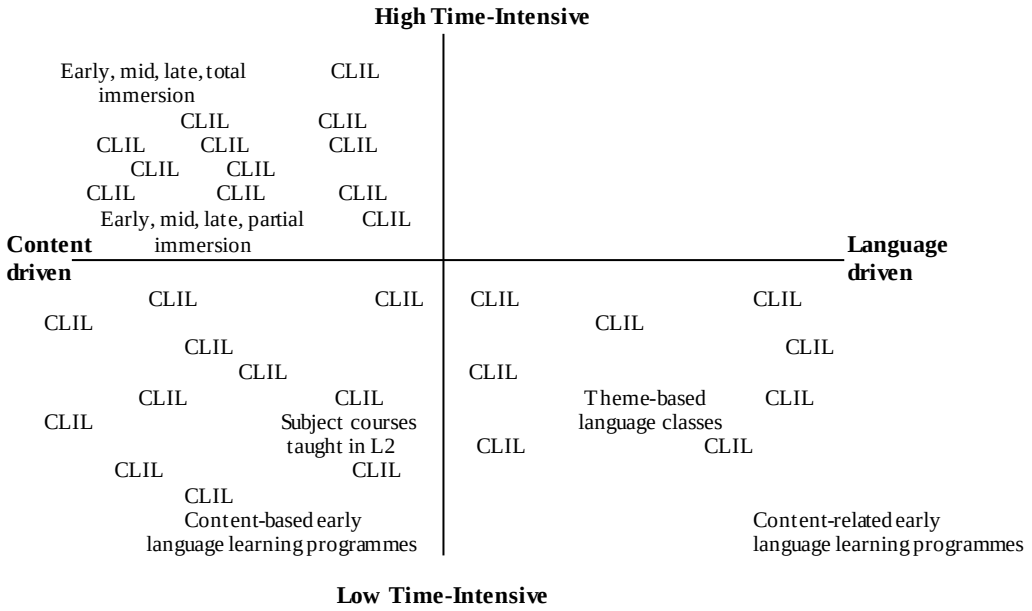


Figure 5: Range of programmes that integrate content and language (From Tedick & Cammarata, 2012:31).

Given that there is such a variety of CLIL programmes, it is not an easy task to conduct research on this approach. This scarcity of research is precisely one of the weaknesses in CLIL, as Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013:257) explain in their review of CLIL. They also mention the "bandwagon effect (and evangelical picture of CLIL)", and the "lack of conceptual clarity". Due to these limitations, they call for future critical research, classroom-based, in order to elucidate how to integrate language and content more effectively.

In spite of the lack of research, some studies have been conducted in monolingual contexts with findings pointing to a positive effect of CLIL programmes on learners' language development with respect to their non-CLIL counterparts (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Sylvén, 2010). However, little research has been carried out in bilingual settings where English is the third language, as Merino and Lasagabaster (2015) explain. In the present study, we are dealing with one of those settings where the learners already speak or at least know two languages. In the BAC both Spanish and Basque are used, and most learners (94.4%) are immersed in bilingual educational programmes from a very early age (Basque Government VI Sociolinguistic Survey, 2016). As we will explain in the methodological section, our participant learners are Basque-Spanish bilinguals who attend a trilingual high school programme. This is precisely the case of other studies carried out in our context (Grisaleña, Alonso & Campo, 2009; Merino & Lasagabaster, 2015), where positive results have been found for the development of the three languages involved, although further research has been called to confirm these results in higher-intensity CLIL programmes. But, overall, we can say that CLIL programmes promote FL learning also in this kind of bilingual contexts.

CLIL deviates from traditional FL teaching in many aspects, as we have seen above. 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, finally, input as well as pushed output are intended to be authentic. Therefore, CF in this setting might be hypothesized to be different, too. Research in this respect is scarce as we will see in the following section and filling this gap is one of the main aims of this dissertation. That is why the main motivation 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.

4.3.2. RESEARCH ON CF IN CLIL

A growing number of studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of a CLIL type of instruction on the learners' IL. Studies have mainly focused on language outcomes and fewer studies on content results. However, little is known about how language is integrated with content in this kind of learning context (Llinares, 2015). More precisely, a gap in research exists with regard to the type of correction used in these classrooms and its effectiveness in comparison to what has been found in traditional English lessons. In what follows, we will review the few studies that have considered CF or other form-focused techniques in CLIL contexts.

In a study examining pedagogical practices in CLIL in the Netherlands, de Graaff, Koopman, Anikina, and Westhoff (2007) found that non-native CLIL teachers were not very concerned with language rules and forms in their lessons, as they considered this a responsibility of EFL teachers. The only feedback that these subject teachers offered was aimed at vocabulary errors. Similarly, in a paper where they present findings from a large-scale project on CLIL in Andalusia (Southern Spain), Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2010) explain that language teachers are more likely to use CF than their subject content counterpart teachers. Therefore, it seems that CLIL teachers behave differently to EFL teachers as far as CF is concerned. However, to the best of our knowledge, only three studies have compared CLIL settings with more form-oriented contexts focusing on CF

specifically: Lochtman (2007), Llinares and Lyster (2014), and Milla and García Mayo (2014). In section 4.2 above, we have already reviewed these studies in detail. In the three of them, the researchers examined CF in CLIL as compared to other instructional settings. However, a note has to be made about Lochtman's (2007) study. The author claims that FI classrooms (from Lyster & Ranta, 1997) are CLIL; however, if we look at these contexts in detail we can see that immersion and CLIL, although similar in some features, differ in several relevant aspects, as Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) explain. The two learning contexts share the objective of language development, normally involve a new language to the learners, the teachers in the two contexts are bilingual and usually follow a communicative approach. However, there are differences, as shown in Table 6, based on Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010):

DIFFERENCES	CLIL	IMMERSION
LANGUAGE	Foreign	Local
TEACHERS	Bilingual	Native
STARTING AGE	Late	Early
TEACHING MATERIALS	Abridged	Aimed at native speakers
LANGUAGE OBJECTIVE	Advanced (C1)	Nativelike

Table 6: Differences between CLIL and immersion contexts.

These differences that Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) point out describe CLIL in a specific context, the European Union. However, as we saw above, there are different types of CLIL programmes. That is why, in some cases, the line that differentiates CLIL and immersion programmes is somehow blurred. However, in the context involved in the present dissertation. as well as in the studies that we are reviewing, the differences proposed by the authors are applicable to distinguish these two types of classrooms.

Besides, the aim of achieving communicative competence in the foreign language across the curriculum is shared by all CLIL programmes in the European context (Martínez Adrián, 2011).

Research in the context of CLIL is therefore scarce, particularly regarding the process of language learning and methodological aspects of these classrooms. In order to achieve the largest benefits from this learning approach, researchers should try to clarify what is happening during the actual CLIL lessons and to obtain a clear picture of this learning context. In this sense, Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2013) call for comparative research with upper-secondary students, keeping some variables constant: same teachers and students in CLIL and FL. They suggest that the methodology could be observational and the COLT scheme should be used. The authors also call for research on teachers' techniques (feedback) in CLIL classrooms, by analysing transcripts of the lesson. Therefore, more research is needed regarding CFEs in different contexts, and, particularly, CLIL classrooms need to be explored to contribute to clarify the picture of what happens in this teaching approach.

4.4. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have reviewed studies on CF that take into account the variable instructional context in order to clarify whether it plays a role in the occurrence of CFEs. When examining studies set in L2 and FL classrooms separately, we observe similar findings as far as CF types and learners' uptake to these types. However, we have also reviewed comparative studies devoted to analyse two (or more) instructional settings in terms of CFEs. In these cases, remarkable differences have been found as to CF amount, types of correction preferred by the teachers as well as learners' rates of uptake and repair, both in general and regarding the different CF types. A plausible explanation for these divergences across settings might lie in the settings' general characteristics, such as the

lessons' orientation to form or meaning. It seems that teachers in form-oriented classrooms (such as EFL teachers or CLIL primary school teachers), tend to offer more explicit feedback or prompts and in general more feedback moves are observed in these classrooms. The opposite happens in meaning-focused contexts such as ESL or immersion programmes in Canada, for example: teachers are more concerned with fluency and CF tends to be in form of recasts, with many instances of topic continuation and conversational recasts.

In turn, learners seem to respond better to feedback when the lesson is generally oriented to form. That is why, when they are in a form-focused classroom, recasts become more salient and learners show higher rates of uptake. On the other hand, in meaning-oriented lessons, learners are also concerned about the content, so they only react to CF when it is offer in a very explicit manner, fostering them to self-repair.

Instructional context has been found to be an influential factor in CFEs amount and quality. Although researchers recognize the potential influence of learning context on CF effectiveness, and they call for further investigation on this topic, there has not been a great number of studies on it and, to the best of our knowledge, only two that consider a CLIL context. This dearth of research in CLIL, together with previous results in comparative studies, motivated the present study.

Previous researchers of CF have pointed out that the foundation for a lesson's orientation to form or meaning is partly related to the teacher's beliefs and expectations, as we already mentioned in Chapter 3. Learners' perspectives about CF might also be influencing uptake and repair rates, these perspectives being constituted by elements in the sociocultural environment as well as the instructional setting in which learners are immersed. Therefore, instructional context and beliefs are closely interrelated and need

to be considered when conducting comparative research in actual classrooms. These and other issues will be developed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5: BELIEFS ABOUT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (CF)

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter we have elaborated on one of the key variables of the present study, instructional context. Now, we will move on to the second important variable: the potential influence that the teachers' and learners' beliefs about CF might have on the CFEs occurring in the classroom. In what follows we will provide definitions of beliefs in order to clarify the construct. Borg (2001:186) defines a belief as

> a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour.

Thus, what the individual believes, in this case the teacher and learners, guides their behaviour in the classroom and consequently affects the language learning process. More specifically, talking about teaching, Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004) define (teachers') beliefs as 'statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what "should be done", "should be the case" and "is preferable"' (Basturkmen et al., 2004: 244). Therefore, teachers' beliefs about CF might guide their corrective behaviour and influence the amount of correction, the CF types used and the error types addressed.

Since the aim in this dissertation is to obtain a clear picture of the phenomenon of CF and its materialization in actual classrooms, it goes without saying that we need to explore the foundations for this teaching technique. In the previous chapter we have seen that the context notably influences the patterns of CFEs. Moreover, context also affects the system of beliefs and perspectives about different aspects of teaching, and CF as well. Beliefs are important in order to understand CFEs in two senses: firstly, what teachers

believe, as it is the spark that will lead all their decisions about correction, and, secondly, what learners believe, since their attitude towards this teaching technique will motivate their response to corrections and even their noticing of them. In the next section, we will review different pieces of research on teachers' beliefs about CF as well as their findings and possible pedagogical implications.

5.2. TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT OCF

Teachers' beliefs are considered important because they are related to the decisions that teachers make in the classroom (Arocena Egaña, Cenoz & Gorter, 2015). In the last decades, researchers have been interested in the beliefs that teachers have about their own practices (Fang, 1996), seeking to elucidate which of these practices lead to more successful language teaching (Borg, 2006) and becoming increasingly concerned with specific aspects of language teaching, such as grammar (Allington & Johnston, 2001; Andrews, 2003; Berry, 1997; Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Chandler, 1988; Chia, 2003; Eisenstein- Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997; Schulz, 1996, 2001), literacy instruction (Beach, 1994; Davis, Konopak, & Readence, 1993; Grisham, 2000; Olson & Singer, 1994) and oral feedback provision (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Chavez, 2006; Schulz, 1996, 2001). The results of these studies on teachers' beliefs about CF have been varied, as we explain in what follows.

NEGATIVE ATTITUDES

In some studies, on beliefs, when asked about CF, teachers showed a negative attitude, rejecting the use of this teaching strategy when engaged in communicative activities (Basturkmen et al., 2004), in spite of the fact that SLA researchers think just the opposite (Mackey, 2007), as we have seen above. Lyster et al. (2013) explain that teachers are concerned with two aspects of CF provision: they think that by correcting oral errors the communicative flow can be broken and thus communicativeness might be negatively

affected (Brown, 2009). In addition, they are afraid of causing language anxiety on the learners when they are corrected in front of others (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). Therefore, these teachers decide to ignore errors related to form and only react to communication issues (Pica, 2002). Nevertheless, this negative view of CF is not shared by teachers in many other studies.

POSITIVE ATTITUDES

In most studies on teachers' beliefs, CF was found to be considered by teachers as necessary and beneficial for L2 learning. For instance, in a case study on teachers' beliefs about classroom practices, Farrell and Bennis (2013) found that the two participant teachers (experienced and novice) believed that "learners expect and want their errors corrected" (Farrell & Bennis, 2013: 168) and considered it very important to use different corrective techniques in order to account for learners' diversity and different learning styles. Both teachers stated their preference for learners' self-repair and the importance of encouraging learners to self-correct their errors. Recently, Kamiya and Loewen (2014) carried out another case study on the influence of reading academic articles on an experienced ESL teacher's beliefs about CF. The participant teacher had already a very positive attitude towards CF, which was reinforced by reading three articles on CF. The articles did not cause any change on the teacher's beliefs but they did raise his awareness about CF and made him reflect on his corrective practices.

Not only language teachers, but also subject teachers have been found to feel responsible for correcting learners' errors, although content teachers also consider that their main goal should be content and not language (Lo, 2014). Besides, although they might regard linguistic accuracy as an important teaching element, they do not focus on learners' errors, since they believe that fluency and content are their main objectives (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017). Furthermore, it seems that FL teachers have a more positive

attitude towards CF (and FonF in general) than teachers in L2 contexts. It has been found that non-native teachers are perceived as more concerned with accuracy and error correction than teachers who are native speakers of the target language (Chun, 2014). This appears reasonable because, as we have explained in the previous chapter, some contexts are more form-oriented (FL), others are more focused on meaning (L2 or immersion) and in others there is a balance between form and content (CLIL). Therefore, although it has not been researched yet, we hypothesize, based on results from studies in different settings, that teachers' beliefs might reflect the context they are immersed in (or have been when being trained), and the methodology used in the classroom would be a reflection of these beliefs. In the next section, we will review studies researching to what extent the reflection of teachers' beliefs is materialized in classroom practices.

5.2.1. COMPARISON OF BELIEFS AND PRACTICES

In a review of the literature on teacher cognition and language teaching, Borg (2006) concluded that studies on teachers' beliefs and practices in a L2 context were rare. Actually, in the last decade, few studies have related the beliefs to in-class CF provision (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Chavez, 2006).

In studies looking at teaching beliefs in general, mixed findings have been reported. While some of them revealed that teachers' beliefs were consistent with their classroom practices (Chavez, 2006; Johnson, 1992; Kuzborska, 2011), other studies found incongruences between what teachers believed and the strategies they used (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Dilans, 2015; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Roothoft, 2014; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Zhang & Jiang, 2009). Chavez (2006) offers a possible explanation for this variation. He points to the potential influence of teacher's specific variables such as language proficiency, language awareness, personality, programme constraints, teacher's learning experience, teacher training, experience in a second language country,

type and amount of teaching experience and teacher internal variables such as gender, age, professional status, personality or social position. All these features might mediate between beliefs and teaching practice, according to Chavez (2006). In a review of studies that have looked at the correspondence between teachers' beliefs and practices, Basturkmen (2012) found that context and constraints seemed to influence this relationship and that those studies which had found a correspondence between teachers' stated beliefs and practices involved experienced teachers and planned aspects of teaching. Farrell and Bennis (2013) suggest that in the same way practices are influenced by teachers' beliefs, these beliefs can be modulated by teaching experience, an idea that is shared by other researchers in the field (Bartels, 2005; Borg, 2011; Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001; Busch, 2010; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). The authors also believe that

> if second language teachers are asked to think consciously about their teaching beliefs, they could learn not only about these usually tacitly held beliefs, but also about the importance of comparing their own beliefs with their practices through classroom observations (recorded and transcribed), discussion (pair or group) and reflection (Farrell, 2007).
>
> (Farrell & Bennis, 2013:174-175)

Therefore, it seems that the context where teachers are immersed seems to influence not only their beliefs, but also creates limitations as to the how they behave (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003; Liao, 2003). For example, in a study where they investigated bilingualism in CLIL in the Andalusian community (Spain), Méndez García and Pavón Vázquez (2012) found that the teachers had not received specific training on how to integrate language and content. Therefore, the teachers rely on their intuitions and previous experience in order to take their teaching decisions.

These limitations might be one of the causes for the mismatch between what teachers think they should do and what they actually do in the classroom. For example, in Yoshida (2008), teachers attributed their use of recasts to time constraints and the choice of prompts over recasts to learners' cognitive styles. Similarly, Mori (2002) found that teachers considered learners' IDs (e.g. feelings, personalities, linguistic knowledge, and socio-cultural development) when they provided CF. Some years later, the same author (Mori, 2011) found that the participant teachers' behaviour depended partly "on factors such as instructional focus, time constraints, the frequency of occurrence of errors, learner personality, and the level of learner communication ability" (Mori, 2011: 464). In this study, the influence of previous experience on teachers' beliefs was found as well. Mori (2011) calls for more studies comparing classroom practices and CF beliefs and also proposes that teachers should be encouraged to reflect on their practices by involving them in research. This call for more comparative studies has been made by other authors as well (Ellis, 2010; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Roothoft, 2014; Samar & Shayestefar, 2009). Besides, research on specific curricular areas has been suggested as well as the inclusion of secondary school teachers whose L1 is not the target language (Borg, 2003, 2006).

Moreover, content teachers have been found to have positive attitudes towards correction but these beliefs are not reflected in their teaching techniques. Thus, although they acknowledge the benefits of OCF, they do not consider themselves as the ones who have to provide it (De Graaf et al., 2007). The need for further research in comparative studies about teachers' beliefs and practices is remarkable in secondary CLIL classrooms. Besides, Basturkmen (2012) concludes in her review that studies focusing on the comparison of beliefs and practices with respect to a specific aspect of teaching such as error correction are needed. Moreover, this author considers that there are too many case

studies researching teachers' beliefs. She calls for more controlled studies, where some variables (such as the learners or the lesson type) would be held constant for the participant teachers.

5.3. LEARNERS' BELIEFS ABOUT OCF

Once having examined the beliefs of the teachers, we should look at the recipients of CF, the learners. Traditionally, as we have seen above, researchers as well as teachers believed that CF was to be avoided for the sake of learners' motivation and good state of mind. It was thought that learners preferred teachers to ignore their corrections and focus only on form. However, although the literature on learners' beliefs is still limited (Zhong, 2015), and even more reduced regarding error correction (Katayama, 2007), studies on learners' beliefs about CF have shown that learners' perceptions are not negative, as they not only express a desire to be corrected, but even complain when teachers do not do so. Overall, learners show a very positive attitude towards CF but the differences appear when asked about the specific aspects of the correction (Bang, 1999; Clavel, 2005; Loewen, Li, Fei, Thompson, Nakatsukasa, Ahn & Chen, 2009; Martínez Agudo, 2014; Schulz, 2001; Trinder, 2013). Regarding **when** to be corrected, learners in Davis's (2003) study manifested a preference for immediate correction, made by teachers. Brown's (2009) and William's (2013) participant learners also advocate for an immediate correction of errors. As to **how** to be corrected (CF types), research has revealed mixed findings. In many studies, learners expressed a preference for feedback that requires self-correction, particularly those learners with higher levels of proficiency (Kaivanpanah, Alavi, & Seperihnia, 2015) but also lower proficiency learners (Mohammed, 2006; Yoshida, 2008), whereas in other studies more advanced learners showed a preference for recasts over prompts (Brown, 2009). More discrepancies were found in Oladejo (1993), whose findings were different to those in Lim's (1990) study, probably due to learners'

IDs such as age and proficiency levels. Lim (1990) collected data from secondary school learners with intermediate level while the participants in Oladejo's (1993) study were older and had a higher level (advanced undergraduate learners). The influence of the learners' characteristics on their beliefs also appears in Lyster et al. (2013:8), where "ESL learners, in spite of their foreign language learning background, placed greater emphasis on communication than on grammar and CF, whereas the foreign language learners without opportunities to use the target language outside the classroom valued grammar instruction and CF more (see also Gass & Lewis, 2007)". Thus, instructional context seems to be a key factor for learners' beliefs about CF. Although IDs have been found to influence learners' beliefs about CF, Zangh and Rahimi (2014) found that learners' anxiety level was not a differentiating factor for learners' preferences about CF. In their study, both high-anxiety and low-anxiety groups had positive attitudes towards CF, supported frequent, immediate, explicit feedback, especially oriented to errors of meaning and provided by the teacher. This shows that even more anxious learners are in favour of being corrected so, as Ellis (2009) stated, learners should be made aware of the benefits of CF. In this respect, Sheen (2011) calls for further research on learners' IDs potentially affecting their beliefs and attitudes towards language learning. Besides, both researchers and teachers need to be aware of learners' preferences, since they are likely to affect the effectiveness of learning (Schulz, 1996), as we will discuss in the following section.

5.3.1. COMPARISON OF LEARNERS' BELIEFS AND UPTAKE

The potential relationship between learners' beliefs and their behaviour after receiving CF (uptake) has been hardly investigated in previous literature, probably due to methodological limitations. In a recent study, Kartchava and Ammar (2014b) found that there was a positive correlation between learners' perspectives and their noticing of CF. However, no correlation was found between beliefs and test scores in this case, although

the authors acknowledge that this might be due to the absence of delayed posttests. Therefore, more studies are needed to make sure that beliefs are really an intervening factor for CF effectiveness. Lyster et al. (2013) call for further research on CF preferences as it "may lead to more effective teaching practice when combined with results from the CF effectiveness research (see also Basturkmen et al., 2004)."

5.4. TEACHERS' vs LEARNERS' BELIEFS ABOUT CF

A call for comparative research on teachers' and learners' beliefs on OCF has been made by researchers in the field (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Schulz (2001) explains that teachers have the responsibility to ascertain which their learners' beliefs are in order to either try to modify them or to tailor their practices to those beliefs. She claims that when teachers' behaviour does not match learners' expectations, learners may feel more demotivated and the teaching strategies lose their effectiveness (see also Green, 1993; Horwitz, 1988; McCargar, 1993; Schulz, 1996). Ellis (2010) also predicts problems if there is a mismatch between teachers' and learners' beliefs. Moreover, learners' IDs such as proficiency, motivation and expectations have been found to influence teachers' classroom practices (Nishino, 2012). Therefore, it seems very important to make this comparison between what teachers believe they have to do in the classroom and what learners expect from them. Unfortunately, these beliefs do not seem to match, according to the findings in studies on the topic (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010). For instance, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) found that learners want more explicit and more frequent corrections from their teachers whereas teachers are afraid of over-correcting them. Similarly, learners in several studies had a clear preference for teacher correction which contrasted with teachers' desire for learners' self-correction of their own errors (Davis, 2003; Nunan, 1988). Other studies show differences in timing, with learners advocating

for immediate correction (Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015) while teachers preferred a more delayed correction; differences appear also with respect to CF types, with learners' and teachers' preference for indirect feedback (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Brown, 2009) while teachers preferred to use recasts due to the lack of time; as well as selective feedback, which was preferred by teachers while learners demand correction of all their errors (Lee, 2013).

Besides the discrepancies between teachers' and learners' beliefs, some studies have found mismatches between learners' preferences for CF and what teachers actually do in the classroom. Lee (2013) found that learners preferred explicit, immediate and comprehensive corrections but received selective, a bit delayed and indirect feedback (in the form of clarification requests). The author calls for more research on learners' preferences compared to actual teachers' practices as well more classroom based studies in order to fully understand CF and be able to obtain as many benefits for language learning as possible from this teaching strategy. In another recent study, Santos Gargallo and Alexopoulou (2014) found that the mismatch between teachers' practices and learners' beliefs occurred both at lower levels (A2) and more advanced classes (C1). On the contrary, in Yoshida's (2008) study, teachers and learners agreed on the effectiveness of CF types that led to self-repair, but the difference was found between teachers' CF preference and CF use, since they chose recasts more frequently than prompts. Therefore, there was also a gap between teachers' use of CF and learners' beliefs.

5.5. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have seen that research on beliefs is necessary because what individuals believe guides their behaviour with regard to that particular issue. Thus, teachers' beliefs motivate their pedagogical decisions and the various practices they use

in the classroom. As to the learners, their beliefs lead their responses to teachers' techniques and, consequently, affect teaching effectiveness and the subsequent learning.

We have reviewed studies on teachers' beliefs that have revealed mixed findings regarding CF. Some teachers are reluctant to offer (too much) feedback because they are afraid to break the communication flow and to create anxiety in the learners. Many other teachers, however, consider CF a necessary technique in the FL or L2 classroom. Even subject teachers find that CF is beneficial for language learning, although they seem to leave the responsibility of providing CF to their language teaching colleagues. L2 and content teachers' beliefs might be less favourable to CF provision due to the influence of the context, more oriented to meaning than to form.

Regarding the comparison of beliefs and actual classroom practices, we have found few studies devoted to CF. Moreover, findings in general point to divergences between teachers' positive beliefs and the importance they give to learners' self-correction and their actual behaviour. In general, teachers use recasts and correct a relatively small amount of oral errors. The explanation for this incoherence might lay on the teachers' idiosyncrasy (previous training, learning experiences, and years of teaching experience), contextual features, time and syllabus constraints and learners' IDs and styles. It has been suggested that beliefs influence teaching decisions in the same way that teaching experience can modify beliefs. More comparative studies on beliefs and practices have been called as well as the need for teachers to reflect on their practices through their involvement in research. Further research is needed on curricular areas and with the inclusion of non-native teachers.

As far as learners' beliefs are concerned, studies have found a very positive attitude towards CF. The teachers' fear that anxiety might be developed by correcting learners' oral errors has been discarded by research. The preference for CF types is varied:

some learners advocate for more implicit types such as recasts while many others prefer teaches to allow them self-correct. Learners' IDs such as age or level of proficiency appear to influence their beliefs. The context, once again, seems to play a role in the set of beliefs that learners own, with FL learners showing a more positive attitude towards CF than L2 learners. Further research has been suggested on these other specific characteristics, such as learners' IDs, and the influence of these factors on learners' beliefs. Besides, being research on learner's beliefs about CF very scarce, more information is needed about the relationship between beliefs and subsequent uptake, which appears to exist, at least as far as noticing is concerned.

In conclusion, this chapter has reviewed the relevance of examining teachers' and learners' beliefs about CF. Numerous authors have called for further research on the topic and, particularly, for classroom based studies where real CF can be examined and compared with these beliefs by means of triangular methodologies. With this aim, among others, we endeavoured to investigate CFEs in two different classrooms and compare actual CFEs with teachers' and learners' beliefs on CF. In Part II we will explain the details of the present study and the results we obtained but, previously, we will briefly summarize Part I in what follows.

SUMMARY OF PART I

Through the first part of this dissertation we have unraveled the details of the construct of CF and all the elements associated with it. In Chapter 1 we have provided definitions and examples to illustrate the construct of CF. CFEs have been presented with the three moves that occur in them: error, CF and uptake. Types of CF have been defined, illustrated with examples and classified according to their degree of explicitness and the type of information they provide.

In Chapter 2 we have examined how SLA theories accommodate CF. We have seen that authors in one of the theories, the UG-based theory, do not consider it an intervening factor in L2 learning, at least at an implicit level. However, the rest of the theories place CF in a central position within the learning process. We have explained cognitive theories such as the IH or the SLT as well as other theories which take into account the 'social' aspect of interaction, such as the SCT. Overall, the individual learners' factors are to be accounted for, but contextual aspects are regarded as essential for the patterns of CFEs.

Chapter 3 has presented a review of the literature on CF. Hendrickson's (1978) questions have been taken as a guideline in order to explore the studies that have investigated different aspects of CF such as when or how to provide CF in the classrooms. In general, research has shown that CF is beneficial for L2 learning. It has been found to be more effective when provided in a somehow delayed manner, addressing global and/or frequent errors and by the teacher better than by other learners. The jury is still out as to which type is more effective, but research has revealed that prompts and explicit CF lead to higher rates of immediateuptake and repair. Anyway, contextual and individual factors have been found to intervene in CF provision and effectiveness.

In Chapter 4 we have explored one of these intervening factors, which has been found to play a fundamental role in the quantity and quality of CFEs: the instructional context. We have seen that although findings in different settings appear to be similar, comparative studies have found differences as to CF amount, types of CF provided by the teachers, and rates of uptake and repair, both in general and in response to different CF types. Researchers call for more comparative studies, including other variables such as beliefs about CF and controlling elements such as the participant learners. A learning setting that has been under-researched regarding CF is CLIL, as we have seen in Chapter 4 as well. This setting, different from FL and immersion in several aspects, has a balanced orientation to form and meaning, which has been found to influence CFEs amount and quality. Very few authors have included CLIL in their comparative CF research, with findings revealing differences with other settings. CFEs have been shown to take varied shapes depending on the context, which in turn models teachers' and learners' beliefs.

Finally, in Chapter 5, we have seen the manner that beliefs have been shown to influence classroom behaviour and vice versa. The context, as we have seen, shapes the beliefs, but beliefs also motivate teachers' decisions and learners' responses and subsequent learning. Teachers' beliefs have been found to be positive towards the use of CF and especially correcting through prompts. However, classroom behaviour does not correspond with beliefs. Specifically, subject matter teachers report favourable opinions about CF, but they seem to delegate this responsibility to their language teacher counterparts. Similarly, learners' beliefs do not match teachers' practices regarding CF, especially in more meaning-oriented classrooms.

This review of the theories and studies concerning CF has shown several gaps in research. First, contextual variables need to be carefully examined when conducting investigations on CF, through methodologies that include qualitative and quantitative

data. Particularly, the CLIL context is in great need of research regarding CF, and a comparison to more traditional language classrooms such as FL has been called for by other authors. Secondly, researchers consider that individual variables such as teachers' and learners' beliefs have to be examined in CF studies, including new groups of participants, such as secondary school content teachers and non-native teachers.

PART II: THE STUDY

In the first part of the dissertation we established the foundations for the research that we have carried out. We identified the gaps existing in the literature and the variables that need to be considered in this piece of research. This second part explains the details of the study conducted. Chapter 6 presents the methodology, the research questions to be answered, the data collection procedure followed and the participants involved. Chapter 7 presents the results of data analysis and the tests performed, as well as qualitative descriptions of the data. Chapter 8 features the discussion of the results with respect to previous studies and the possible explanations of our findings. Chapter 9 summarizes the dissertation: the present study and its main findings as well as some pedagogical implications derived from them. Limitations are acknowledged together with ideas for future research.

CHAPTER 6: METHODOLOGY

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The main aim of the present study is to contribute to the existing literature on CF by exploring CFEs naturally occurring in real classrooms in two different ways. On the one hand, we observed and analysed teachers' techniques in the form of oral correction as well as the effect of these corrections on the learners' uptake. In this respect, we took into account different elements such as type of error or CF types offered, as well as type of learners' repair. On the other hand, our second concern was to examine teachers' and learners' beliefs on CF with the objective of assessing whether the attitudes and beliefs of these two groups had an effect in their classroom behaviour as far as CF was concerned. Furthermore, yet another essential variable was included: the comparison between a traditional EFL lesson, with a focus oriented to form, and a CLIL lesson, more content-oriented. The goals, thus, were two-fold: to compare the two settings in terms of the CFEs, and to examine teachers' and learners' beliefs about CF as a potential variable intervening provision of and uptake to CF.

In this chapter, we will present the research questions that motivated the present study as well as the predictions for each of them (section 6.1). Then, we will describe the design of the study, which has been divided into two sections: 6.2 presents the participants in the classroom observation procedure, the method of data collection and the analyses performed on the data. In section 6.3 we will describe the participants, data collection methodology and analyses of the data obtained through the questionnaires about beliefs.

6.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

On the basis of the literature review presented above, we entertained the following four research questions (RQs):

6.1.1. RESEARCH QUESTION 1

The first question has been subdivided into two:

RQ1a: What CF types do teachers provide to learners' errors in oral interaction in a classroom setting? Is there a difference between CLIL and EFL lessons as far as type of CF is concerned?

RQ1b: Does type of errors influence quantity and quality of CF in each of the classrooms?

With these questions, the aim was to examine the frequency of types of CF that teachers provide to learners' errors taking into account the type of errors made. In order to answer RQ1a we compared our two instructional settings (CLIL and EFL) in order to determine the differences in CF types chosen in each of them. Given the evidence from previous research we expected to find a predominance of recasts in both settings (Doughty, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Pica et al., 1989; Sheen, 2004). Besides, recasts would be especially frequent in CLIL whereas other more explicit types were also expected to be used in the more form-focused EFL classroom (Lochtman, 2007; Lyster & Mori, 2006). Moreover, we intended to explore the occurrence of reformulations and prompts in each of the contexts, expecting a predominance of reformulations in both of them and a higher frequency of prompts in the more form-focused setting, the EFL classroom. Then, as for RQ1b, we also predicted that error type might have an influence on the CF type provided (Lyster, 1998; Mackey et al., 2000; Sheen, 2006).

6.1.2. RESEARCH QUESTION 2

Is the instructional context an intervening factor in CF effectiveness? Do learners react differently to CF types in CLIL and EFL classrooms?

In this case we turned our attention towards the second move of the CFE, examining learners' response to CF. We looked at the potential influence of the type of CF on the learners' uptake. Thus, we predicted that recasts would be less frequently acknowledged by the learners (Lyster & Ranta 1997), although when made in a more explicit manner they might obtain further response (Lyster, 2001; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Moreover, we expected more explicit and especially output-prompting types such as elicitation or metalinguistic cues to be noticed in a higher proportion by the learners (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Sheen, 2011).

This question aimed to explore the possible influence of the type of instructional setting on the learners' uptake to the different CF types. Other researchers have called for classroom research in other contexts, such as the European, where conditions are different from immersion classrooms, with non-native teachers and English as a FL instead of as anL2 (Borg, 2003). Following previous research we might as well find a higher proportion of uptake to more implicit types such as recasts in a more form-focused classroom like the EFL one, whereas learners in the CLIL setting would attend preferably to more explicit types (Lochtman, 2007; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2004) and would have difficulties to process reformulations in such a meaning-oriented context (Muñoz, 2007).

6.1.3. RESEARCH QUESTION 3

Which are EFL and CLIL teachers' beliefs about CF? Do these beliefs correspond to their actual practices?

With this question, we intended to examine the beliefs and perceptions that teachers in our two instructional settings have as far as CF is concerned. The prediction was that teachers would show a positive attitude towards oral correction, with a preference for more implicit types and a selective correction (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010, 2012; Yoshida, 2010). As in other studies, our participant teachers might be concerned with learners' anxiety and frustration, this concern preventing them from being stricter in their opinions on corrective behaviour. Not only did we examine their beliefs but we also compared these with teachers' actual behaviour when correcting in the classroom. Previous research led us to think that attitudes and practices would not be exactly the same, as we saw in 5.1.1. Therefore, we triangulated the data by means of a combination of observational techniques (audio-recording and observing the lessons) and beliefs questionnaires, following what other researchers have previously done (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Fang, 1996) and what recent research has called for (Mohammed, 2006, among others).

6.1.4. RESEARCH QUESTION 4

Which are learners' beliefs about OCF and its types? Do these beliefs influence uptake? Do learners' beliefs overlap with the ones of the teachers?

Our last research question is the learners' counterpart of RQ3. The goal was to explore learners' preferences and opinions about CF, which we expected to be favourable. We also expected learners demanding more correction from their teachers (Schulz, 1996). Apart from examining learners' beliefs, we compared them to the teachers', searching for

potential mismatches already found in previous research (Mackey et al. 2007; Nunan, 1988; Oladejo, 1993).

Therefore, the study consisted of exploring CFEs in two different contexts, CLIL and EFL, and examining the potential influence of teachers' and learners' beliefs about CF on the quantity and quality of these CFEs. In order to do so, a methodological triangulation was used. We analysed CFEs both from a quantitative and qualitative perspective, as has been suggested (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013), as well as comparing teachers' and learners' beliefs with their behaviour in the classroom (Schulz, 2001). It is clear that, although the analysis of intact classrooms with no manipulation of the tasks leads to more ecologically valid research (García Mayo, 2011), we have to bear in mind that the present study depicts a particular group in a particular part of the world and the results that we will present in Chapter 7 may or may not be the same in other contexts. However, the data collected involves variables that have not been sufficiently researched previously, so we will contribute to fill the gaps mentioned above, among them presenting comparative research on CF in CLIL and EFL secondary schools.

With these four questions in mind, we carried out the research employing the methodology presented in the following sections. We have divided the information about the methodology in two different subsections: 6.2 describes how we collected the data necessary to answer RQ1 and RQ2 while 6.3 presents the methodology followed to answer RQ3 and RQ4. Since we employed different instruments and the sample of participants also varied for RQ3 and RQ4, we considered that this was a more reader-friendly manner of presenting the methodology.

6.2 DESIGN OF THE STUDY: RQ1 & RQ2

In order to answer the first two research questions, we needed to find real classrooms where EFL and CLIL teachers provided CF to learners while engaged in oral interaction. We aimed to create a corpus of CFEs in these two contexts in order to investigate the similarities and differences between a traditional EFL class and the more innovative CLIL approach: using language as a tool to acquire content knowledge.

To this purpose, we tried to find a school where the same learners attended both EFL and CLIL lessons with different teachers, in order to study the behaviour of these teachers and at the same time analyse the reaction of the same learners to different teachers' feedback. In the context of the study, the BAC, it was not possible to find a class of primary school learners with different teachers, since in Primary Education the tendency is to have the same teacher for English and content subjects in English. Besides, a secondary school was needed, since we aimed to investigate CFEs in this educational level, where the CLIL teachers are typically subject specialists, as explained in the literature review. The school selected for the study is a well-known public high school in Bilbao, one of the three big cities in the BAC. The BAC is a bilingual community in the north of Spain. The two official languages are Spanish and Basque. Basque is nowadays taught in all public and nearly all private schools, and used as the language of instruction in the vast majority. After the Spanish Education Reform Act in 1990 (*LOGSE*, 1990), English was established as the official FL from the age of 8 onwards (before that it was 11) but in many Spanish communities EFL teaching starts at 4 or even earlier (García Mayo, 2017). Nowadays, in the BAC more and more schools are implementing trilingual programmes (Merino & Lasagabaster, 2015), using CLIL-like systems for subjects taught through English.

For the sake of the study, we were interested in observing classrooms at post-compulsory secondary education, the two last years of school before entering university, with 16-18 years old learners. The rationale for the choice of this age range was twofold: First, because other researchers have called for studies of the type in secondary education (Llinares & Lyster, 2014). Secondly, because we believe there is more interaction due to the learners' higher level of English. In the very few studies on oral interaction in primary school settings, researchers have found that, despite the teachers' claim that they are using a communicative approach, interaction in primary school classrooms is very scarce (García Mayo, 2017). The aim was to try to obtain as many CFEs as possible in order to create a corpus big enough to be representative of what happens in the classroom, to avoid the limitations of previous studies (Milla & García Mayo, 2014). As CLIL started to be implemented in the BAC only about a decade ago, there are few schools in the area which include English as the language of instruction at this level of education. Besides, we have to mention the great difficulty to gain access to real classrooms in this context. On the one hand, parents are reluctant to grant permission to researchers to record learners. On the other, teachers are not willing to take part in research since they do not like to be observed or analysed when teaching, probably for fear of being judged or criticized.

All in all, we were very lucky to find a school that met all the requirements we needed for the study, with a few teachers willing to participate in our research and permission from the parents to record the lessons. The school in the present study has post-compulsory secondary education (*Bachiller*) as well as several vocational professional courses. In this school, as in many of the BAC, lessons are taught in Basque except for the Spanish and English language subjects. However, we selected the school because they also offer a trilingual programme (Spanish, Basque and English), where, apart from the language lessons, some subjects are taught in Basque, some in Spanish and

some in English (see Tables 7 and 8 below). In order to be admitted to this programme learners have to pass an English test- they are waived if they have attended any kind of trilingual programme in compulsory secondary education (*Educación Secundaria Obligatoria, ESO*) or they have an official certificate of their English level.

Tables 7 and 8 display the subjects offered in the trilingual programme in 1st and 2nd *Bachiller* as well as the language in which they are taught. We can see that the amount of the three languages is not perfectly balanced, as more subjects are taught in Basque than in English. However, as we saw in section 4.1.1 above, CLIL approaches may be implemented in varied forms (Sylvén, 2013; Tedick & Cammarata, 2012).

Table 7: First year subjects taught in each of the languages

1st year	BASQUE	SPANISH	**ENGLISH**
Compulsory subjects	Basque Language and Literature I	Spanish Language and Literature I	English I
	Philosophy and Civic Education		Science for the Contemporary World
	Physical Education		
Humanities and Social Sciences	Contemporary History		
	Maths I (Social Sciences oriented) *or* Greek		
	Latin	*or*	Economics
			Psychology and Sociology *or* Information Technology
Science and Technology	Maths I		
	Physics and Chemistry		
	Biology and Geology	*or*	Technical drawing
	Technology	*or*	Information Technology *or* Laboratory techniques *or* Psychology and Sociology
Total: 10 subjects	5-7 subjects	1 subjects	2-4 subjects

Table 8: Second year subjects taught in each of the languages

2nd year	BASQUE	SPANISH	**ENGLISH**
Compulsory subjects	Basque Language and Literature II	Spanish Language and Literature II	English II
	History of Philosophy		History
Humanities and Social Sciences	Geography *or* Latin II		Business Studies *or* History of Arts
	Maths II (Social Sciences oriented)	*or*	Universal Literature
	Law	*Or*	Administration and Management processes
Science and Technology	Maths II	*Or*	Earth and Environment Sciences
	Technology *or* Chemistry		
	Physics	*or*	Human physiology and Anatomy
	Biology	*or*	Technical Drawing II
Total: 9 subjects	3-6 subjects	1 subjects	2-5 subjects

Once having described the research setting, we will present the participant teachers and learners.

6.2.1. PARTICIPANTS

TEACHERS

The main corpus of the present study consists of the lessons in 2nd year of *Bachiller* with one CLIL and one EFL teacher being observed. As mentioned above, the 1st year lessons were recorded for the sake of ascertaining the lack of teacher effect in the results when comparing CLIL and EFL teachers. Thus, information about this group of learners and their teachers will be provided later.

The author contacted the school and explained the aims of the study to the school headmaster, who proposed the CLIL and EFL teachers in the trilingual programme the participation in the study, and two teachers were selected. The EFL teacher was a female who had been teaching English for 26 years. She had a degree in English Studies and had

completed different courses to refresh her knowledge of English. She had a very advanced level as self-reported in the background questionnaire she completed (see Appendix 1). Moreover, as all the teachers in secondary education in Spain, she had completed a postgraduate course on teacher training called Certificate of Pedagogical Aptitude, *CAP* (*Certificado de Aptitud Pedagógica*), which, since the implementation of the new system of university education (also known as Bologna process) around 2010, has become a Master's programme.

The CLIL teacher was a male with a background in Economics and 20 years of teaching experience, the last seven of which he used English as the language of instruction. Teachers in Spain receive not only a pedagogical (*CAP*) but also a linguistic training before being allowed to teach in CLIL, as mentioned above (Llinares & Dafouz, 2010). Thus, they need to obtain a certificate of a C1 level of English in order to teach subjects in English at secondary level and beyond. The CLIL teacher had obtained this certificate several years ago and had a self-reported advanced level of English. He also had the *CAP* certificate. He taught the subjects of Economics, Business Studies, and Administration and Management Processes in the school. These three were non-compulsory subjects belonging to the trilingual programme and taught in English. The lessons we observed were the ones of Business Studies, as this was the subject that most learners of the selected group had chosen (24 out of 26).

Furthermore, we needed a separate sample of CFEs coming from different teachers and different learners because we aimed to discard any potential teacher effect in the differences between the EFL and CLIL teachers in the 2nd year class. By looking at another pair of teachers, we would be able to confirm if the differences between the CLIL and EFL teachers in 2nd year also existed in 1st year and were not due to the 2nd year teachers' idiosyncrasies. Several CLIL and EFL lessons were recorded in a 1st year

Bachiller classroom of the trilingual programme at the same school. In the 1st year group we also observed lessons from two subjects, EFL and CLIL. On the one hand, English lessons taught by a female English teacher with 24 years of experience. Then, we selected the subject of Science for the Contemporary World as this was a compulsory subject, so all the group attended these lessons. The Science teacher was a female with 14 years of teaching experience.

Thus, we had four teachers in total participating in this study, but the data from the 1st year group were only analysed in order to discard teacher effects. The main information in our study comes from the teachers in 2nd year. These data will be thoroughly analysed in section 6.2.3. Apart from the teachers' behaviour we also examined learners' response, as explained right below.

LEARNERS

There were two groups of learners participating in the study. They belonged to the 1st and 2nd year of post-compulsory secondary education. As explained above, the main database comes from the 2nd year learners, since 1st year learners' data were only used to discard a potential teacher effect. However, these 1st year learners also participated in the beliefs questionnaire, and we consider it necessary to provide the reader with all the information about this group as well, even though the major conclusions of this study will derive from the other group, the 2nd year learners. As required is previous research (Basturkmen, 2012) we kept the group of learners constant to be able to compare the two teachers' behaviour. This way, not only did we expect to obtain a clearer picture of CF patterns, but also of uptake in the two different settings. Thus, the influence of the setting will be reflected in the learners' behaviour depending on the type of lessons they attended.

Therefore, we will proceed to describe the two groups of participant learners. Learners in both groups completed a background questionnaire (see Appendix 2) as well

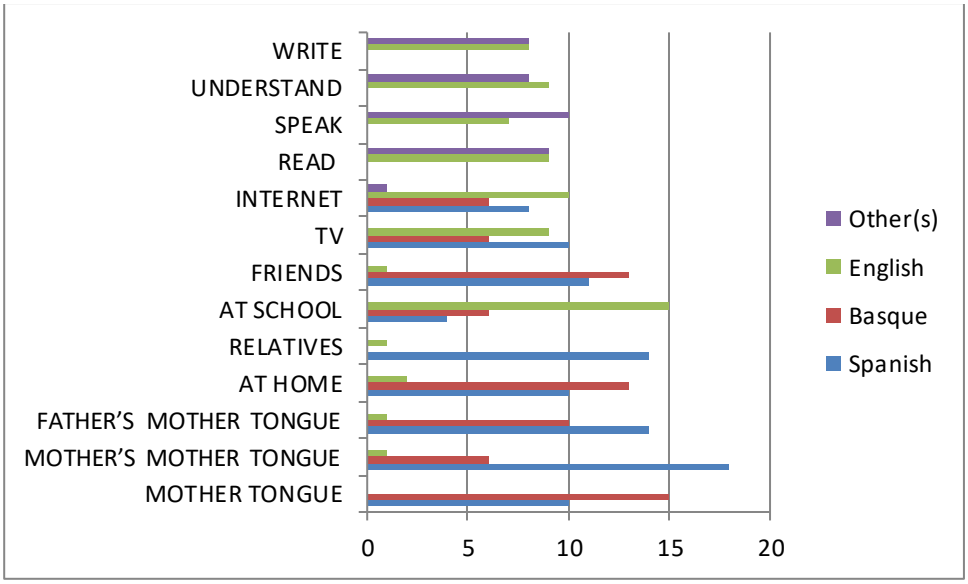
an English level test, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT; Syndicate, U.C.L.E., 2001). First, we will explain the results of these two instruments for 1st and 2nd year learners (see tables with results in Appendix 5).

The **1st year** group (n=25) only had three male learners. Most learners were sixteen years old, one was fifteen and another one was seventeen. As far as their birthplace, most of them had been born in Bilbao or the province of Biscay, one of them in another town of the Basque Country and two of them in other countries (Colombia and Guatemala). Table 9 displays this information:

1ST YEAR (n=25)	1	2	3	4
SEX	22	3		
AGE	1	22	1	
BIRTHPLACE	22	1		2

Table 9: Background questionnaire results for 1st year learners' sex (1=female, 2=male), age (1=15, 2=16, 3=17), and place of birth (1=Bilbao/Biscay, 2=Basque Country, 3=Spain, 4=other countries).

The questions related to the learners' linguistic background and their language practices rendered the following results, shown in Graph 1 below and explained in what follows.



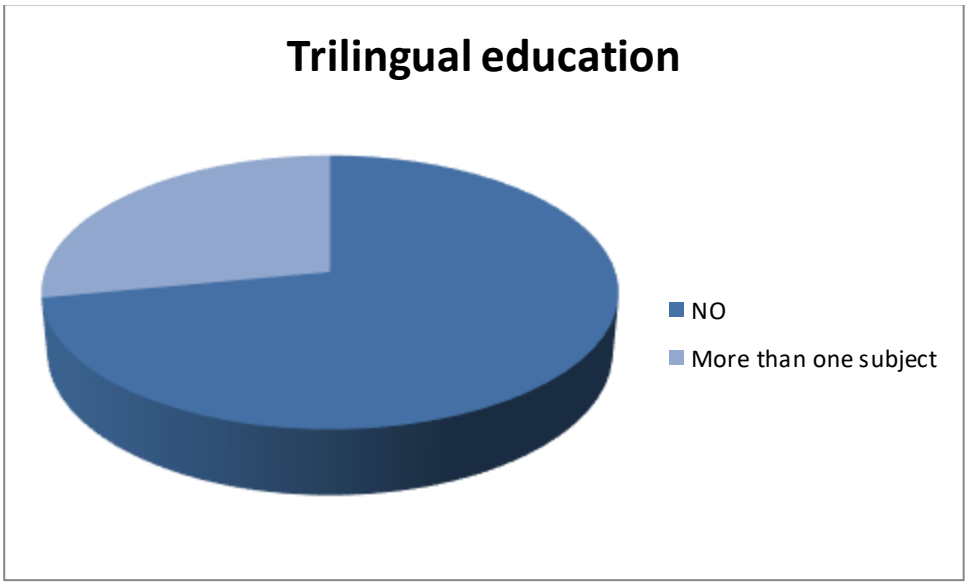
Graph 1: Linguistic background and language use in 1st year class

Ten learners reported Spanish and fifteen Basque as their mother tongue. The mothers' native language was Spanish in eighteen cases, Basque in six and another language in one case. As to the fathers, fourteen had Spanish as mother tongue and ten had Spanish, while one had English. In terms of language use, ten learners reported using Spanish at home, half of them used Basque or Basque and Spanish and a couple of them used English, Basque and Spanish[9]. With other members of the family fourteen learners used Spanish, and one of them the three languages. At school fifteen learners reported using the three languages, four learners using only Spanish and six Basque and Spanish. When interacting with friends one learner reported using the three languages, while the majority of them reported using only Spanish or Basque and Spanish. Ten learners reported watching television in Spanish, six in Spanish and Basque and nine learners the

[9]The father of one of the learners was English, so she marked English as one of the languages spoken at home and with other relatives. This learner neither obtained a higher result in the OPT (Syndicate, U.C.L.E, 2001) nor did she have an outstanding level of spoken English, so we considered her for the study in spite of her special condition of being half-native.

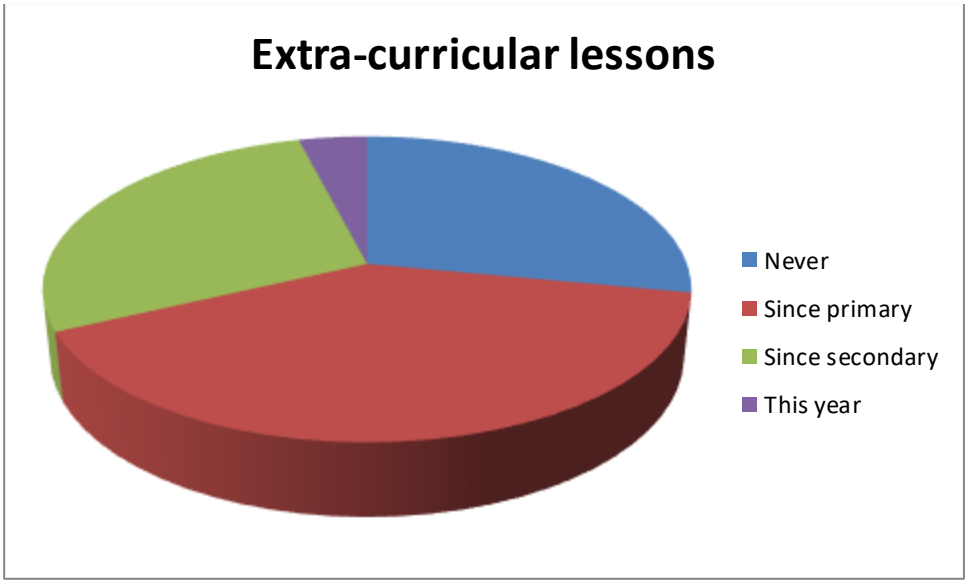
three languages. However, in the internet nine learners reported using Spanish, six Basque and Spanish, most used Spanish, Basque and English and one learner used another language on top of Spanish, Basque and English. When asked about other languages they could read, speak, understand and write some of them mentioned English and others mentioned an additional language.

Graph 2 shows that most learners had not followed any trilingual programmes in Primary or Secondary school and seven of them had followed a trilingual programme with more than one subject in English.



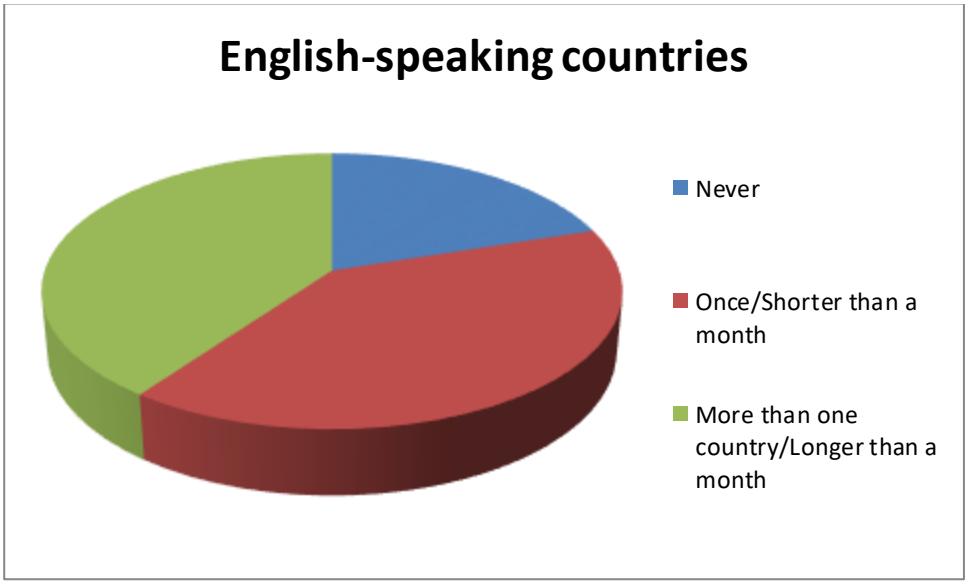
Graph 2: Trilingual programmes in primary or secondary education in the 1st year class.

As far as extra-curricular English lessons are concerned (Graph 3), seven learners had never attended them, ten had been attending lessons since primary, seven of them since secondary and one of them had started that year.



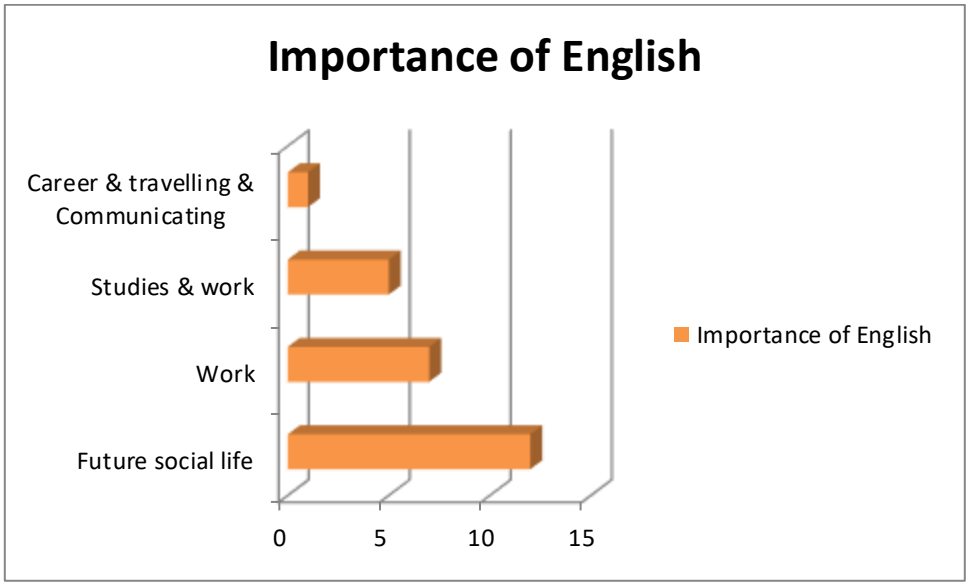
Graph 3: Extra-curricular lesons in 1st year class.

When asked about staying in English speaking countries (Graph 4), five learners had never been in one of them, ten learners had been there once and ten had been there more than once or for longer than a month.



Graph 4: Stays in English-speaking countries in 1st year class

Finally, we gave the learners an open question on the importance they thought English had for their future. Answers were analysed and codified according to the general idea they wanted to convey with their comments. Graph 5 shows the results.



Graph 5: Answers to the open question about the importance of English in 1st year class.

Thus, most learners said that it was important for their social life in the future, seven of them considered English important for future work, and five also mentioned future studies as elements of their life that could be benefited from learning English. Finally, career, travelling and communicating with other people was mentioned by one learner.

As to the results of the OPT (Syndicate, U.C.L.E., 2001), most learners obtained a lower-intermediate level (B1), as shown in Table 10.

LEVEL	Nº OF LEARNERS
Lower-intermediate (B1)	18
Upper-intermediate (B2)	6
Advanced (C1)	1

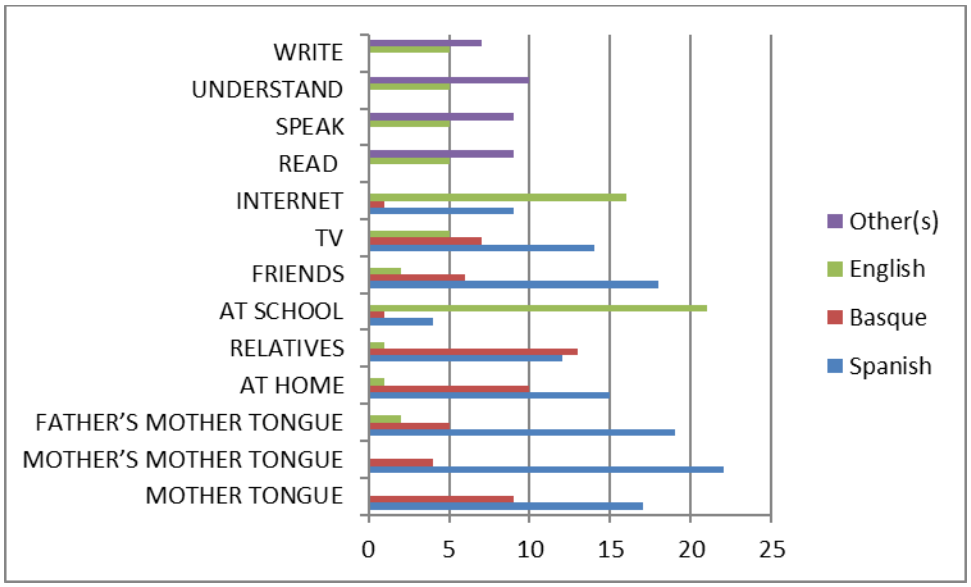
Table10: OPT results in 1st year learners

After having summarized the answers of the 1st year learners, we will present now the results of the 2nd year learners. In **2nd year** (n=26) fourteen of learners were female and twelve male, as shown below. Twenty-three of the learners were seventeen years old and three of them were eighteen. After the questions on gender and age, they had the questions on their linguistic background. Thus, we learned that twenty-four of them had been born in Bilbao or the province of Biscay and two of them in other towns of the Basque Country. The actual numbers for these results are shown in Table 11.

2nd YEAR (n=26)	1	2	3	4
SEX	14	12		
AGE			23	3
BIRTHPLACE	24	2		

Table 11: Background questionnaire results for 2nd year learners' sex (1=female, 2=male), age (1=15, 2=16, 3=17; 4=18), and place of birth (1=Bilbao/Biscay, 2=Basque Country, 3=Spain, 4=other countries).

Graph 6 displays data about linguistic background and language use.

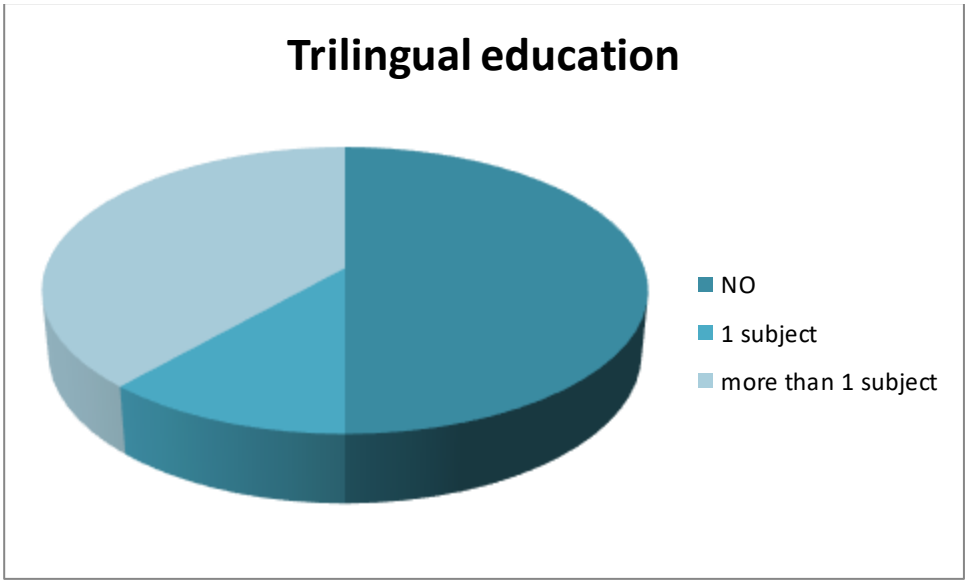


Graph 6: Linguistic background and language use in 2nd year class

As far as native languages are concerned, seventeen had Spanish as their mother tongue and nine had Basque as their mother tongue. The parents had in general Spanish as mother tongue, four mothers and five fathers had Basque and only two fathers had other languages as mother tongue. After these questions learners were asked about their language practices. They reported a tendency to use Spanish or Basque at home, with only one learner reporting the use of English at home. A similar use was reported with other relatives. At school, most learners reported using the three languages (Basque, Spanish and English), while four reported using only Spanish and one of them Basque and Spanish. As to the languages used with their friends, eighteen learners reported using only Spanish, six Basque or Basque and Spanish and only two of them used English. When watching television, they generally chose to do it in Spanish (fourteen), seven of them Basque and five of them Spanish or English. The use of languages in the Internet was slightly different: sixteen of them used the three languages and nine of them Spanish,

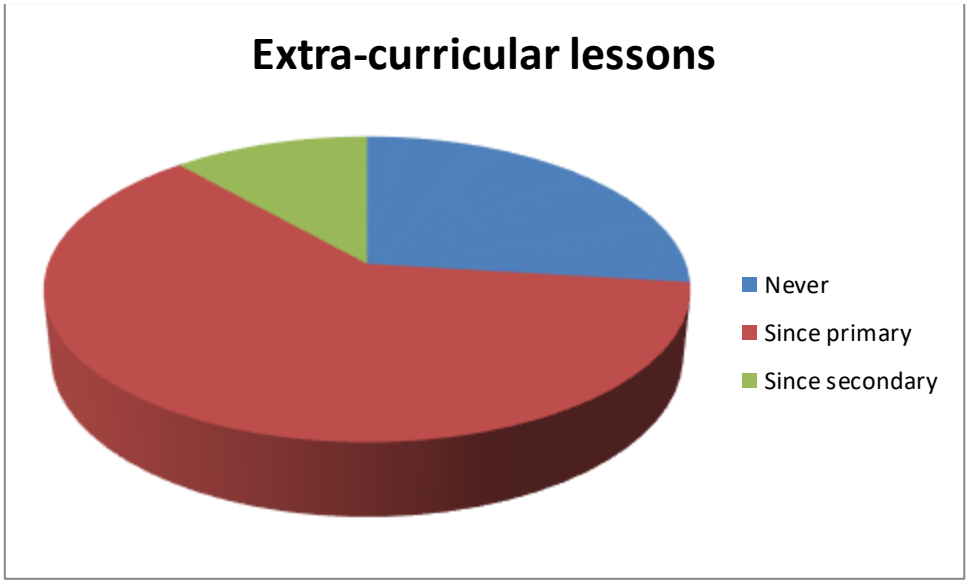
while only Basque was used by one of them. Learners were also asked about what other languages they could read, speak, understand or write. They mentioned English, French, and Italian.

Then, we also were interested in finding out how many of them had followed a trilingual education in primary and secondary levels. Half of the learners answered that they had not followed a trilingual education programme, few of them had only had one subject in English apart from English language and some of them said that they had followed a trilingual programme with more than one subject in English (Graph 7).



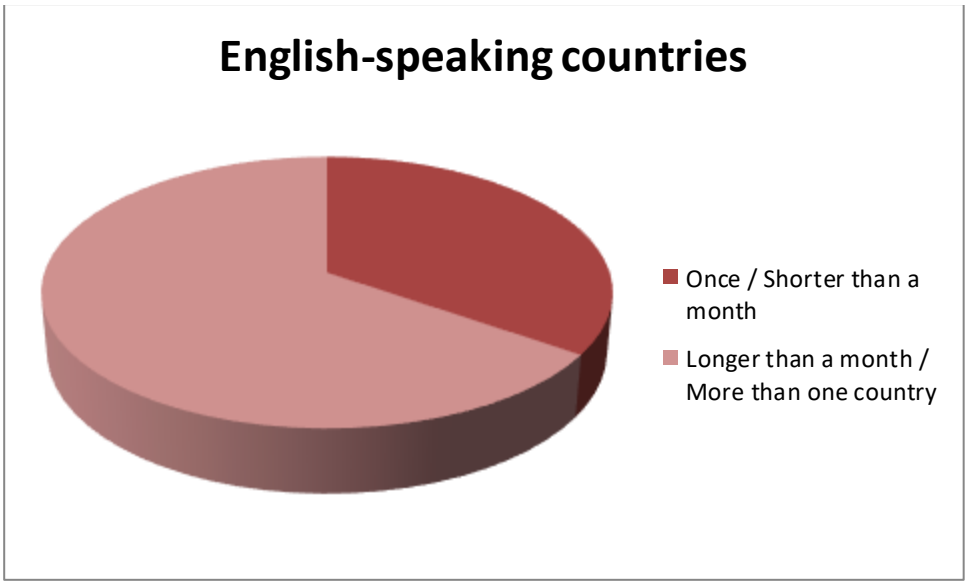
Graph 7: Trilingual programmes in primary and secondary education in 2nd year class.

Besides, we asked them about their extra-curricular lessons in English (Graph 8). Some learners had never attended any, most of them had had English lessons since primary and few of them since secondary education.



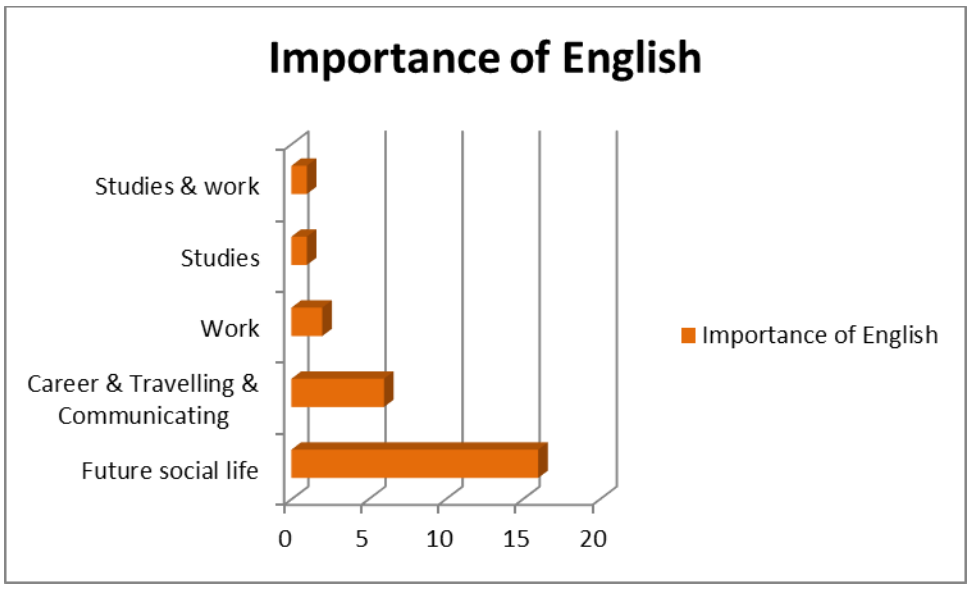
Graph 8: Extracurricular lessons in 2nd year class

Moreover, we asked them about their experience in travelling to English-speaking countries. As shown in Graph 9, some learners had travelled to an English-speaking country once before and most of them had stayed there for longer than a month or had been to more than one English-speaking country.



Graph 9: Stays in English-speaking countries in 2nd year class

As to the importance of English, we analysed the responses to the open question. Thus, we had more than half of the learners that thought it was important for their future social life and for travelling, including those who had the intention of living abroad in the future. Then, few learners considered English important for their future career as well as for travelling and communicating with other people. A pair of learners thought it was important for work, one for future studies and one for both work and studies. These results are displayed in Graph10 below.



Graph 10: Answers to the open question about the importance of English in 2nd year class.

In order to find out their level of English an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered. The results are displayed in Table12 below. The test divided the group in two levels: sixteen learners obtained a B1 level and ten were classified in B2 level.

LEVEL	Nº OF LEARNERS
Lower-intermediate (B1)	16
Upper-intermediate (B2)	10

Table 12: OPT results in 2nd year learners

In the next section, we will describe the methodology we followed to collect the data necessary to answer the first two research questions in this dissertation.

6.2.2. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

As mentioned above, the first and second research questions dealt with the teachers' provision of CF and learners' uptake to these corrections in CLIL and EFL classrooms. Therefore, in order to obtain a clear picture of the actual occurrence of CFEs in the classroom, we followed a classroom observation procedure. This kind of methodology is typical in CF studies and researchers in the field have obtained ecologically valid data by means of this method (Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002), which consists in witnessing the development of the lessons without interfering with them. In some cases, in which the focus was on the learners' reactions to CF, teachers were informed beforehand on what to correct, or how (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

However, the aim of the present study is to examine similarities and differences in the quality and quantity of CFEs in the EFL and the CLIL context. For this reason, neither teachers nor learners were informed of the specific nature of the study. Teachers knew that their interaction with learners was being observed, but they did not know that CF was being examined. We decided to allow them to act naturally, without providing any indication of how to behave, so as to obtain the most realistic picture of CFEs in the

classes involved. Therefore, teachers carried out the activities they had planned according to the syllabus. Although the type of activities and tasks used in the two contexts are very different in nature, which can be problematic when making comparisons, the fact that teachers acted as naturally as possible added up to the ecological validity of the study. Several researchers have emphasized the need to obtain realistic data of CLIL classrooms (Bruton, 2011; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Mehisto et al., 2008) so that this approach can be evaluated by using data from the actual lessons. Most of the research carried out on CLIL has been done in experimental settings and little is known about what actually happens inside the classrooms. This is why we chose an observational methodology with the aim to try and describe real CFEs as accurately as possible, taking into account the factors that come into play in the development of the lessons.

INSTRUMENTS

The lessons were audio-recorded using six recorders (Olympus DS-5000). One of these was carried by the teacher and included an attached lapel microphone in order to grasp all the details of the teacher-learner interaction. The other five recorders were placed in strategic points of the classrooms.

During the lessons, the researcher sat at the back of the classroom and took notes of the CFEs in a classroom observation scheme (see Appendix 3), as well as more detailed notes of the teachers' and learners' behaviour, such as the type of classroom activities, non-verbal actions and everything that was written on the board. These notes helped the researcher when transcribing and codifying the lessons.

Moreover, with the aim of obtaining a thorough picture of the classrooms, we performed an analysis of the lesson orientation for each of the subjects, English and Business Studies, using the guidelines in Part A of the COLT scheme proposed by Spada and Frölich (1995). Classroom orientation (to form or meaning) has been found to play a

role in the amount and types of CF provided by the teachers as well the uptake and repair rates and learners' reaction to the different CF types (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006). Besides, authors such as Llinares (2015) have called for the need for research regarding the integration of language and content in the classrooms (especially in CLIL classrooms). Llinares (2015: 58) explains that "in order to understand integration in its full scope, there are two main variables that need to be carefully investigated: the functions of language in different subjects (subject literacies and genres) and the way language and content interact in a variety of classroom interactional activities". The COLT scheme analyses the types of activities developed in the lessons as to whether they are theme-focused (based on teaching a specific content not related to language) or language-focused (clearly aimed to teach linguistic forms or rules). This scheme also explores the subject in charge of the activity, either the teacher or the learners or both. It also distinguishes if it is a teacher-fronted lesson or if the learners work in pairs or in groups. Finally, the scheme also analyses task modality or skill involved: speaking, listening, reading, writing or a combination of these. Results from the COLT scheme will be presented in the next chapter.

The learners had three English lessons every week. One of them usually took place at the computer's room, where learners performed writing activities and projects, pronunciation and other activities making use of information and communication technology tools. For the study, we observed only the lessons in the regular classroom, since much more interaction was expected here than in the computers' room. The learners had four lessons of Business Studies a week in the same room they had English lessons. 1st year learners had four lessons of English language a week and three Science lessons.

We recorded consecutive lessons in order to have a complete picture of what happened in the classrooms. However, recording was stopped during the exam period,

holidays, as well as for a week when 2nd year learners were on a trip with the two teachers or days when they had special events or visits in the classroom.

Five CLIL and six EFL lessons were recorded in the 1st year group and a total of twelve EFL and fifteen CLIL lessons were recorded in the 2nd year group. Before recording, the researcher observed a couple of lessons of each teacher in order to be sure that they were useful for the study, in terms of English usage and interaction. These lessons were recorded and, once their adequacy for the study was confirmed, they were included in the data for the present study. Table 13 below shows the total recorded times:

GROUP	**TIME**
1st YEAR EFL	3 hours 59 minutes
1st YEAR CLIL	4 hours 6 minutes
TOTAL IN 1st YEAR	**8 hours 5 minutes**
2nd YEAR EFL	10 hours 29 minutes
2nd YEAR CLIL	12 hours 14 minutes
TOTAL IN 2nd YEAR	**22 hours 43 minutes**
TOTAL RECORDED TIME	**30 hours 48 minutes**

Table 13: Total recorded times in the four classrooms (1st EFL, 1st CLIL, 2nd EFL and 2nd CLIL)

6.2.3. DATA ANALYSIS

CODIFICATION

Lessons were transcribed using CHILDES conventions and coded using CLAN (McWhinney, 2000)[10]. Table 14 displays the codes used for data codification. CFEs were tallied and each of the moves was transcribed.

CODE	Meaning	
*L1	Unsolicited L1 use[11]	ERROR TYPES
*G	Grammar error	
*P	Pronunciation error	
*L	Lexical error	
NC	Non-corrected error	CF TYPES
RC	Recast	
CL	Clarification request	
RP	Repetition	
EL	Elicitation	
ML	Metalinguistic cues	
EC	Explicit correction	
RF	Reformulation	
PM	Prompt	
NU	No uptake	UPTAKE TYPES
NR	Needs repair	
SR	Self-repair	
Pe	Peer repair	

Table 14: Transcription codes employed in the codification of the CFEs

As we will see in some of the examples below, these codes were combined to specify correction types associated with error types (e.g. NCG means a Non-Corrected Grammar error; SREC is a Self-Repaired error after the use of Explicit Correction). As explained in section 6.1.1 above, we were also interested in exploring the differences of

[10]The transcription and codification of the lessons was reviewed by another researcher. Inter-rater reliability, calculated by a simple agreement rate, rendered 98%.

[11] L1 use has been found to be a useful resource in oral interaction and helpful for task completion and comprehensibility (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009, Azkarai & García Mayo, 2015). Nevertheless, unsolicited L1 use was coded as an error in the context of this study as the learners belonged to a trilingual programme and had been studying English for many years. Therefore, we considered that they were able to communicate quite effectively without resorting to their L1.

output-pushing and input-providing CF. Therefore, we included the two categories, **reformulations** and **prompts**, in the analysis of the data. These two categories were not actually codified but, after having tallied the six CF types, we added up the numbers in order to obtain the totals for the two categories, as shown in Table 15:

CATEGORY	CF TYPES
REFORMULATIONS	Recasts + Explicit correction
PROMPTS	Clarification requests + Repetitions + Elicitations + Metalinguistic cues

Table 15: CF types included in the categories of reformulations and prompts.

Not only were the totals calculated but also the number of reformulations and prompts for each type of error as well as the uptake types for reformulations and prompts.

Besides, as anticipated in Chapter 2, following Lyster and Ranta's (1997) conventions, **multiple feedback** was codified as single feedback moves. Thus, the following equivalences displayed in Table 16 were used:

MULTIPLE FEEDBACK TYPE	CF TYPES
EXPLICIT CORRECTION	Recast or Explicit correction + Metalinguistic cues
EXPLICIT CORRECTION	Recast or Explicit correction + Elicitation
ELICITATION	Metalinguistic + Elicitation

Table 16: Multiple feedback equivalences

In the next chapter, we will illustrate this methodology with examples of the data that we codified.

ANALYSES OF CFES

After tallying the different categories, we proceeded to analyse the results in a quantitative manner. First, we needed to define the variables. Table 17 below shows the variables analysed for RQ1 and RQ2 and their categories.

TYPE OF VARIABLE	VARIABLE	CATEGORIES
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	*TYPE OF LEARNING SETTING*	EFL
		CLIL
DEPENDENT VARIABLES	*TYPE OF ERROR*	L1 USE
		GRAMMAR
		PRONUNCIATION
		VOCABULARY
	TYPE OF CF	RECAST
		CLARIFICATION REQUEST
		REPETITION
		ELICITATION
		METALINGUISTIC CUE
		EXPLICIT CORRECTION
		PROMPT
		REFORMULATION
	UPTAKE TYPES	NO UPTAKE
		NEEDS REPAIR
		SELF REPAIR
		PEER REPAIR

Table 17: Variables intervening in RQ1 and RQ2.

Once the variables were identified we performed different analyses on them. As mentioned above, we were interested in comparing teachers' and learners' behaviour concerning CF in EFL and CLIL classrooms. Thus, we maintained the learning

environment as natural as possible with the aim of preserving the ecological validity of the study. In our attempt to explain what happens in CLIL and EFL classrooms, we did not interfere with the natural course of the lessons in order to obtain a realistic picture of the phenomenon of CF in these settings.

A note has to be made regarding one of the variables. We have used immediate uptake/repair as evidence of CF effect. We already explained above that even though most researchers in the field are doing the same (Lyster et al., 2013), some others have argued that this response on the part of the learners is not enough to claim that learning has occurred (Goo & Mackey, 2013). Obviously, we cannot be sure that the learner has acquired the form completely simply because they have repaired the error after a CF move, but there is clearly an indication of some kind of noticing, which in turn has been shown to lead to L2 learning (Schmidt, 1990). Therefore, authors investigating CF in the classroom consider immediate uptake/ repair as a sign of CF effectiveness. The real impact of CF on learning could be better studied by means of other methodologies such as verbal protocols or post-tests, to ensure that this effectiveness is maintained over time (Sheen, 2004), but immediate uptake has been found facilitative of language gains in some studies (Loewen, 2004; Williams, 2001), which supports the use of this variable in studies on CF (Sheen, 2004).

Having identified the variables, we needed to define them in order to decide the type of tests required. In our case, we are handling all categorical variables, also known as qualitative variables. In order to find out the relationship between the different variables involved in the CFEs, we decided to use the Pearson Chi-square test for independence as we were comparing pairs of groups of data (with **categorical variables** involved) and using total numbers of cases, so we needed a non-parametrical test that

confirmed whether these pairs were significantly different or not. For these tests, the R programme version 3.2.0 (R Development Core Team, 2008) was employed.

The findings that will allow us to answer RQ1 and RQ2 will be presented in Chapter 7, where we will also look at the data from a qualitative perspective.

In the next section, we explain the methodology followed to answer the third and fourth research questions.

6.3. DESIGN OF THE STUDY: RQ3 & RQ4

Research questions three and four deal with the beliefs and attitudes towards CF and the potential effect that these beliefs have on teachers' and learners' behaviour.

6.3.1. PARTICIPANTS

TEACHERS

In order to answer RQ3 we administered a beliefs questionnaire to CLIL and EFL teachers. The participant teachers belonged to different secondary schools in the BAC together with the four teachers who had been observed for RQ1 and RQ2. These four teachers completed the questionnaire after the recording was finished so that they did not have any extra information about the real aim of the study. On the whole, twenty EFL teachers and eleven CLIL teachers answered the questionnaire. We offered the questionnaires to all secondary and post-obligatory secondary schools in the BAC (a total of 209), although, as explained above (section 6.2), there are not many schools that have implemented CLIL at secondary level. Therefore, it was not easy to find CLIL teachers to take part in our study. In general, we have found CLIL teachers more reluctant to participate in studies of the kind, especially when their teaching techniques are being examined. As for EFL, we had to discard those questionnaires of teachers who also taught

in lower levels apart from *Bachiller*. Details of the questionnaire are provided in section 6.3.2.

In addition to the results of the questionnaires, we compared the teachers' answers with their actual behaviour in the classroom, as has been suggested (Pajares, 1992) in order to obtain a complete picture of the phenomenon of CF. We analysed the behaviour of the 2nd year CLIL and EFL teachers.

LEARNERS

The data for RQ4 were collected through a questionnaire to the learners in the high school where the data were collected. The learners who had participated in the study, a total of 51 learners (from the 1st and 2nd year) completed the questionnaire.

6.3.2. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

INSTRUMENTS

In order to answer RQ3, we designed a questionnaire (see Appendix 1) for teachers. This questionnaire was adapted from Schulz's (1996) questionnaire from her study on teachers' beliefs about error correction and grammar teaching. The questionnaire was maintained in English and our final version was revised by a native speaker. Some items were added to Schulz's (1996) version and some others were removed to adequate the questions to the specific aims of the present study, such as beliefs about CF types or the necessity of CLIL teachers to correct oral errors. We included five initial questions that asked about the teachers' background. Then, there were a total of twenty-five closed questions on CF (oral and written) as well as on grammar teaching. The questions on WCF and grammar teaching will not be analysed in this dissertation and they were used as distractors. All closed questions followed a Likert scale pattern for the answers (1-completely disagree, 2-disagree, 3-neither agree nor disagree, 4-agree, 5-completely

agree). Finally, teachers had a blank space where they were invited to share any comments, concerns on CF and teaching grammar.

As for RQ4, a questionnaire for learners was created (see Appendix 2) with questions parallel to those in the teachers' questionnaire. They had thirteen background questions (the answers to these questions have been analysed above in section 6.2.1) where learners were asked about their linguistic background, the languages they knew and the different situations where they used those languages, extra-curricular lessons and stays abroad and the importance they give to the learning of English. Then, there were twenty-five closed questions whose answers were given using a Likert scale. Learners had an open space for comments or concerns on learning grammar and CF as well. This questionnaire was also in English since we considered these learners had sufficient knowledge to understand and answer it in the target language, being immersed in a trilingual programme as they were. Besides, the researcher and one of the teachers were present when the learners completed the questionnaire, in case any problems occurred.

6.3.3. DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, we will describe the codes we used for analysing the data from the questionnaires (RQ3 and RQ4) as well as the tests that we performed on them.

CODIFICATION

In order to answer RQ3 and RQ4 we analysed responses to teachers' and learners' questionnaires and compared the groups with respect to twelve questions. Table 18 shows the codes for the questions as well as the position where these items appear in the original questionnaires (see Appendices 1 and 2):

QUESTION	ITEM POSITION IN TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE	ITEM POSITION IN LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRE
ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (OCF)	6	14
REFORMULATIONS (RF)	7	15
METALINGUISTIC PROMPTS (ML PROMPTS)	8	16
PROMPTS (PM)	9	17
PEER CORRECTION (PEER)	10	18
PRONUNCIATION (PRON)	11	19
GRAMMAR (GR)	12	20
VOCABULARY (VOCAB)	13	21
ALL ERRORS (ALL)	14	22
LEARN FORM CF (LEARN)	15	23
CLIL TEACHER CF (CLIL)	25	33
ONLY EFL TEACHER CF (EFL)	26	34

Table 18: Codes and item position in the questionnaire.

We compared the responses to the items in Table 18 in the groups detailed below:

First, in order to answer RQ3, we proceeded as follows:

- Comparison of the responses provided by EFL and CLIL teachers.

- Qualitative comparison of questionnaire responses and classroom behaviour of the 2nd year teachers (EFL teacher / CLIL teacher) was carried out considering the following items and CF techniques:

1. All errors – amount of CF

2. Reformulations – amount of reformulations

3. ML prompts – amount of ML

4. Prompts – amount of prompts

5. Pronunciation – amount of pronunciation errors corrected

6. Grammar – amount of grammar errors corrected

7. Vocabulary–amount of vocabulary errors corrected

As for RQ4, the following groups were compared:

- EFL teachers vs learners
- CLIL teachers vs learners
- All teachers vs learners (if EFL and CLIL teachers responded similarly)
- Qualitative comparison of responses and behaviour in the classroom of the observed learners (2nd year learners / 1st year learners) examining the following items and uptake:

1. OCF – amount of uptake
2. Reformulations – amount of uptake to reformulations
3. ML prompts – amount of uptake to metalinguistic
4. Prompts – amount of uptake to prompts

TESTS FOR QUESTIONNAIRES

Once again, the R programme Version 3.2.0 was used to perform the statistical analyses. In our study, the responses to the questionnaire are categorical ordinal variables and we performed a specific test for ordinal variables, the U-Mann-Whitney test.

6.4. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have presented the methodology followed in the study for data collection and analysis. We used a classroom observation procedure in order to answer RQ1 and RQ2, recording lessons of an EFL and a CLIL teacher interacting with the same group of learners in 2nd year post-obligatory secondary education in a trilingual

programme in a school of the BAC. We analysed the CFEs occurring in these lessons, comparing the different aspects of these episodes in the CLIL and EFL settings. We also recorded some lessons of another pair of teachers (EFL and CLIL) interacting with a group of learners in the 1st year of the same programme in the same school, data which were used to discard any potential teacher effect. It is clear that every teacher is different, but at least, we intended to confirm that the similarities and differences found in 2nd year were also present in 1st year, which allows us to make some cautious generalizations. As for RQ3 and RQ4, we administered a questionnaire to the participant teachers and other EFL and CLIL teachers of secondary education in the BAC. An equivalent questionnaire was also completed by the participant learners. Answers were analysed and contrasted among groups and also with the data obtained from the classroom observation procedure.

The following chapter presents the findings for each of the research questions entertained.

CHAPTER 7: RESULTS

7.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, we will first present the quantitative and qualitative results for RQ1 and RQ2 obtained from the analyses performed on the data obtained from the classroom observation procedure, that is, we will analyse the CFEs. Secondly, in section 7.3, we will analyse the responses to the beliefs questionnaires and the comparisons of the different participating groups. Finally, in section 7.4, we will compare both sets of data in order to describe the relation between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices.

7.2. RESULTS: CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK EPISODES (CFEs)

In this section, we will explore the quantity and quality of the CFEs that the participant teachers and learners produced. As explained in section 1.2 above, a CFE consists typically of three moves: error, CF move and uptake move. Example (10) illustrates this phenomenon again for the reader's convenience. The error move in this case is a lexical error, which the teacher decides to correct by means of a recast move, providing the correct word (*live*). Finally, the uptake move consists of a needs repair move, since the learner acknowledges the correction but he does not repeat it.

(10) STU: […] it's a house I'd like to stay [*L] in a house.
TEA: you'd like to live [RCL] there.
STU: yes [NRRC].

We will examine each of these moves in detail, both from a quantitative perspective in section 7.2.1 and from a qualitative perspective in 7.2.2. As explained in the previous chapter, we used an ecological approach to data collection, not manipulating

the course of the lessons at all. Therefore, due to the fact that we could not control for all the variables involved, there are certain aspects of the data that cannot be captured by the statistical analyses and need to be explained in detail with a qualitative analysis.

As explained above, the first analysis performed on the data was the creation of a COLT scheme in order to find out the classroom orientation in each of the settings. In what follows, we present and explain the results of the COLT analysis in the 2nd year EFL and CLIL classrooms. The first column indicates the class, the second the category under study, the third the options for each of the categories, the fourth the total seconds used in each of the options and, finally, the percentage of the time that each of the options took in each of the categories.

RESULTS OF COLT ANALYSES

Class	Category	Options	Time(seconds)	%
EFL2	**Participant organization**	Whole Class- Teacher led	21279	54.22
		Group or pair	9196	23.43
		Individual	8771	22.35
	Content focus	Language	12766	35.18
		Thematic	19654	54.16
		Language and thematic	3656	10.07
		Classroom management	212	0.58
	Content control	Teacher/text/learners	16942	46.18
		Learners	1404	3.83
		Learners/text	13403	36.54
		Tea/Stu	4934	13.45
	Learner modality	Speak	580	1.58
		Listen	2710	7.39
		Speak and Listen	6385	17.41
		Read and Write	3650	9.95
		Write/Read/Speak/Listen	23355	63.67
EFL2 total recorded time			34768	100

Table 19: COLT scheme results in EFL2 classroom

Class	Category	Options	Time (seconds)	%
CLIL2	**Participant organization**	Whole Class- Teacher led	35959	94.59
		Individual	2055	5.41
	Content focus	Thematic	35815	94.22
		Classroom management	2199	5.78
	Content control	Tea/txt/Stu	29865	73.74
		Stu/Txt	990	2.44
		Tea/Stu	9644	23.81
	Learner modality	Speak & Listen	12248	30.24
		Read & Write	990	2.44
		Write/Read & Listen/Speak	27261	67.31
CLIL2 total recorded time			38014	100

Table 20: COLT scheme results in CLIL2 classroom.

In Tables 19 and 20 we can notice the differences between the two classrooms. Regarding participant organization of the activities, in EFL lessons a teacher-fronted methodology is found more than half of the time, but group or pair activities and individual work of the learners also occur. However, in CLIL almost all the time is devoted to teacher-fronted activities and only a very small amount of time is allowed for individual activities. If we consider content focus, EFL lessons are divided into language and thematic content, with a little more time devoted to thematic content. CLIL lessons were expected to be centred on thematic content, but we have not found any time at all devoted to language content alone or in combination with thematic content. When we look at who is in control of the tasks, the time is divided into the teacher and the learners (46%) and the learners with the text (36%) in EFL but in CLIL the lessons are controlled by the teacher and the learners together most of the time (73%). This means that in the English lessons there is less intervention of the teacher and more individual work and opportunities for peer-interaction, while in CLIL the teacher is in control most of the time, which leads to learners having fewer opportunities for free production and repair of the errors, as we will see below. Finally, as for modality, EFL activities are more centred on

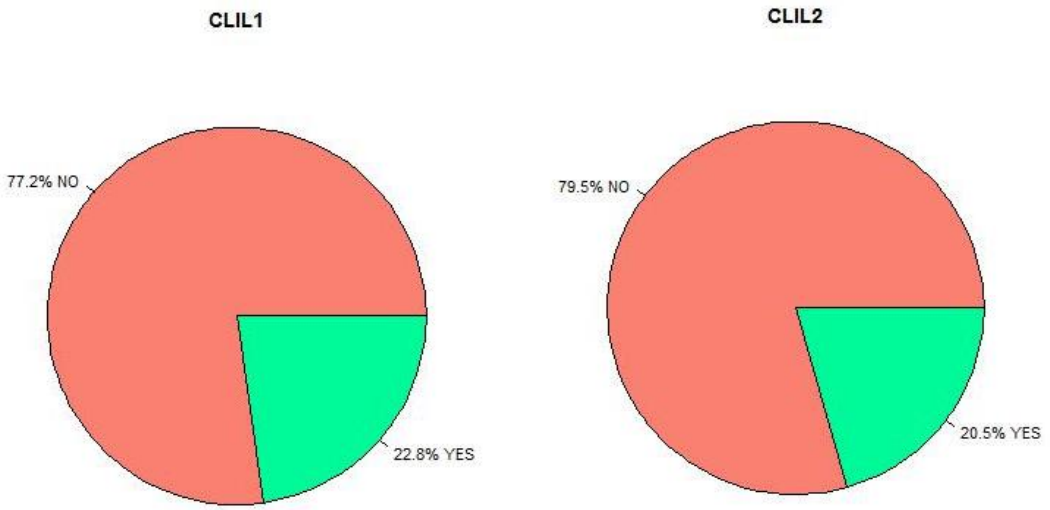
the oral skills, while in CLIL there is a mixture of written and oral skills for most of the time.

Wrapping up, we can say that the differences between the two classroom settings are evident as to the nature of the lessons. Consequently, differences in other respects such as CFEs are expected as well. We will show the results of those analyses in 7.2.2 and 7.2.3, but before looking further into the two classrooms we need to discard a potential teacher effect. This is explained in the following section.

7.2.1. TEACHER EFFECT

Before answering the RQs, we wanted to confirm that the potential differences between the EFL and the CLIL teachers in 2nd year were not due to the specific characteristics of these two teachers. Therefore, we looked at the data obtained by EFL and CLIL teachers in 1st year, comparing their data with their 2nd year counterparts'. Since the analyses were made with raw numbers, there were many more instances of CF moves in the 2nd year, both in CLIL and EFL, but we are interested in the proportions, to see whether they were similar in both years.

First, we looked at the amount of correction in the **CLIL** lessons of 1st and 2nd year classes. In Graph 11 below, we can see that indeed, both teachers corrected a similar proportion of the total number of errors (22.8% in CLIL1 and 20.5% in CLIL2).

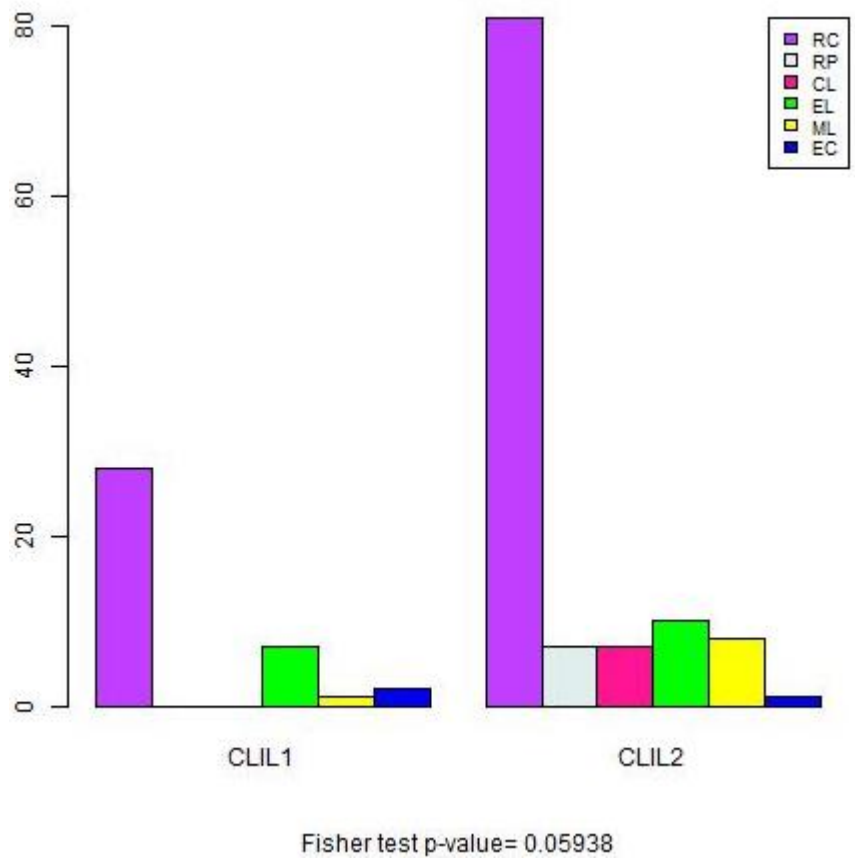


Graph 11: Percentage of corrected and not corrected errors in CLIL1 and CLIL2

A Chi-Square test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the proportion of CF in the two CLIL groups (p-value= 0.6121218).

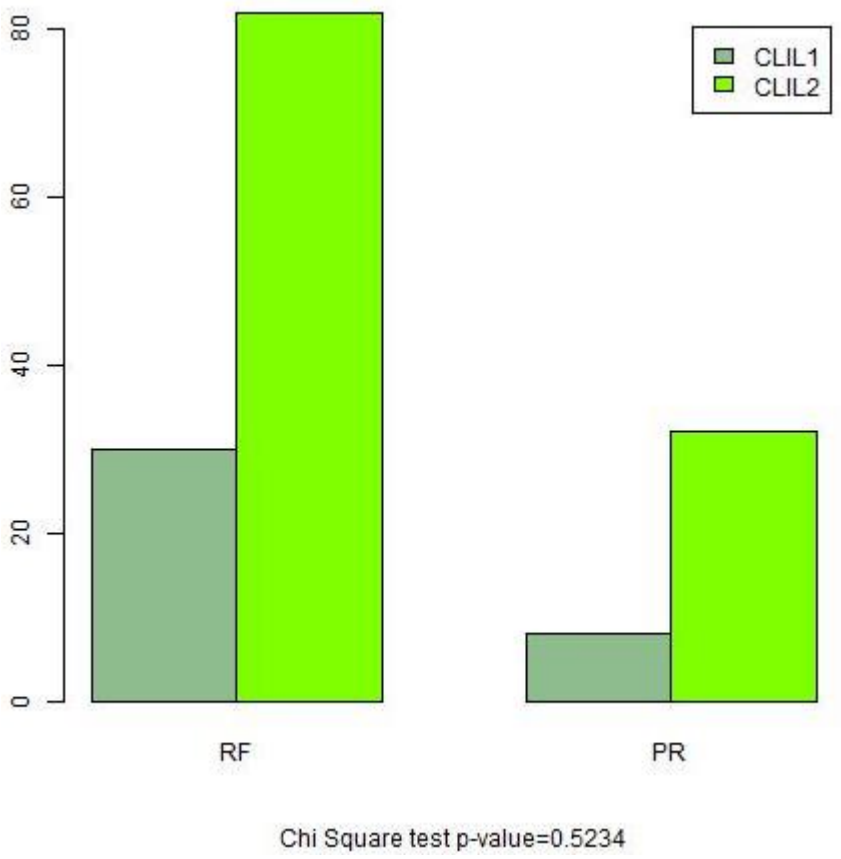
Once it was confirmed that CLIL teachers corrected a similar amount of errors, we looked at the types of CF that they used. In Graph 12[12] below we can see that they appear to use each of the types in a similar proportion, with recasts as the dominant type, followed far by elicitations and metalinguistic cues, and repetitions and clarification requests being hardly ever used. Explicit correction is the type that these two CLIL teachers liked the least. The Fisher test confirmed that there were not statistically significant differences between the two teachers in this respect (p-value=0.05938). Therefore, they behaved in a similar manner as far as type of correction is concerned.

[12] The scale in the *y* axis in the graphs we are presenting in this section does not coincide for all of them. This is due to the large range of results that we have when we include recasts and errors of L1 use. Therefore, we had to adapt the scale in certain graphs so that the smaller numbers of other CF types or error types are visible.



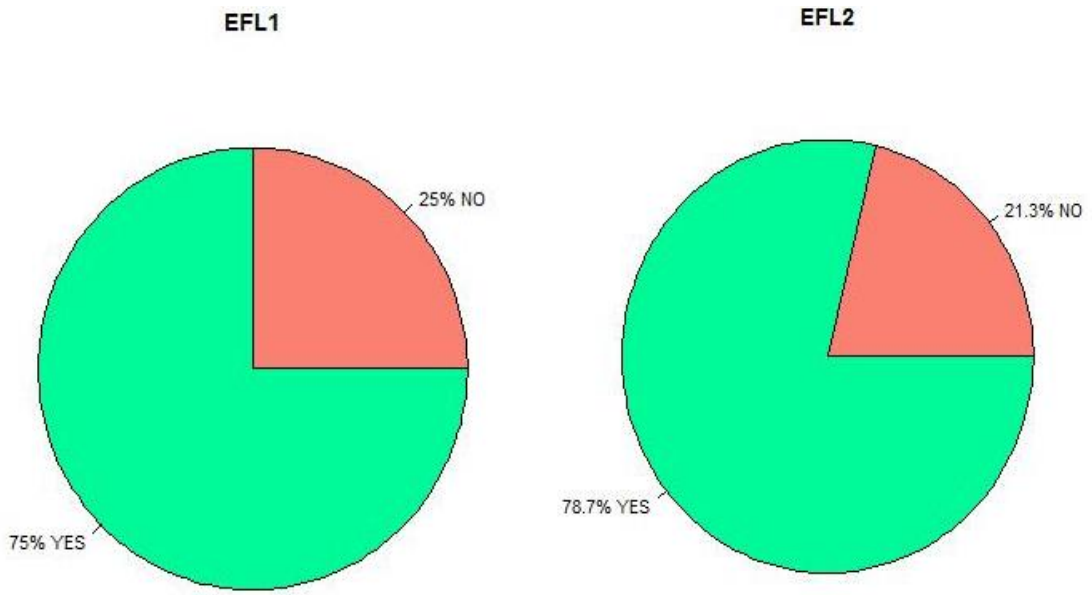
Graph 12: Use of CF types in CLIL 1 and CLIL 2 (RC=Recast, RP=Repetition, CL=Clarification request. EL=Elicitation, ML=Metalinguistic cues, EC=Explicit correction).

We also tested that these two teachers used a similar proportion of reformulations and prompts. Graph 13 displays the results, which were found to be not significantly different in the Chi Square test (p-value=0.5234). Therefore, we can confirm that the corrective behaviour was similar in CLIL1 and CLIL2 teachers.



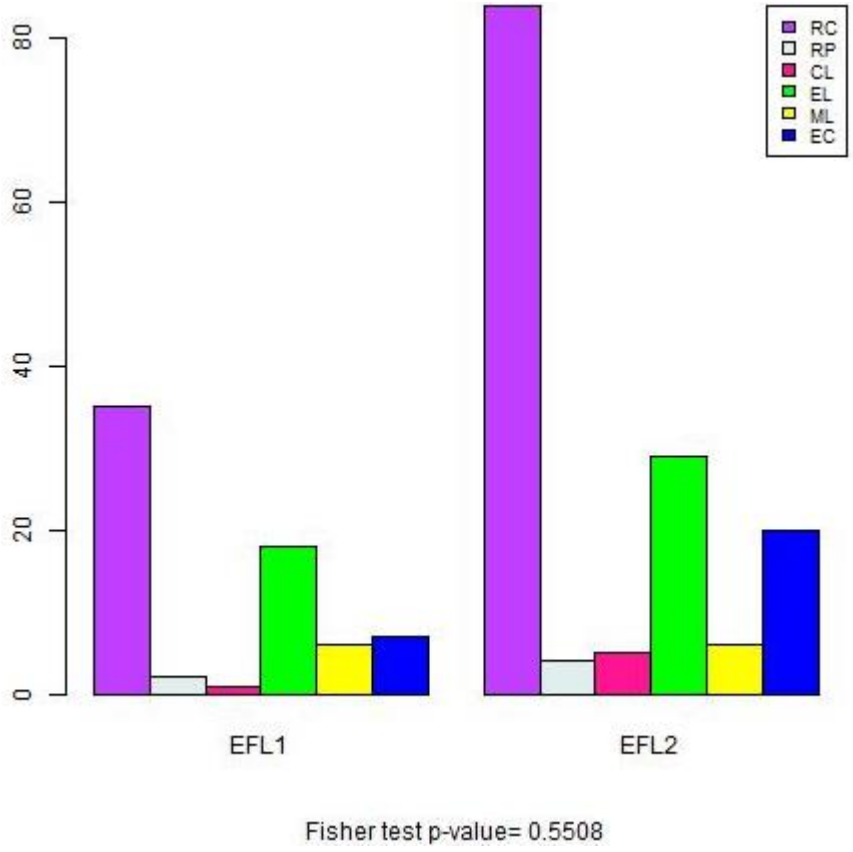
Graph 13: Use of reformulations (RF) and prompts (PR) in CLIL1 and CLIL2

Next, we looked at the two **EFL** teachers and saw that they also corrected a similar proportion of errors. Graph 14 below shows that they corrected a very high proportion of the total number of errors (75% and 78%), and the test confirmed that these proportions were not statistically different (p-value=0.5833834).



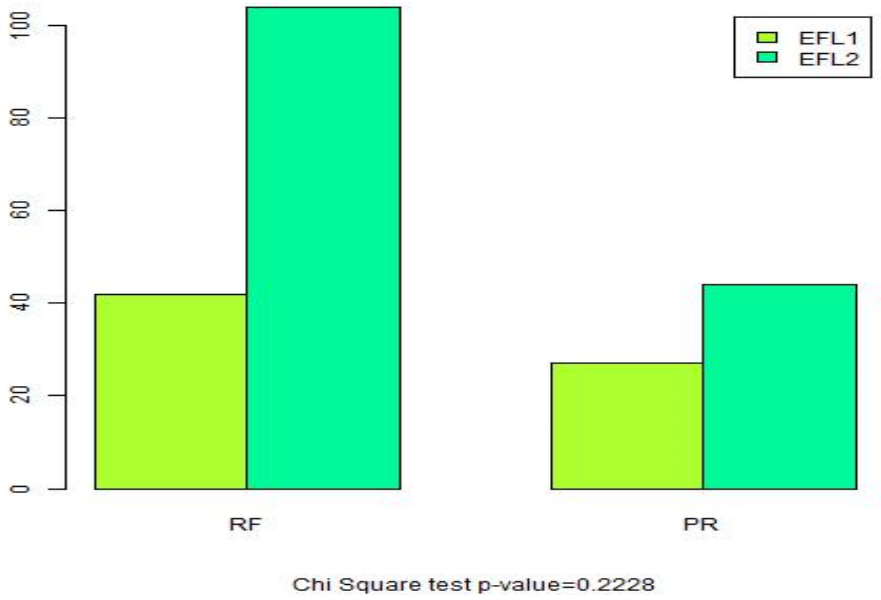
Graph 14: Percentage of errors corrected and not corrected in EFL1 and EFL2

We also confirmed that EFL teachers used CF types in a similar proportion (p-value=0.5508). Recasts were the most widely used type, followed by elicitations, and to a lesser extent, by explicit correction and metalinguistic cues. Finally, repetitions and clarification requests were used very scarcely in the EFL classrooms (see Graph 15).



Graph 15: Use of CF types in EFL1 and EFL2

Finally, as displayed in Graph 16, we confirmed that EFL teachers used a similar proportion of reformulations and prompts (p-value=0.2228). The number of reformulation was higher, as in CLIL classrooms, but both EFL teachers also provided learners with more opportunities for self-correction.



Graph 16: Use of reformulations and prompts in EFL1 and EFL2

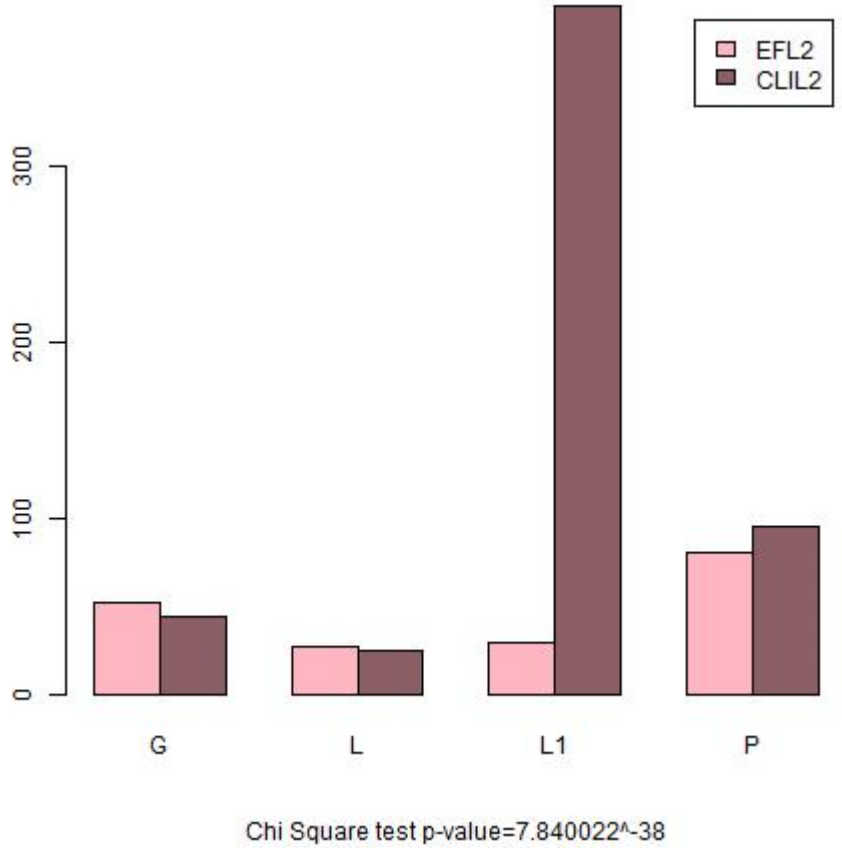
On the whole, with these preliminary tests we discarded that the specific teachers selected for our study (EFL2 and CLIL2) behaved in this way just because of their idiosyncrasy, since 1st year EFL and CLIL teachers had a statistically significantly similar behavior to their 2nd year counterparts. Obviously, we could attribute these similarities to the school or the trilingual programme or even the specific region where the data were collected, but the literature tells us that it is quite possibly the case that most EFL teachers at this level of education correct similarly and CLIL teachers may be behaving similarly in other schools, as we saw when we revised studies in this kind of classrooms in other geographical areas (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lochtman, 2007; Lyster & Mori, 2006). Analysing data from a large number of learners in other schools will add more variables to our study, instead of reducing them. Besides, the present study attempts to provide a detailed picture of a specific group of learners in two different subjects. That is why we decided to observe a single group of learners in one school instead of several groups or

groups from other schools, where new variables would come into play (school, learner, teachers, etc.).

Once the teacher effect was rejected as an intervening factor, we moved on to answer RQ1 and RQ2. From now on, we will be looking at the CFEs occurring only in the 2nd year classroom since the data collected in the 1st year classroom were used with the only aim of investigating a potential teacher effect. Therefore, for RQ1 and RQ2 we will use the data collected in the Business Studies and the English lessons of the 2nd year group with the corresponding two teachers.

7.2.2. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

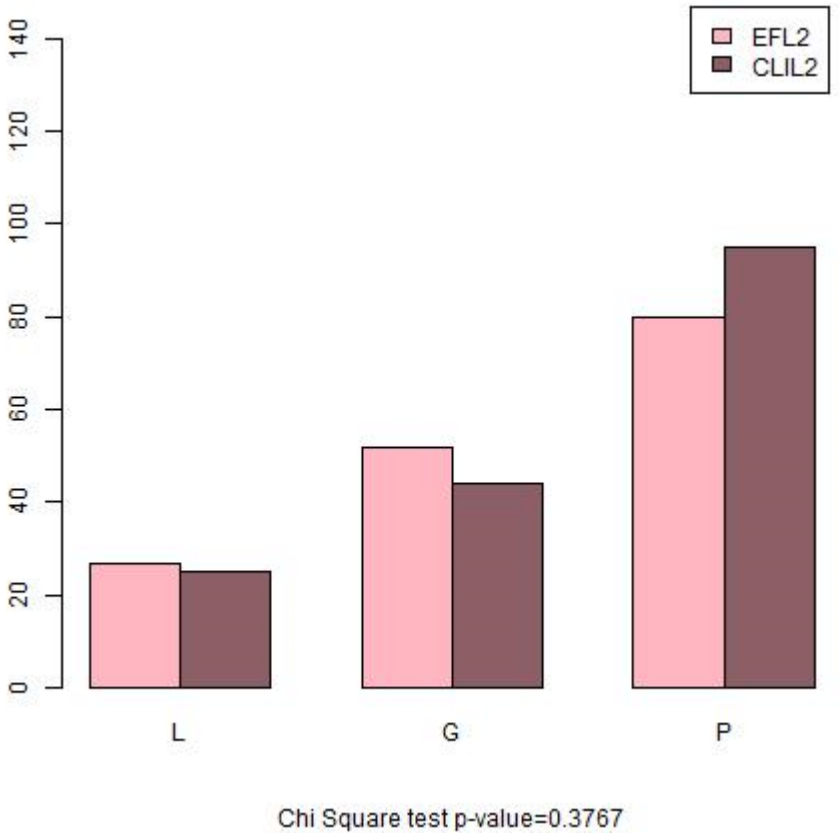
After the codification and tallying of the CFEs and the different moves, we started the analysis of these data by looking at the first move of the CFEs, the erroneous utterance. Graph 17 shows that the proportion of each **error type** was different in the two classrooms (p-value=7.840022^{-38}). Besides making many more errors in the CLIL lessons, learners have a much greater amount of unsolicited L1 use. Moreover, learners made more pronunciation errors in the CLIL lessons than in EFL. The number of lexical and grammar errors was higher in EFL. This difference was probably due to the fact that learners produced more utterances in English (and of more complexity) in the EFL context than in CLIL, where they turned to Spanish relatively frequently.



Graph 17: Error types in EFL2and CLIL 2 (G: grammar; L: lexical; L1: unsolicited L1 use; P: pronunciation error).

Since L1 use was the type of error that showed the largest differences, we considered it interesting to remove them from the analysis and looked only at grammar, pronunciation and lexical errors (see Graph 18). The Chi Square test shows that in this case the proportions were not significantly different (p-value=0.3767) in spite of the apparent larger number of pronunciation errors in CLIL and the slightly larger amount of lexical and grammar errors in EFL. This finding shows that learners avoided using their L1 in the English lessons, probably because the EFL teacher did not allow them to do so, while they used their L1 in the Business lessons very often. Results presented below show that the CLIL teacher did not correct this use of the L1 in most of the cases, his main

focus being on content rather than on language form. As for the occurrence of the rest of error types, we see that pronunciation errors are the most frequent in both settings, followed by grammar and lexical errors.



Graph 18: Error types without L1 in EFL2 and CLIL2

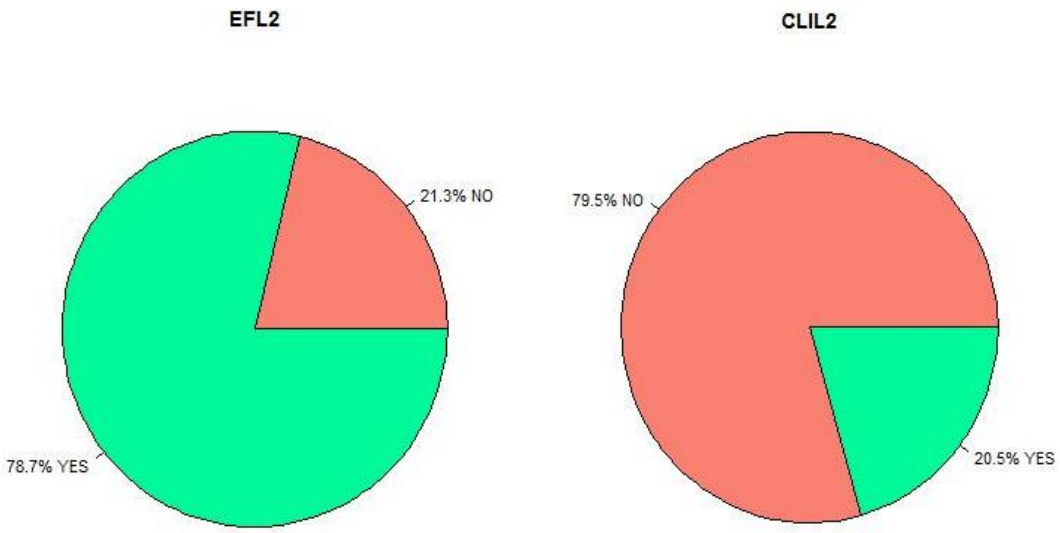
After looking at the first move of the CFEs, we proceeded to look for answers to the first of our research questions, reproduced below for the reader's convenience:

RQ1

a. **What CF types do teachers provide to learners' errors in oral interaction in a classroom setting? Is there a difference between CLIL and EFL lessons as far as type of CF is concerned?**
b. **Does type of errors influence quantity and quality of CF in each of the classrooms?**

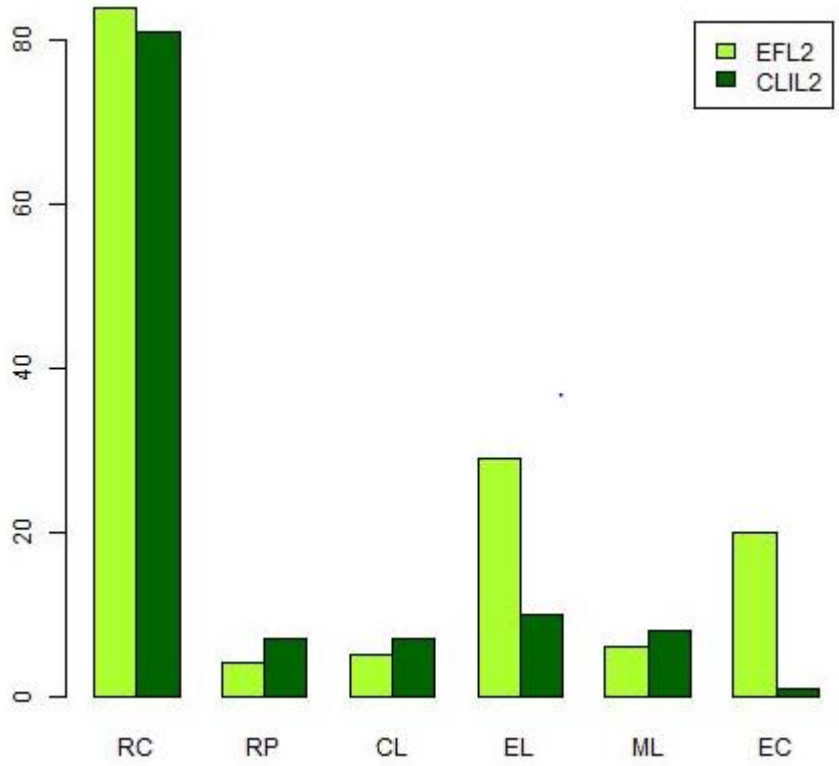
RQ1a

In order to answer RQ1a, we started by looking at the **amount of errors corrected** in both settings. As we saw in the previous section, there is a big difference of proportion of correction in each of the classrooms, as we can see in the extremely small value rendered by the test (p-value=$2.2*10^{-16}$). EFL2 teacher corrects most of the learners' errors while CLIL2 teacher only a small amount. These results are shown in Graph 19 below.



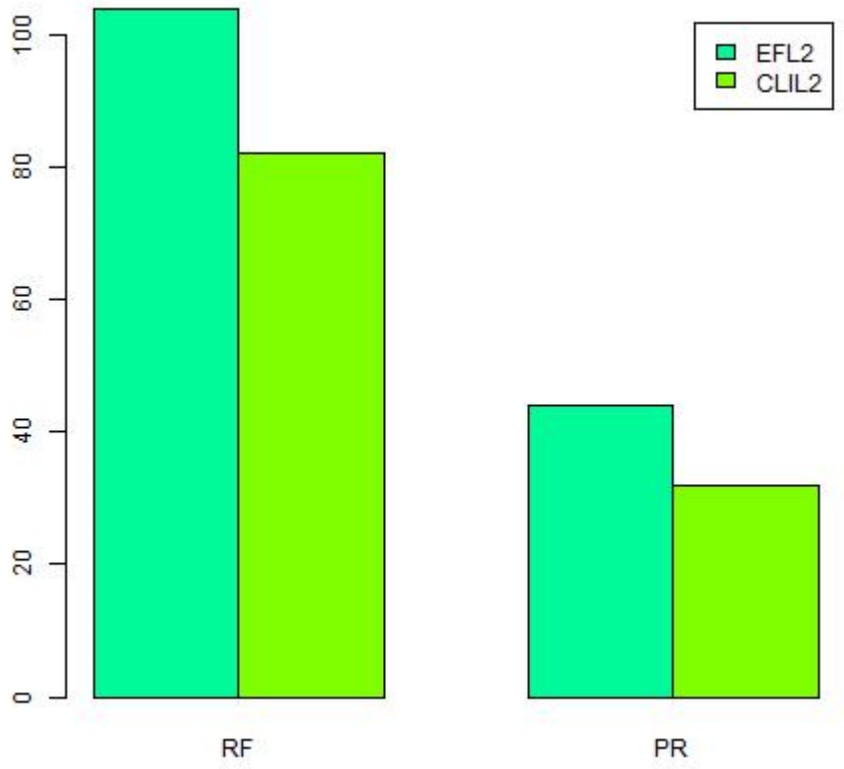
Graph 19: Percentage of errors corrected and not corrected in EFL2 and CLIL2

After confirming that the difference in the proportion of errors corrected was statistically significant, we moved on to analyse the **CF types** used by the two teachers. Graph 20 shows that recasts were the most frequently used type, while repetitions, clarification requests and metalinguistic cues were rarer in both settings. But in some of the types we can see an apparent difference: the EFL teacher used elicitations and explicit correction in greater proportion than the CLIL teacher. The Chi-Square test confirmed that the use of CF types was significantly different in the two settings (p-value=0.000224).



Graph 20: Use of CF types in EFL2 and CLIL2

One of our aims was to examine the use of **reformulations and prompts** as well. Graph 21 features the similar use of reformulations and prompts in the two settings, with prompts being about half of the total of CF moves (p-value=0.8759).



Graph 21: Use of reformulations and prompts in EFL2 and CLIL2

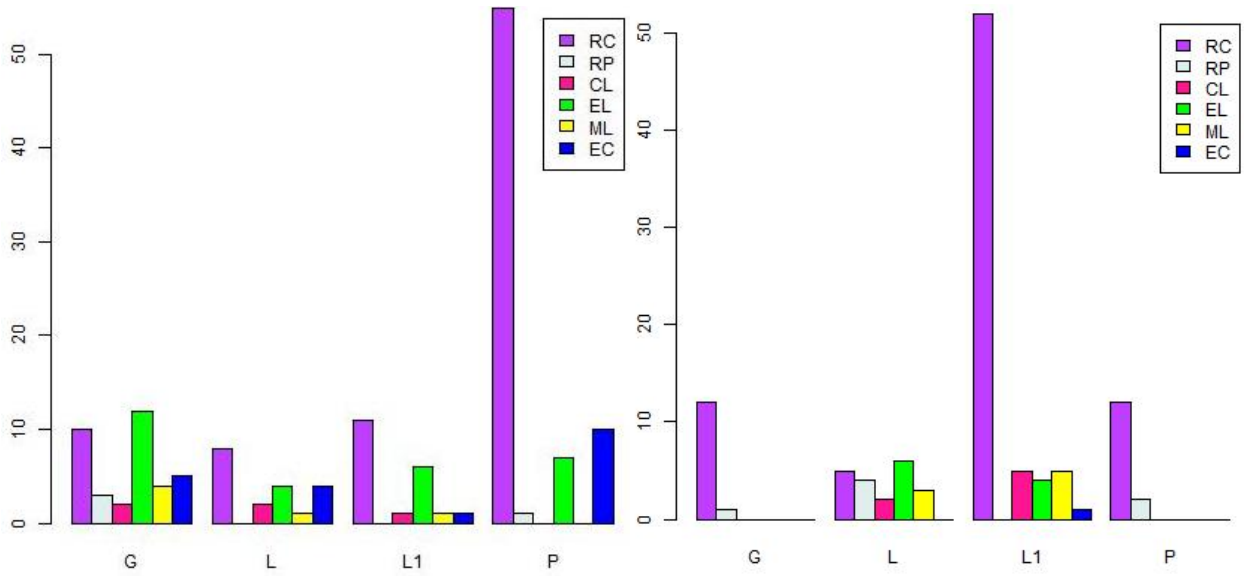
RQ1b

Firstly, we explored the **how often** each of the teachers addressed the different types of errors. In Table 21 below we can see that the EFL teacher addressed a high proportion of grammar, L1 use and lexical errors and almost all pronunciation errors while the CLIL teacher ignored grammar, pronunciation and especially L1 use errors, but corrected a very high proportion of lexical errors. Thus, as we will see below, although the CLIL teacher corrected a significantly smaller amount of errors, the error type played a role in the corrective behaviour of these two teachers.

Error type / Classroom	GRAMMAR	L1 USE	LEXICAL	PRONUNCIATION
EFL	68%	67%	70%	91%
CLIL	31%	18%	81%	22%

Table 21: Percentage of correction for each error type in EFL and CLIL classrooms.

After examining the use of CF types by each of the teachers, we analysed the use of these **CF types depending on the type of error**. In Graphs 22 and 23 we can see the differences in the use of CF types depending on error by each teacher and also the differences between the two teachers.

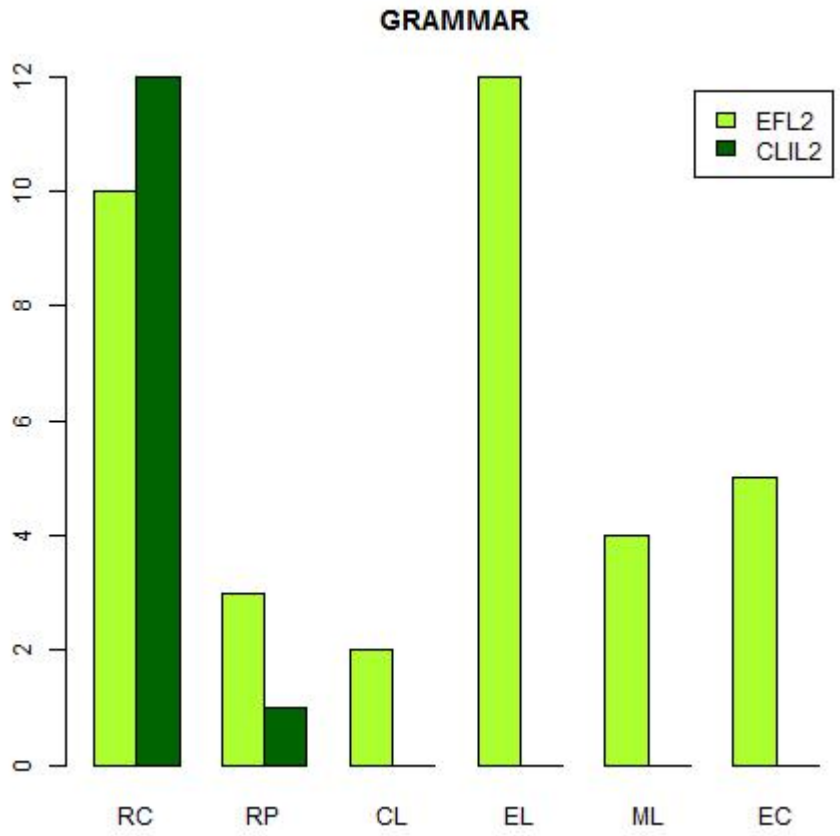


Graph 22: EFL2 teacher's choice of CF types depending on error type.

Graph 23: CLIL2 teacher's choice of CF types depending on error type.

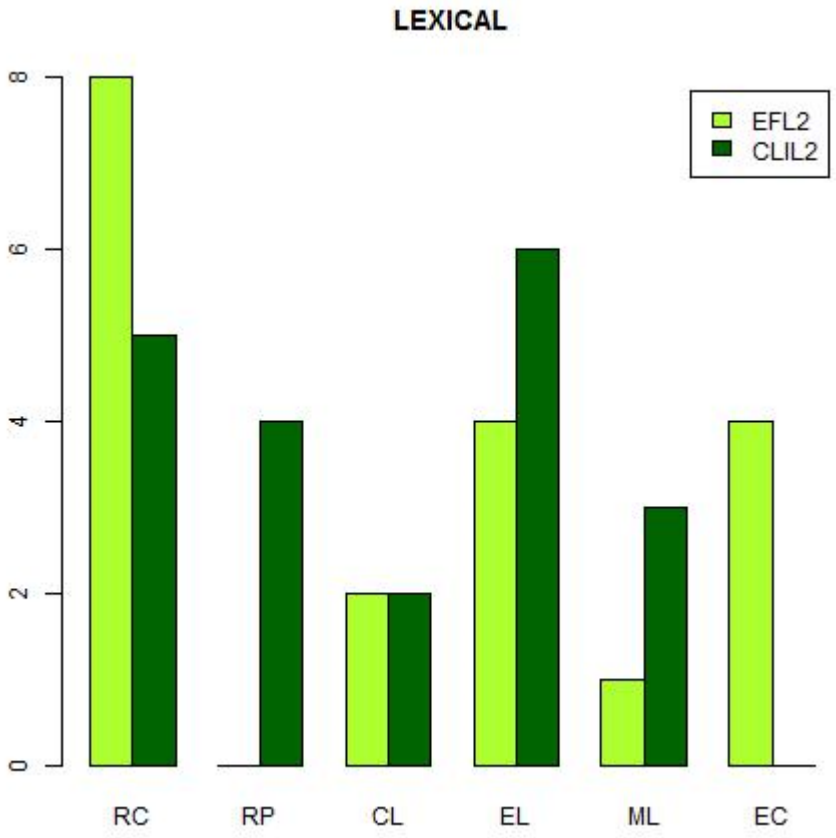
As Graphs 22 and 23 above show, error type did play a role in the EFL2 teacher's preferences for CF types. She used the whole spectrum of types but preferred recasts for pronunciation errors, and elicitation for grammar errors. As for the CLIL2 teacher, we obtained the same finding: error type was a factor on the selection of CF type. In spite of having a clear preference for recasts and implicit CF types, he used a wider variety of types to address lexical errors. Consequently, not only error type affected each teacher's choice of CF type (CLIL p-value= 0.0005269; EFL p-value=0.0004612), but it did so in a different manner.

These differences are shown in the following graphs, which display the use of CF types in CLIL and EFL with each error type. Graph 24 shows that the EFL teacher uses the whole spectrum of CF types for **grammar** errors, mainly recasts and elicitations, while the CLIL teacher uses mainly recasts and rarely repetitions and none of the other CF types. The Fisher test comparing the two teachers' behaviour towards grammar errors revealed that the difference was significant (p-value=0.00239).



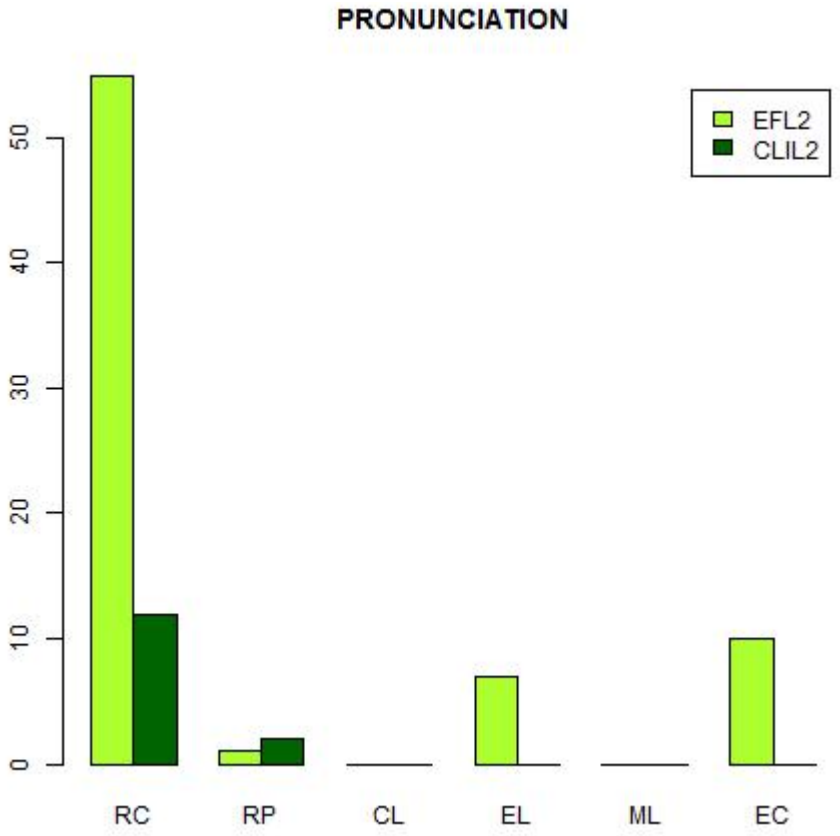
Graph 24: EFL and CLIL teachers' use of CF types for grammar errors

Regarding **lexical** errors, a different behaviour is observed: the EFL teacher in this case mainly uses recasts, although she chooses other CF types as well. Explicit correction is used in this case by the EFL teacher but not by the CLIL teacher. Besides, the CLIL teacher uses mainly explicit types of correction, such as elicitations, but also resorting to other types of CF, such as repetitions, which are not employed by the EFL teacher. However, this different use of types was not found to be significantly different (p-value=0.07319).



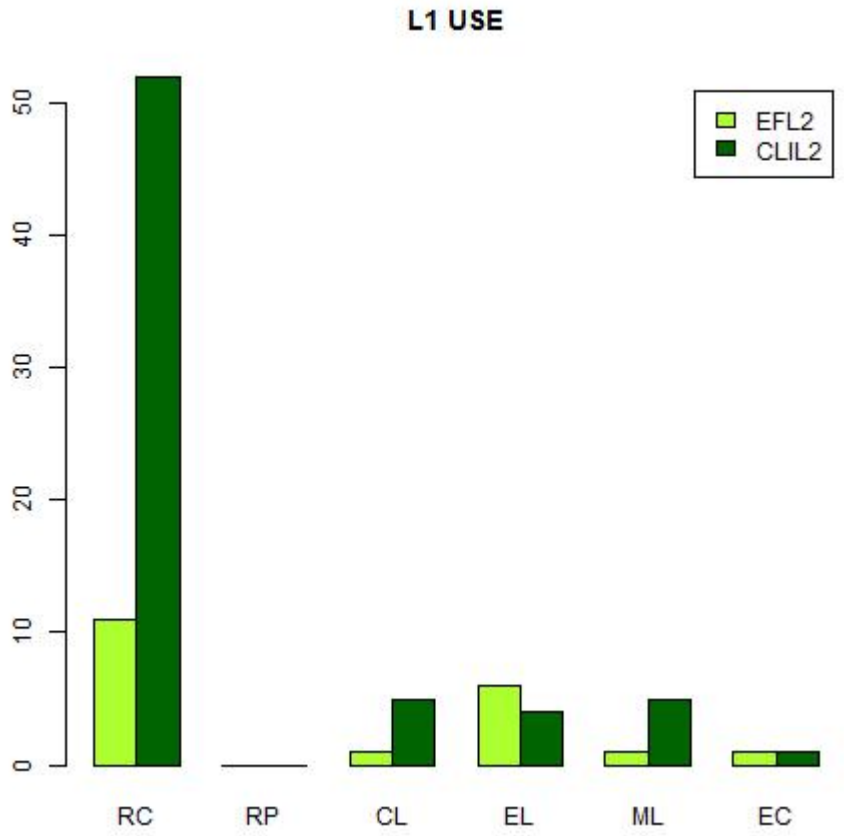
Graph 25: EFL and CLIL teachers' use of CF types for lexical errors

Graph 26 shows that the **pronunciation** errors lead teachers to behave in the different manner as to the use of CF types. The EFL teacher uses mainly recasts and some explicit correction, that is, reformulations, while the CLIL teacher does not really address these errors very often, and when he does, he makes use of recasts and repetitions. The teachers' different behaviour was found to be statistically significant (p-value=0.04727)



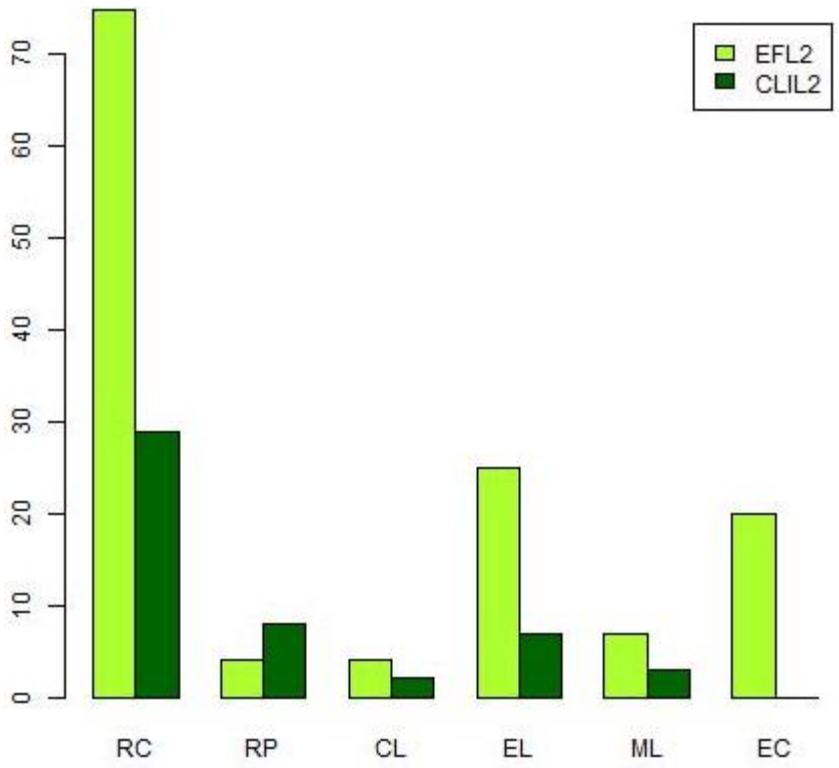
Graph 26: EFL and CLIL teachers' use of CF types for pronunciation errors

Finally, as for the errors related to unsolicited **L1 use**, once again we see that the teachers change their CF type preferences. Graph 27 displays the massive use of recasts by the CLIL teacher and the use of different types of CF made by the EFL teacher, who, once again, reveals a concern for language accuracy by not allowing the use of the native language in the English classroom. The Fisher test showed significance for the different behaviour regarding L1 errors (p-value=0.0322).



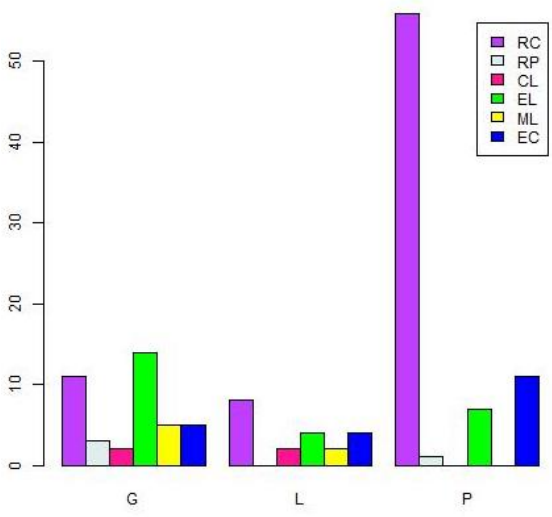
Graph 27: EFL and CLIL teachers' use of CF types for L1 use errors.

As shown in Graph 27 as well as in the previous section, there was an enormous number of L1 errors in CLIL2. Once again, we were concerned with the possibility that the differences found between the two teachers might be related to the presence of this massive number of L1 errors. Therefore, we decided to confirm whether these significant differences remained after **removing L1 errors** from the analysis. First, the amount of correction in CLIL and EFL was tested, with significantly different results (p-value=2.2^{-16}). Then, the use of CF types in each of the classrooms was checked (Graph28). After removing the L1 error type from the analyses, the teachers' choice of CF types remained significantly different (p-value: 0.007344).

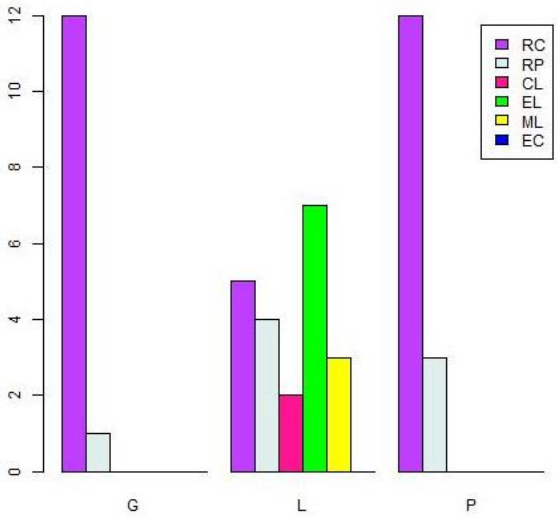


Graph 28: Use of CF types in EFL2 and CLIL2 (without L1 use)

Finally, the selection of types depending on error type was analysed (Graphs 29 and 30). Graphs 29 and 30 below show that the two teachers display a different behaviour (CLIL p-value= 0.0006821; EFL p-value= 5.321^{-5}).



Graph 29: Use of CF types depending on error type in EFL2 (without L1 use)

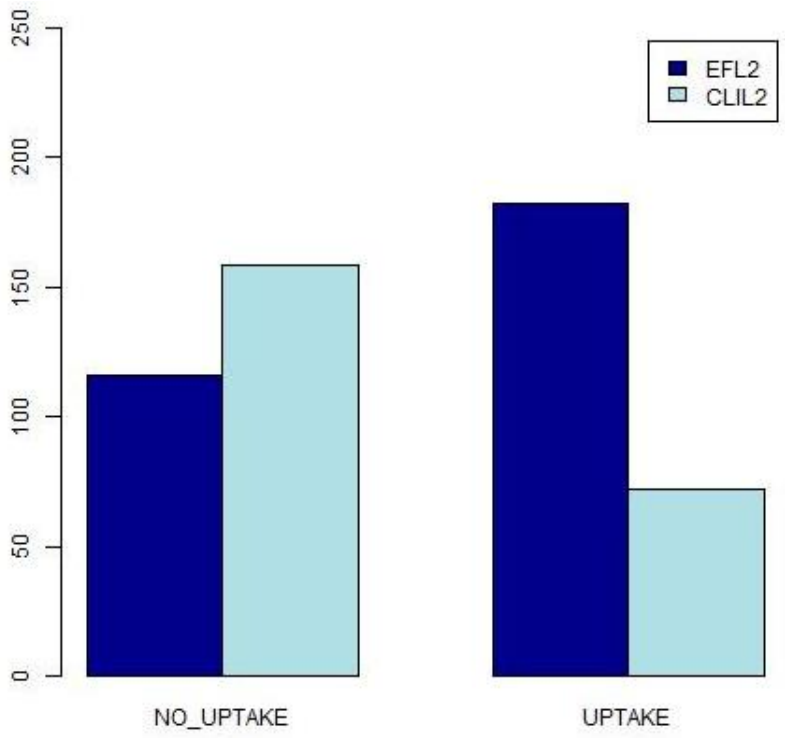


Graph 30: Use of CF types depending on error type in CLIL2 (without L1 use)

Thus, the answer to our RQ1a is that teachers tend to resort to recasts in general when they address errors in oral interaction. However, CLIL and EFL teachers were found to act in a significantly different manner regarding the amount of CF, much higher in EFL than in CLIL, as well as the CF types used. The EFL teacher used the six types of CF and the CLIL teacher used recasts almost exclusively. Our findings for RQ1b showed that error type influenced the choice of CF types, not only in the proportion of each of the type of errors corrected but also in the preference for certain types of CF to address specific error types (i.e. recasts for pronunciation errors by the EFL teacher or elicitation by the CLIL teacher to correct lexical errors). In the comparison of the use of reformulations and prompts we did not find significant differences between the behaviour of the two teachers, probably due to the large number of recasts used by both. Lack of significance was also found when the use of CF types addressing lexical errors was analysed. In Chapter 8 we will discuss these results in the light of the literature on the topic and the previous studies on CF. Now, having answered RQ1, we will focus on the learners' uptake moves in our next research question.

Is the instructional context an intervening factor in CF effectiveness? Do learners react differently to CF types in CLIL and EFL classrooms?

In order to answer RQ2 we compared the proportion of uptake in CLIL2 and EFL2. Uptake in this study, as well as in a good number of previous studies on CF, was operationalized as the learner's reaction to the teacher's CF move. This reaction may take different forms: repair, needs repair, self-repair or peer repair, which would be analysed later. Graph 31 below shows that the amount of uptake is notably higher in EFL2 than in CLIL2(p-value=5.05^{-9}), with more than half of the CF moves triggering a response from the learners in the former setting and less than half in the latter.



Graph 31: Uptake and no-uptake in EFL2 and CLIL2

We further explored if the amount of uptake was different in the two classrooms with respect to the different types of CF. Table 22 displays the number of uptake moves

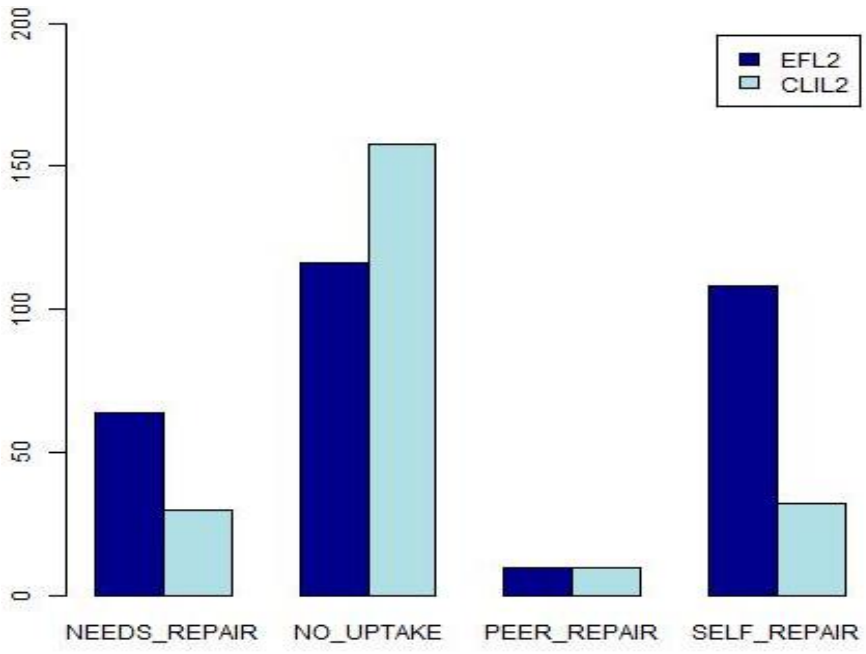
to each of the six CF types as well as the proportion of uptake to reformulations and prompts.

We found that uptake was significantly higher in EFL after recasts, elicitations and explicit correction, but only significant differences were found for recasts (p-value= $1.34^{-6)}$. Uptake to reformulations was higher in EFL as well (p-value=2.407^{-9}), while the reaction to prompts was similar in both settings, although prompts were found to be especially effective in CLIL settings.

UPTAKE CF TYPES	EFL	CLIL
RECASTS	42	5
REPETITIONS	4	6
CLARIFICATIONS	5	6
ELICITATIONS	27	10
METALINGUISTIC	4	7
EXPLICIT	9	1
REFORMULATIONS	51	6
PROMPTS	40	29
TOTAL UPTAKE MOVES	**91**	**35**

Table 22: Uptake to CF types in EFL2 and CLIL

The next step was to analyse the types of uptake in each of the classrooms. Significant differences were found in the types of uptake in both settings (p-value=8.54^{-9}). Graph 32 shows that needs repair and self-repair rates are higher in EFL2 than in CLIL2 while peer repair rates are similarly low in both settings.



Graph 32: Uptake types in EFL2 and CLIL2

RQ2 showed that the third move in the CFEs was also different in the two classrooms. The amount of uptake was higher in EFL and learners reacted significantly differently to some of the CF types depending on the classroom they were in. The type of uptake was also significantly different, with higher rates of repair in EFL than in CLIL. No significant differences were found in the uptake to prompts and the CF types except for recasts, which obtained a significantly higher reaction in EFL, the same as reformulations. These results will be further explored below in section 7.2.3 as well as in Chapter 8.

Once the data for RQ1 and RQ2 were analysed from a quantitative perspective, with results revealing differences between the two classrooms, regarding both CF provision and learners' uptake, in the next section we describe the data qualitatively in order to grasp all the details of CFEs in these two settings.

7.2.3. QUALITATIVE RESULTS

In the previous section we have examined CFEs from a quantitative perspective. Nevertheless, we consider that a more detailed analysis is needed in order to provide an account of the different aspects of the CFEs that occurred in the CLIL and EFL lessons. As Choi and Li (2012) acknowledge, one of the limitations of their work is that it was limited to "verbal feedback and did not examine other instructional strategies that accompanied feedback" (Choi & Li, 2012:349), such as writing on the board or employing paralinguistic signals. Moreover, we consider that the quantitative analysis by itself does not capture the idiosyncrasy of each CFE and the differences in the way the teachers use each of the CF types.

First of all, we found that the CLIL teacher did not correct many of the **errors** but continued the topic or focused on the content, as shown in examples (11), (12) and (13) below, which display non-corrected pronunciation (NCP), L1 (NCL1), and grammar (NCG) errors, respectively.

(11) STU: this can lead [led][*P]to lack of coordination between them.

TEA: what is the meaning of that[NCP]?

(12) STU: *eso no lo puede negar nadie* [*L1].

TEA: yes J. but that is necessary [NCL1] in order to do what what yes we will continue with (…)

(13) STU: it doesn't has [*G] to be different the manager then the accounting and then the departments?

TEA: no the accounting has the same level as other departments OK[NCG] that is (…).

Another aspect that we did not consider for the quantitative analysis was the existence of **multiple feedback** moves (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). As explained in Chapter 2, this combination of types appears when the teachers use more than one CF type, typically in the same move, to correct a single error. Table 23 below shows examples of multiple feedback and the types of CF used in each case. A remarkable number of examples of multiple feedback was found in EFL, whereas only one instance was identified in CLIL. As seen above, the EFL teacher corrects a large amount of the errors and uses the whole spectrum of types, the most explicit types quite frequently, while the CLIL teacher corrects only a small proportion of the errors and uses mainly recasts. In this sense, this difference in the use of multiple feedback moves is expected since this technique is typical of teachers who are more concerned with accuracy. Table 23showssome of the twelve examples found in EFL and the only example of multiple feedback provided by the CLIL teacher (see Appendix 6 for all the examples of multiple feedback). The codes of the different CF types used in the codification are provided here for the reader's convenience:

RC=recast

EL=elicitation

ML=metalinguistic

EC=explicit correction

Below the different codes for uptake types:

NU=no uptake

NR=needs repair

SR=self-repair.

A combination of CF types led to successful repair in half of the cases, as shown in example (14) from the EFL classroom and example (15) in the CLIL classroom. Example (16) illustrates multiple feedback moves that are acknowledged by the learners but the errors fail to be repaired, probably because the learners do not know how to do it. Most of these repair and needs repair moves occur after Elicitations, which tend to prompt the learner to respond to the correction, as in this case, where the learner is unable to repair the grammar error in spite of the teacher's cues. In the end, another learner does the repair.

Nº	Class/Lesson	Feedback type	Examples	Comments
(14)	2EFL6	RC+EL= EC	*STU: (reads) [NURC] a wall was built around the town for defense but during the long period of peace which followed the Norman Conquest ['kɒŋkest][*P] … *TEA: con con [ELP] [NUEL] quest conquest ['kɒŋkwest] can you repeat Pello [ECP]? *STU: conquest ['kɒŋkwest] [SREC] (reads) people built outside the walls (…).	Successful repair of pronunciation error
(15)	2CLIL7	ML+EL=EL	*STU: (reads) the clients owe to this company eh letters to be charged [*L] … *TEA: eh eh the clients owe to this company three thousand euros you don't know more OK if you read the clients owe three thousand euros you don't have information about letters so it will be [ELL]? *STU: realizable [SREL].	Content error.
(16)	2EFL10	The first move ML+EL=EL	*STU: (reads) the next European elections due [*G] to be in few months' time. *TEA: look we have got due here (signals board) be due to infinitive what can we omit be or due or to how do you know that you can omit something if you see it here because you have got brackets right so what can you omit of the three elements be due or to [ELG]? *STU: due [NREL].	Needs repair of the grammar error. In the end, the teacher elicits Peer Repair

			*TEA: due and what you have done is omitting to or omitting be actually so can you omit be can you omit? *STU: no. *TEA: no what can you omit? *STU: due *TEA: so repeat again [ELG]. *STU: the next European elections… *TEA: election. *STU: election xxx. *TEA: you have got expect is and due. *STU: expect to be [NREL] [*G]. *TEA: any ideas [ELG]? *STU: is [PeEL].	
(17)	2EFL6	ML+EC=EC	*STU: suits [swi:ts][*P] and… *TEA: not sweets sweet is something that you eat and is full of sugar suits [su:ts] yes [ECP]? *STU: [NUEC] (reads) and rolled umbrellas.	No uptake. In spite of using three types of CF: (EC, RC, ML) for the error, the learner doesn't acknowledge the correction.

Table 23: Examples of multiple feedback and equivalent CF types in codification.

Finally, in spite of the salience of the CF types, a few instances of multiple feedback moves that are not acknowledged by the learners were attested (example (17)). Obviously, all multiple feeback types are by nature very explicit and, thus, salient. However, these examples show that explicitness is not a guarantee for uptake, and that eliciting the correct form is more effective if teachers are seeking immediate repair. More discussion on the effect of CF types will be provided in chapter 8.

After examining some of the cases of multiple feedback we will proceed to consider examples of the different CF types in each of the classrooms. Examples (18) to (37) present CFEs with Recasts, Clarification requests, Repetitions, Elicitations, Metalinguistic cues and Explicit correction, topic continuation moves and peer repair. Thus, we can find numerous instances of **recasts** in both CLIL and EFL settings, but these

recasts are not necessarily of the same kind. Following Sheen's (2006) taxonomy (see section 1.3 above for details), we were able to classify half of the recasts as short and the other half as long, about one third of them were isolated but a great deal were incorporated in a longer sentence or paragraph. The two teachers mainly used only one change and this change tended to be substitution or translation (for L1 use errors). Very few recasts addressed vocabulary errors, some more but still few, were aimed at grammar errors. Recasts were mainly used for L1 and pronunciation errors. Examples (18) to (25) illustrate the different recasts we found in the data. Example (18) shows a pronunciation error in CLIL being reformulated with a long recast, the recast is incorporated into a longer sentence, and there is only one change, a substitution.

(18) RECAST: long, substitution, incorporated, pronunciation.

STU: eh *como* the organization *o sea* how the company is organized [*P] …

TEA: how the company is organized [RCP] OK so we can see more or less the authority we can see also the communication [NURC] the ways of communication we can see OK the (…)

Example (19) presents a similar type of recast in the EFL classroom. In this case the teacher reformulates but uses a longer sentence and incorporates the reformulated sentence in a longer utterance. The change is a translation of the L1 term and an addition of a prepositional phrase ('of the house').

(19) RECAST: long, incorporated, translation, L1 use.

*STU: when you change the *cerradura* [*L1].

*TEA: when you change the lock [RCL1] of a house you have occupied the lock OK (writes) so you…

*STU: you are not paying [NRRC]…

The following example (20) occurs in the EFL classroom, where the teacher corrects a pronunciation error with a short reformulation that she incorporates into a longer utterance. It consists of only one change, a substitution in this case, which is one of the most common types of change.

(20) RECAST: short, isolated, substitution, pronunciation.

STU: (reads) this new living house is conveniently [*P] situated near the town centre.

TEA: conveniently yes conveniently [RCP] yes collocation xxx M. number two [NURC].

STU: (reads) the building is in xxx and is xxx.

In (21) the CLIL teacher corrects a grammar error with an isolated short phrase and an only change, a substitution.

(21) RECAST: short, isolated, substitution, grammar.

STU: eh the capacity of convince [*G] [*P] people…

TEA: capacity of convincing [RCG] [NCP] people more.

STU: xxx *carisma no* [NURC]?

In example (22) the EFL teacher uses a long phrase incorporated in the sentence with an only change, a substitution, as well as emphasis on the reformulated word. This recast is addressing a vocabulary error.

(22) RECAST: long, incorporated, substitution, emphasized, vocabulary.

STU: eh in third degree of *DBH* in third degree of *DBH* I went in October to Vietnam xxx in the middle of the course [*L].

TEA: in the middle of the year [RCL] (emphasis on the word) with your family?

STU: yes 'cause my dad's birthday [NRRC].

TEA: right and why was it unusual?

STU: because it was it was an [*G] strange place and it was in the middle of the course [*L] and we went with a local family we didn't go to to a hotel or something like that.

TEA: right did you enjoy it [NCG] [NCL]?

The CLIL teacher in (23) corrects the vocabulary error with a long recast, where the substitution is incorporated in a paragraph. He tries first with a clarification request (CLL) and then reformulates.

(23) RECAST: long, incorporated, substitution, vocabulary.

STU: leadership is not more the cond the conduct [*L]?

TEA: the [CLL]?

STU: *o sea* leadership [NRCL]...

TEA: it's in that sense we will read but you will learn that is apart from the formality that is that you have decide OK like the director and so on it's also according to your personality [RCL] according to your activity and so on also that it can involve that also OK because of that I want to difference because normally we can tell OK the leadership and always OK we will talk about Rajoy and so on this is obvious but apart from that we have like informal leadership if I talk about Mourinho if I talk about Belén Esteban or if I talk about Rafa Mora yes Nacho Vidal for example talking about all the case of that and so on they are leaders we can agree or we cannot agree but they are leaders in the society OK M. come on shh [NURC].

In general, the EFL teacher uses shorter and more isolated recasts and addresses the pronunciation errors more often than the CLIL teacher, who uses recasts for grammar and vocabulary errors, and mainly L1 use errors, which is not surprising considering the large amount of L1 errors in CLIL. The use of recasts for pronunciation errors has been found to be more effective than for any other type of error, as explained in section 3.4.1,

since the learner can notice the difference between the erroneous form and the target form easily as these type of language forms (together with lexical items) are more salient than grammar reformulations.

An interesting phenomenon related to this CF type, recast, and also to explicit correction, is the lack of opportunity the learners have for repair in many CFEs, which was not considered for the quantitative analysis. Thus, we find that teachers (mainly the CLIL teacher) continue with the lesson/topic and do not allow for repair after reformulating the error. We consider this phenomenon crucial in order to understand the relatively low effectiveness that recasts obtained in terms of uptake. In the discussion chapter, we will comment on the possible reasons for this teacher behaviour and the implications it has for the learners.

Let us illustrate the **topic continuation** moves with several examples:

(24) 2nd CLIL1 RECAST: long, two changes, addition, repetition, incorporated, grammar.

STU: because is unlimited the responsibility [*G].

TEA: very good because it has this company has an unlimited responsibility [RCG] it is clear that [NURC] it is clear that imagine (…)

(25) 2nd EFL4 RECAST: short, isolated, substitution, pronunciation.

STU: (reads) this new living house is conveniently [*P] situated near the town centre.

TEA: conveniently yes conveniently [RCP] yes collocation xxx M. number two [NURC].

STU: (reads) the building is in xxx and is xxx.

In both cases, the teacher makes a corrective move but continues with the topic in the same utterance, therefore, no opportunities are provided for the learner to react to the CF move. As mentioned above, the use of recasts will be further analysed in Chapter 8.

In spite of recasts being the most frequently used CF type, there were a large number of examples reflecting the use of the rest of the types. Example (26) shows a CFE where the teacher uses a **clarification request** and an **elicitation** move that the EFL teacher uses to target a vocabulary error. In Example (27) we also see a **clarification request** for a vocabulary error as well, this time in the CLIL lesson.

(26) 2 EFL 2 CLARIFICATION REQUEST / ELICITATION

STU: no but the answers I don't stand [*L].

TEA: pardon [CLL]?

STU: I don't stand [NRCL]the answers.

TEA: you don't [ELL]?

STU: understand [SREL] this.

(27) 2 CLIL 5 CLARIFICATION REQUEST

STU: for example the *bolsa o sea* [*L1] …

TEA: the [CLL1]?

STU: *la bolsa* [NRCL] [*L1]…

The next examples illustrate the **repetitions** used by the EFL teacher (Example 28) and the CLIL teacher (Example 29). The EFL teacher uses the type in a more direct manner.

(28) 2 EFL 10 REPETITION

STU: (reads) I'm thinking to buy [*G] a new car xxx.

TEA: I'm thinking to buy (raising intonation) [RPG] have you got your notes from the other day?

STU: yes [NRRP].

TEA: so can you have a look at the verb? (…)

(29)2 CLIL 14 REPETITION

STU: current [*P] assets the short term obligations.

TEA: current [RPP] assets (low voice) *para matarle…*

STU: *me ha preguntado J.*[NURP].

TEA: current [RPP] OK…

STU: *ah bueno*[NRRP].

The first repetition move is not acknowledged as the learner doesn't hear the teacher's repetition.

In example (26) above we saw an example of an elicitation move in EFL, which was combined with a clarification request to obtain repair. Besides, we saw in the examples of multiple feedback that the EFL teacher used elicitation very often. Below we can see another example of **elicitation** in this classroom (Example 30), not combined with any other type and an example of this CF type in CLIL (Example31).

(30) 2 EFL 1 ELICITATION

STU: but he fall [*G] asleep.

TEA: he [ELG]?

STU: he fall [NREL].

TEA: he [ELG]?

STU: he fell [SREL].

(31) 2 CLIL 3 ELICITATION

STU: *a ver pues que la tarea* [*L1]…

TEA: *no no traduzcas* [ELL1] *venga* try to understand with your own words H. *venga* these are not numbers H. you have level for…

STU: *espera que no me estoy concentrando*.

TEA: *venga*!

STU: *a ver joe que* if there is not authority *si no hay mucha autoridad la tarea puede no estar bien hecha* [*L1].

TEA: but more than that [NCL1] the rest what have you understood.

STU: that if the work of the people who are delegated is not good enough the delegation is not going to xxx [SREL].

Examples (32) and (33) show **metalinguistic** feedback moves, targeting different error types in EFL and CLIL.

(32) 2 EFL 1 METALINGUISTIC CUES

STU: (…) not surprisingly he knew who the winner was going to be [*G].

TEA: he knew the win who the winner was going to be or was [ELG]if he watched the Oscars' ceremony?

STU: but I think that he knew before watching [NREL].

TEA: before watching not surprisingly does it make sense [MLG]?

STU: and not surprisingly [NRML] but he fall [*G] asleep.

(33) 2 CLIL 6 METALINGUISTIC CUES

STU: eh machinery [*L].

TEA: eh eh eh the computers has another name computers have another name according [MLL]…

STU: ah equipment for information [SRML]...

Finally, example (34) illustrates **explicit correction** in EFL, which consists of an explicit correction after a recast, as this explicit type is very often used in combination with others, as we saw in the examples of multiple feedback. Then, example (35) shows the only case we have of this type in CLIL. The teacher ignores the pronunciation error but uses a very salient type of CF, explicit correction to address the lexical error.

(34) 2 EFL 6 EXPLICIT CORRECTION

STU: (reads) these days not many people live in the city centre but London has spread eh further/ˈfʌðə /[*P] onwards…

TEA: further [RCP].

STU: (reads) into the country including surrounding villages [NURC].

TEA: sorry A. further /ˈfɜːðə / not further /ˈfʌðə / further /ˈfɜːðə /[ECP].

STU: (reads) today the metropolis of Greater London covers some six hundred and ten square miles one thousand five hundred and eighty [NUEC]…

(35) 2 CLIL 15EXPLICIT CORRECTION

STU: the own [*P] financing are in the social capital that is the money [*P] that the people from the *esto* [*L1] …

TEA: from the *esto* from the company [ECL1] yes [NCP] [NCP]?

STU: people from the company [SREC] puts [*G] to the...

We only found an example of **peer correction** (36) (a recast provided by a learner before the teacher's recast), probably there were more when learners were engaged in interaction, but because we were focused only on teacher-learner interaction, we failed to detect them. Yet, the fact that there exists one in a teacher fronted activity indicates that there might be more in other types of activities.

(36) 2 CLIL 8 PEER CORRECTION

STU: supplies is electricity or water and suppliers in the company or the person who who sells *o sea que te lo da* [*L1].

STU: provides you.

TEA: who provides you [RCL1].

STU: yes [NRRC].

In the discussion section, we will refer to this type of feedback again and we will propose further research on peer feedback and learners' training on CF provision.

As to the **uptake** moves, there were not really qualitative differences. Section 7.2.1 showed that uptake and repair moves were significantly different in CLIL and EFL, but the differences were in number (higher rates in EFL than in CLIL) and related to the type of CF, but not different in essence. That is, differences in the learners' reaction to CF were not due to the learners' themselves, but to the manner the teachers provided CF

and the orientation of each of the classrooms. Consequently, we are not giving further details of the uptake moves in this qualitative section. However, there is an interesting phenomenon that we noticed in the quantitative analyses and deserves further attention: the occurrence of **peer repair**. This happens when one learner (learner A) is corrected by the teacher but, for whatever reason, he/she fails to repair the error and another learner (learner B) does the repair for him/her. Below we include examples of peers repairing their classmates' errors spontaneously in EFL (37) and CLIL (38).

(37) 2 EFL 1 PEER REPAIR

TEA: (…) what kind of attitudes or feelings are we expressing in the first one no idea and in the second one what kind of feelings?

STU: in the first one emphas to emphasize no [*G]?

TEA: the first one or the second one [CLG]?

STU: (another learner) the second one [PeCL].
TEA: the second one very good is to emphasize.

(38) 2 CLIL 2 PEER REPAIR

STU: it's a company related to *espera que lo tengo aquí que es que para piezas de de ferroviarias y eso* [*L1] [*L].

TEA: only *piezas* [NCL1] [ELL]?

STU: *no espera espera* [NREL] (looks at papers) …

STU: [ELL] (another learner) trains [PeEL].

Overall, we have seen that CFEs differ (in CLIL and EFL) not only quantitatively, in the amount of errors and error types, the amount of correction provided and the rates

of CF types and uptake, as we saw in the previous section, but also qualitatively, as we have described in this section. Both teachers use mainly recasts but the EFL teachers uses shorter recasts and addresses pronunciation errors while the CLIL teacher uses more indirect types of recasts that aim at lexical errors mainly. In general, the EFL teacher uses the types of CF in a more explicit manner, such as raising the intonation in the repetition moves. Besides, the EFL teacher shows more emphasis on accuracy in her moves, by insisting with several CF moves when the learner does not repair and using the multiple feedback technique to address a single error. The two teachers even differ in the type of CF used to address different error types: the EFL teacher uses metalinguistic cues for grammar errors and the CLIL teacher uses this CF type for lexical errors. Finally, the CLIL teacher never or hardly uses some CF types, such as EC, and often does not allow learners to repair errors by continuing the topic immediately after the CF move. In the following section, we will focus on the findings about teachers' and learners' beliefs about CF.

7.3. RESULTS: BELIEFS

In the present section, we will proceed to examine the results for RQ3 and RQ4.We will start with the teachers' beliefs, reported in the questionnaire. We will compare first CLIL and EFL teachers' responses in 7.3.1 and then the teachers' and the learners' beliefs in 7.3.2. Results presented here will be discussed in Chapter 8 below.

7.3.1. CLIL vs. EFL TEACHERS

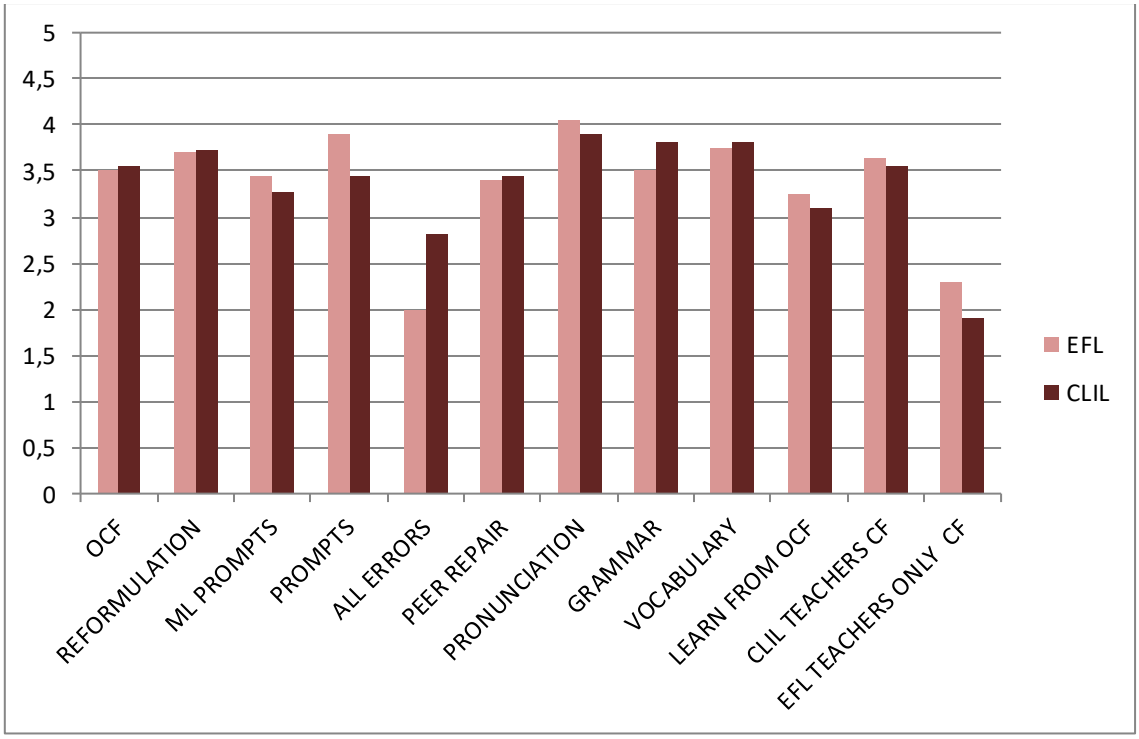
The third research question deals with teachers' beliefs about CF:

RQ3**: Which are EFL and CLIL teachers' beliefs about CF? Do these beliefs correspond to their actual practices?**

In order to address this question, we designed a questionnaire for teachers which consisted of 27 closed questions with answers in a Likert scale (5-Completely Agree, 4-Agree, 3-Neither Agree nor Disagree, 2-Disagree, 1-Completely Disagree) and a few background questions at the beginning. Besides, we provided them with an open question at the end in order for the teachers to comment on their concerns, or elaborate on the answers to the closed questions (see Appendix 1 for the questionnaire).

Closed answers are presented in a Likert-scale and are categorical variables that appearin order. Since the data distribution was not normal, we needed a non-parametrical test to compare the answers in the group pairs, such as the U-Mann Whitney test.

As just mentioned, our third research question aims to compare CLIL and EFL teachers' beliefs. Graph 33 displays a general overview of the responses. As we can see, both groups of teachers rated similarly in all the items. The individual graphs displaying the results for each of the items are provided in section 7.3.2.



Graph 33: Means of EFL and CLIL teachers' responses to the beliefs questionnaire.

Teachers were asked about different aspects of CF, and, even though there were slight differences between CLIL and EFL teachers' beliefs, they were not significant (see Appendix 5). We will explain these differences in more detail in section 7.3.2, when we compare teachers' and learners 'responses.

Therefore, as to beliefs about CF, we cannot say that the two groups of teachers are different. In section 7.2 we saw that our two participant teachers did differ in their corrective practices, so it seems that there is a mismatch between these two teachers' beliefs and practices, as we will see in section 7.4. Before that, we will present the results of the comparative analysis of the whole group of teachers' answers with the learners'.

7.3.2. CLIL AND EFL TEACHERS vs. LEARNERS

In what follows we will see the results for RQ4, looking at learners' questionnaires and comparing their answers with those given by the teachers.

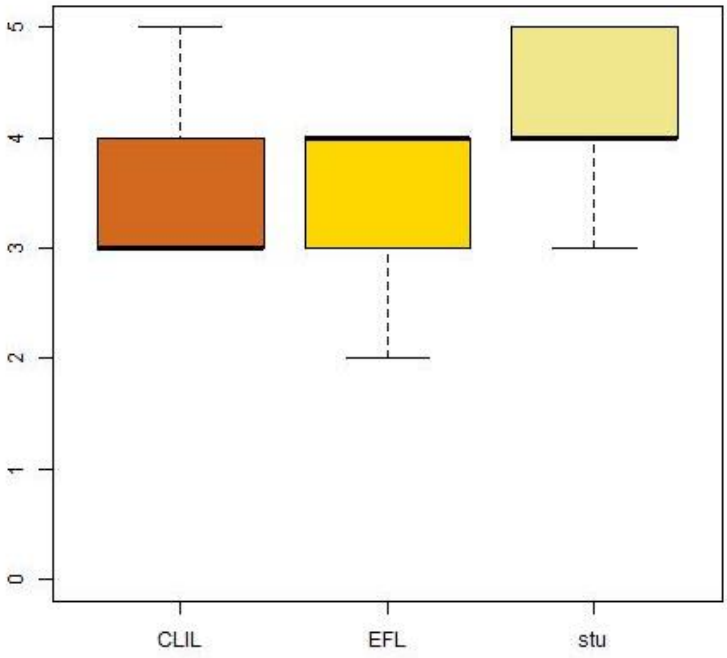
RQ4**: Which are learners' beliefs about OCF and its types? Do these beliefs influence uptake? Do learners' beliefs overlap with the ones of the teachers?**

In the previous section we have seen that CLIL and EFL teachers had similar beliefs about OCF, and in general a positive attitude. In what follows we will see that learners show an even more positive attitude towards being corrected.

Graphs 34 to 41below show that the significant differences between learners' and teachers' opinions are related to the general attitude towards **OCF** (graph 34; p-value=$3.82^{-4,}$), CF types (Reformulations (graph 35; p-value=0.02853), **ML prompts** (graph 36; p-value=0.0002149)), error types (**grammar** (graph 37; p-value=0.008544)) the benefits of CF for **learning** (graph 38; p-value=7.976^{-6}),**peer correction** (graph 39; p-value=6.091^{-6}), the benefits of correcting **all errors**(graph 40; p-value=4.729^{-11})and the need for **CLIL** teachers to correct their oral errors(graph41; p-value=0.003327). In all these questions, learners had more positive answers, with the exception of peer correction, which they consider less preferable to teacher's CF. We will describe these results in what follows, illustrating the results by means of graphs.

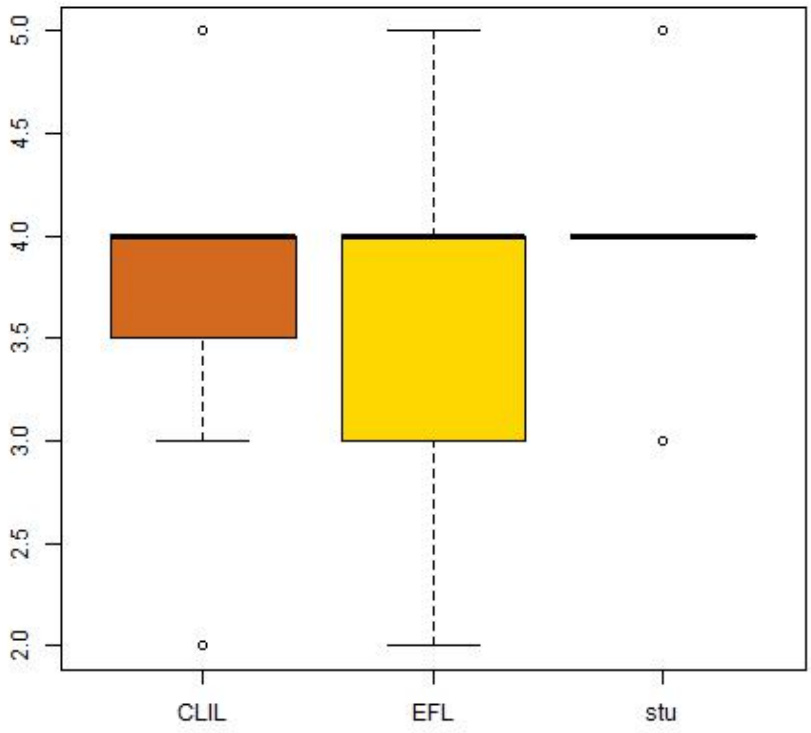
Graph 34 displays the boxplot for the item concerning beliefs about **OCF**. The median answer for CLIL teachers is 3, for EFL teachers 4, and also 4 for the learners. The graph also shows that the learners have more positive answers than the teachers, the minimum score being 3 and most of the answers 4 or higher. The positive view that CLIL teachers have about OCF is also illustrated in graph 34, with some teachers even giving

it the maximum score (5), as we can see from the top whisker, and no CLIL teacher scoring less than 3.



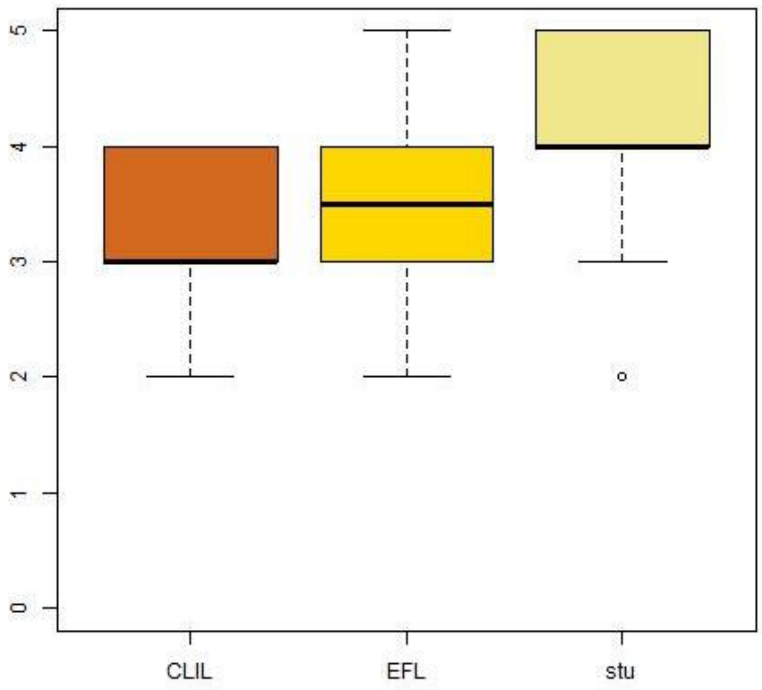
Graph34: Teachers' and learners' responses to question on OCF

Another item that revealed significant differences among the groups was the need for correction by means of **reformulations**. Once more, there was a larger variation in the EFL teachers' responses (from 3 to 4) although in general there was a tendency for a positive answer. Both groups of teachers' and learners' responses had a median of 4, that is, rather positive, and learners' answers were homogenous (4) except for two responses, 3 and 5. Graph 35 displays these results.



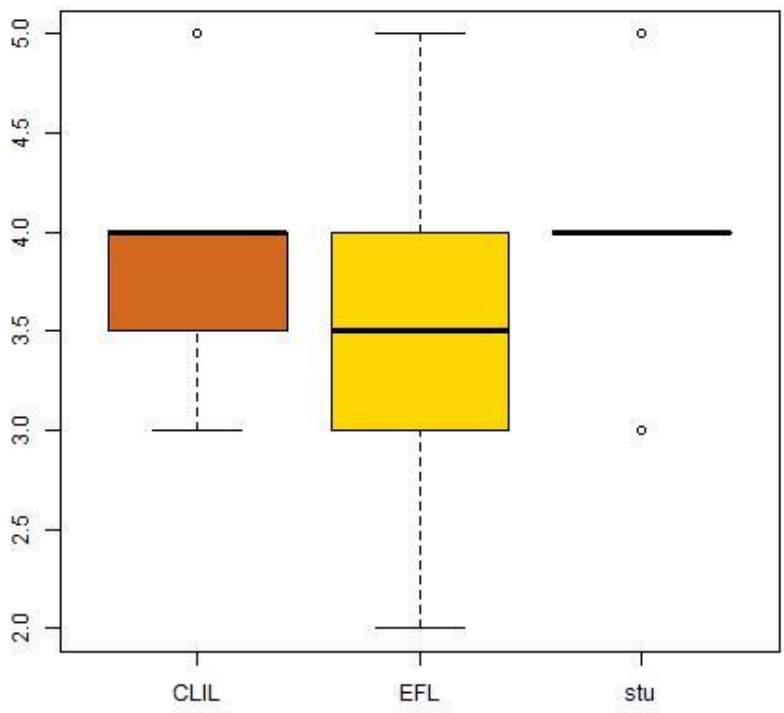
Graph 35: Teachers' and learners' responses to question on Reformulations.

As for the item concerning the use of **metalinguistic prompts**, Graph 36 displays how the three groups gave positive answers and that the learners had the most favourable attitude towards this type of explicit correction. Moreover, there is more variation in the EFL teachers' responses, which range from 2 to 5 although the general tendency is around 3.5. Thus, both in CLIL and EFL teachers' groups, there are a few negative views of this CF type, but not in the learners' groups.



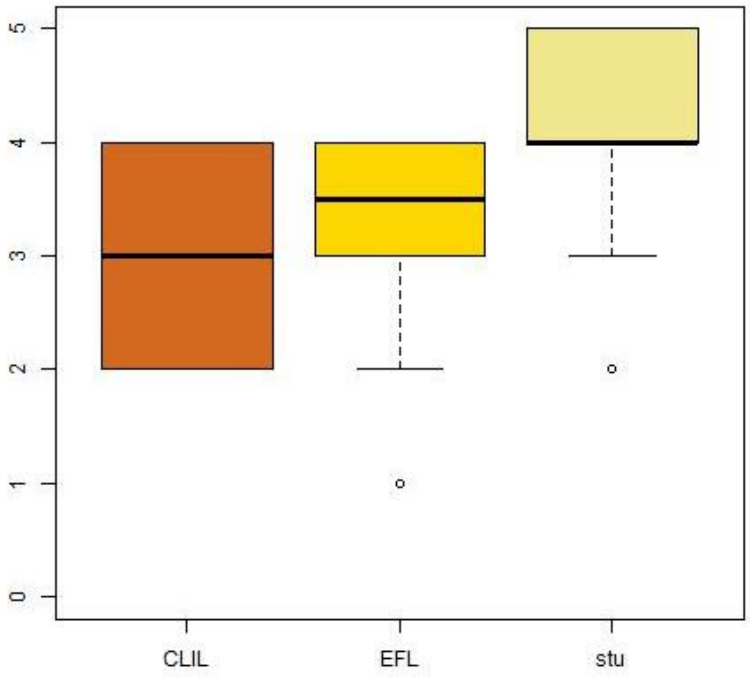
Graph36: Teachers' and learners' responses to question on ML prompts.

Regarding the need to correct each of the types of error, Graph 37 displays the results for the item on **grammar errors**, with really positive and homogeneous answers given by the learners (except for two outliers who gave scores of 5 and 3, respectively). Meanwhile, the CLIL teachers also consider grammar errors necessary to be addressed, with answers ranging from 3 to 4 and most of them between 3.5 and 4. However, EFL teachers, although having a tendency to consider it necessary, show large variation, with teachers giving answers from 2 to 5, as the whiskers indicate.



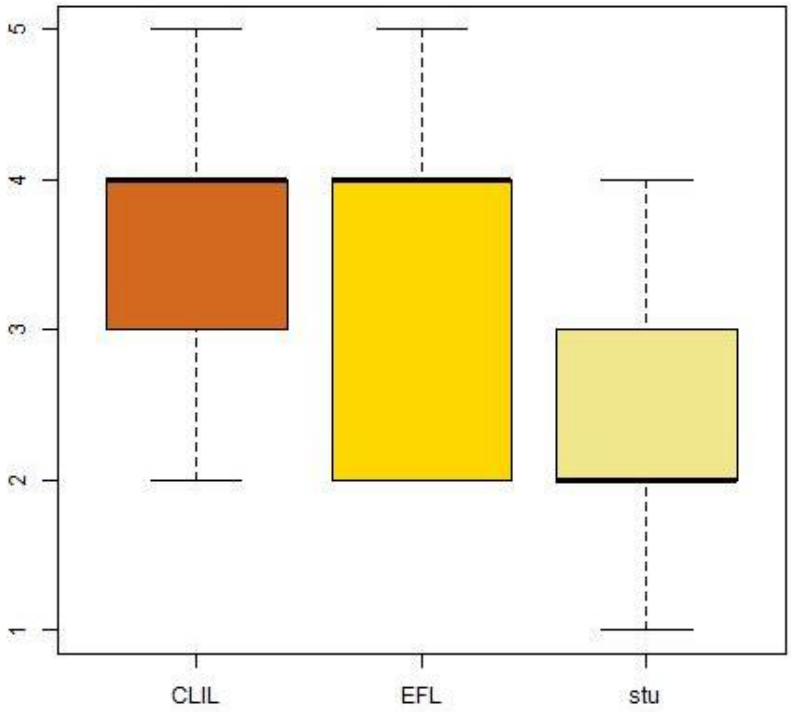
Graph 37: Teachers' and learners' responses to question on grammar errors.

Graph 38 displays the results of the question on whether **learning** increases with the use of CF. Learners also show the most positive responses in this case, with a minimum of 3 (although there is an outlier response of 2) and a tendency to score this item from 4 to 5. Most EFL teachers also consider CF beneficial (from 3 to 4), although the range includes negative responses (2), as the bottom whisker shows.



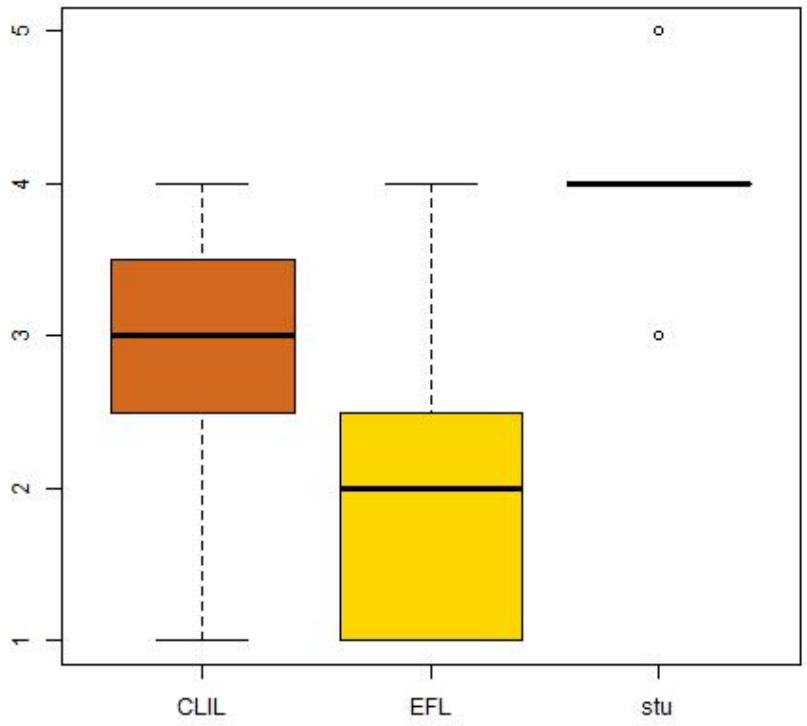
Graph 38: Teachers' and learners' responses to question on learning from CF.

Regarding **peer correction**, however, Graph 39 shows that learners gave less positive answers than teachers in general, with answers ranging from 1 to 4, a tendency to score the item from to 2 to 3, and a median of 2. Both in CLIL and EFL groups we have a range from 2 to 5 and a median of 4, which means that they regard this corrective technique more positively than the learners.



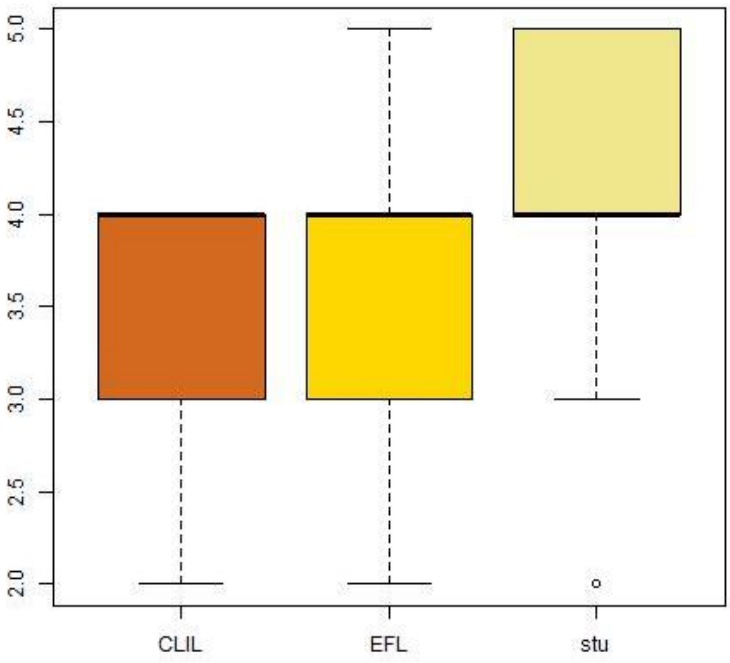
Graph 39: Teachers' and learners' responses to question on peer correction.

Graph 40 below shows that both CLIL and EFL teachers' responses were rather heterogeneous while learners agreed that a **comprehensive correction** was desirable, with a median of 4.



Graph 40: Teachers' and learners' responses to question on all errors.

In the item on whether **CLIL teachers should correct** oral errors, the three groups of participants gave a rather positive response, with medians of 4. The difference in this case, as shown in Graph 41, was that the learners' answers ranged from 3 to 5, thus, more positive, CLIL teachers' responses from 2 to 4 and EFL teachers' answers ranged from 2 to 5, being the most varied of all.



Graph 41: Teachers' and learners' responses to question on CLIL teachers' CF.

In some of the questions teachers and learners gave similar opinions. These questions were the use of **prompts** (p-value=0.3294) and the need to correct **pronunciation** errors (p-value=0.9314) and **vocabulary** errors (p-value=0.06778), which obtained positive scores from the three groups (medians of 4) and the question whether only **EFL** teachers should correct oral errors (p-value=0.9466), which was scored low (medians of 2) by the three groups, although larger variation is shown in the learners' responses, ranging from 1 to 5, but non-significant differences were revealed by the U-Mann Whitney test.

Summing up, there were quantitative as well as qualitative differences between most of the answers by the learners and the ones given by the teachers. The differences lay on the fact that learners scored most items higher, showing a rather positive attitude

towards being corrected, as we will discuss in Chapter 8. In the next section, we will comment on the open answers that the learners and also the teachers gave.

7.3.3. QUALITATIVE ANSWERS TO THE OPEN QUESTION

We considered it interesting to elaborate on the responses and comments that teachers and learners gave in response to the open question that we had included in the questionnaire (see Appendix 7 for all the comments). First, we need to say that no learner in 2nd year and only two learners in 1st year answered this question. This is not surprising, since teenagers may not be aware of the impact that research could have on teachers and methodologies so they do not show a great involvement. Regarding the teachers' responses, we obtained more comments from EFL than from CLIL teachers, but, as explained above, not many CLIL teachers participated in our study, so the proportion of comments was expected to be smaller as well. All the answers provided both by the learners and teachers were in English.

Learners mention the importance of self-repair: *"Teachers should improve the ability of the learner to correct his or her own mistakes. As long as the learner is able to do that"* (Karla P., 1st year learner) but also the idea that focus-on form is less important than fluency: "*[…] the best way to learn English is speaking all the time, not doing grammar. In the end, we have to improve our capacity to talk English naturally"* (Iñigo A., 1st year learner).

As for teachers, we find more diversity in the opinions of EFL teachers, as shown in theircomments. Thus, some teachers mention the importance of CF to be provided in a selective manner: *"[…] as long as communication happens some mistakes could be allowed"* (Karmele P., 1st year EFL teacher) and considering *"[…] the learner's level"* although they complain about the fact that they *"[…] don't always have time to carry it*

out in large classes." (Paz S., EFL teacher). Other influencing factors are also mentioned: *"[…] types of learners, interest in the language, time, age, etc."* (Alicia M., CLIL teacher). CF as a means to obtain clear communication is also mentioned: "[…] *mistake correction is essential to the process of learning how to communicate or convey messages"* (Javier G., EFL teacher).

Other teachers consider that they *"[…] should favour fluency over accuracy"* (Esteban B., EFL teacher) by creating *"[…] a real environment to be able to express ideas, feelings...in English without any type of restrictions, limits...having a real communication in English should be the objective."* (Iñaki V., 2nd year CLIL teacher). Being a CLIL teacher is presented as a justification for not being able to correct as much as they would like to: "*I cannot use much time to correct language mistakes, although that does not necessarily mean that in my opinion correcting mistakes is not good for learners"* (Ana V., CLIL teacher).

As for the types of errors, correcting pronunciation is considered to be necessary: *"[…] the correct pronunciation should be more insisted on in our schools, as oral communicative skills are often left out of the curriculum, because teachers struggle to prepare the learners for the A levels, where oral production is, unfortunately, non-existent"* (Marta K., EFL teacher). Another teacher believes that *"[…] learners should be taught and corrected to get a better pronunciation but […] in a nice atmosphere and cheering them up."* (Esther V., EFL teacher).

This concern for the learners' affective side is also mentioned by other teachers: "*we should try to correct them, of course, but avoiding that they can feel discouraged of intervene, question or present their opinions."* (Maite F., CLIL teacher). This teacher explains that she even prefers them to use their L1, not considering this an error. We also

find the idea of delayed feedback and peer-repair in the words by this CLIL teacher: "*When speaking, it is sometimes better not to correct every mistake or his/her pronunciation while the learner is still speaking because it could interrupt him/her continuously and limit the spontaneous speech, it can sound uncomfortable. I prefer to comment and correct the mistakes once he/she has finished (even with the help of other learners) and make that learner repeat the same expressions or sentences without mistakes"* (Mª Jesús A., CLIL teacher). This delayed CF technique is related to the idea, mentioned above, that some CLIL teachers prioritize fluency and meaning: *"If the learner is doing a long oral explanation of a topic and he/she makes some mistakes, it is better to take notes of them and do the correction when he/she finishes. The reason is that in this kind of exercises the focus of the activity is fluency rather than grammar"* (Asier J., CLIL teacher).

However, some teachers are sceptic about the effects of CF: *"[…] error correction is not as effective as the teacher expects. Sometimes learners go on making the same mistakes even if they have been corrected many times"* (Genoveva U., EFL teacher).

Wrapping up, teachers show different concerns about CF. In general, they consider this technique as necessary and beneficial, but they acknowledge that they are somehow limited by the circumstances that prevent them from providing the type and amount of correction that they would like to give. Besides, they are aware of the importance of being selective when correcting oral errors, taking into account learners' and lessons' characteristics, in order not to hinder communication and learners' fluency. The next step in our analysis is comparing these beliefs of the teachers with their actual corrective behaviour in the classroom, which we will do in what follows.

7.4. RESULTS: CFEs vs. BELIEFS

The final section of this chapter focuses on the comparison of the data obtained in the classroom observation procedure with the results of the questionnaires completed by the two observed teachers of our school. We will present a qualitative description of the relationship between the beliefs of the 2nd year EFL and CLIL teachers and their corrective behaviour in the classroom. In both cases, a mismatch has been found between beliefs and practices. These discrepancies go in line with previous studies and will be further discussed in Chapter 8.

We will start by describing the **2nd year EFL teacher**'s beliefs and her behaviour. She shows a neutral attitude ("Neither Agree nor Disagree") towards OCF and the different types of CF and error types. But then, when we examined her practice in the classroom, we saw that she corrected a great amount of errors (78%), especially pronunciation (91%). Thus, her responses do not match her stated opinions as already reported in previous studies. Nevertheless, in other studies. teachers' opinions where more positive than their actual classroom performance. Besides, in informal conversations with this teacher, we had observed a very form-focused orientation and very favourable opinions towards correcting oral errors. So the questionnaire is not a clear reflection of her actual beliefs.

As for the **2nd year CLIL teacher**, he shows a more positive attitude towards OCF than his practices show. He is in favour of prompts but he does not use them as often as recasts (40% of his CF moves are prompts). As far as type of error is concerned, he believes it is more important to correct pronunciation and vocabulary than grammar, but then in the classroom he does not correct pronunciation and sticks to vocabulary errors in most cases (81%).This mismatch between beliefs and practices for content teachers is in

line with previous studies, as reviewed in section 5.1.1. We will continue elaborating on this matter in the following chapter.

7.5. CONCLUSION

Two different sets of data were collected for our study: CFEs from the classroom observation procedure were used to answer RQ1 and RQ2, and the responses to the beliefs' questionnaires, gathered to answer RQ3 and RQ4. The two sets were examined separately (sections 7.2 and 7.3) and they were also compared (7.4).

Firstly, CLIL and EFL lessons were compared as far as **CFEs** are concerned. After the analyses of the data in our database we have found differences between the two contexts in several regards. Before proceeding to analyse CFEs in detail, we wanted to confirm that the differences between the two classrooms were not due to the teachers' idiosyncrasy. Therefore, we used data from other two teachers, also CLIL and EFL, who taught in the 1st year of the same trilingual programme in the school and tested the CF amount and types these two teachers used, comparing these data with the 2nd year teachers' one. We found that there were no significant differences in the amount or use of CF types that the two CLIL teachers (1st and 2nd year) employed. Similarly, the 1st and 2nd EFL teachers showed no significant differences either. Thus, we concluded that, at least in the specific context of the study, the differences between the two contexts were not caused by the idiosyncrasies of the two participant teachers in 2nd year.

Once the effect of the individual teachers in the results was discarded, we used the COLT scheme to analyse the **lessons' orientation**. We found that the EFL setting was a form-focused one while the CLIL lessons were meaning-oriented. Then, we examined the three moves of the CFEs, comparing our two classrooms. The first difference we found was the amount and types of **errors** that learners made in both settings. There was

a higher amount of errors and a greater use of L1 in CLIL than EFL. So there were significant differences already in this first CFE move, the same group of learners had a different behaviour depending on the type of lesson they were attending.

Then, as far as **CF** is concerned, differences were varied, significant and concerned different aspects of the teachers' feedback. First, results for RQ1a revealed that the amount of errors that received feedback in EFL lessons was much higher than in CLIL. Secondly, the CF types preferred also differed in the two settings. The EFL teacher used a variety of types and techniques, such as multiple feedback moves, in order to make sure that the errors were repaired, favouring learners' self-repair while the CLIL teacher resorted to recasts most of the time, with very little use of the rest of the types and a high frequency of topic continuation moves. Thirdly, regarding RQ1b, significant differences were found in the attention that the two teachers paid to the different error types: the EFL teacher corrected all types but especially pronunciation and grammar errors while the CLIL teacher paid more attention to lexical errors and ignored other types such as L1 use.

Regarding RQ2, significant differences were found in the **learners' uptake** between the two contexts. Learners reacted in a different manner to CF depending on the lesson they were attending at that moment. Thus, much higher uptake rates were obtained in EFL, with repair moves being higher in this classroom as well. The learners' response to the CF types was different as well: although prompts led to higher rates of uptake in both classrooms, recasts showed to be more effective in terms of uptake in the EFL lessons while the prompts provided in CLIL obtained a remarkably high proportion of uptake. However, these quantitative results do not reveal the whole picture, and when we analysed the data qualitatively, we realized that the manner in which teachers provided CF was also influencing the results (e.g. multiple feedback or topic continuation moves). These qualitative results will be further explained in the next chapter.

As for the **beliefs**, we found slight dissimilarities between CLIL and EFL teachers, but no significant differences were revealed in the responses of both groups of teachers. However, mismatches were found between teachers and learners, mainly because of the learners' more positive opinions towards CF in general. Finally, when we compared teachers' behaviour and beliefs, we found discrepancies between what teachers believe and what they actually do in the classroom, especially the CLIL teacher. All these discrepancies together with similarities among the groups will be discussed below.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION

8.1. INTRODUCTION

The main aim of the present study was to offer a detailed picture of CFEs in two different learning contexts: EFL and the underresearched CLIL. We wanted to explore teachers' and learners' behaviour in a secondary school classroom as well as the beliefs that our participant subjects had with regard to CF. In this chapter, we will discuss the results presented above with respect to the predictions stated in section 6.1 as well as the findings in the literature reviewed in the corresponding chapters. We will explain whether our results are in line with previous research and we will highlight the potential contributions of this study. Section 8.2 deals with the discussion concerning the results for RQ1 and RQ2, i.e., related to the CFEs. Then, in section 8.3 we will move on to discuss the results obtained with the questionnaires and the comparison of the beliefs and practices (RQ3 and RQ4).

8.2. CFEs

The first interesting finding when we analysed CFEs was the difference in the type of errors that learners produced in each of the settings. While in EFL lessons they barely resorted to their L1 and their errors were typically grammatical, lexical or related to pronunciation, in the CLIL classroom we found a high amount of unsolicited L1 use as well as the other three types of errors: lexical, grammatical and pronunciation errors. This difference may be due to two features related to the nature of the lessons: One reason is the difference in the focus of the EFL and CLIL lessons that we noticed after analysing the lesson orientation by means of the COLT scheme. EFL lessons were mainly concerned with form whereas CLIL lessons focused on content most of the time. Thus, the learners' aim in these latter lessons was to convey meaning, no matter how, using

their L1 whenever they found it difficult to express their ideas in English. The other reason for the difference in L1 use might be the teachers' attitude towards this strategy. The EFL teacher considered L1 use as an error and would not allow learners to use their mother tongue, correcting them very explicitly when they did so. However, the CLIL teacher, although considering it an error, allowed its use and even encouraged learners to explain ideas in Spanish or Basque when they had problems expressing them in English. All in all, we can see that teacher's behaviour and lesson orientation lead learners to use different strategies. Although sporadic L1 use has been shown to be helpful for effective interaction (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2015; 2016), we consider that the massive amount of L1 that these learners use in the CLIL lessons does not contribute to their L2 development, but rather the opposite (Wannagat, 2007). This difference of orientation in the learning settings has been observed in previous studies as well. FL classrooms are typically oriented to form (Lochtman, 2002; Lyster & Mori, 2006), while immersion L2 classrooms are normally meaning-focused (Lyster & Mori, 2006). In primary school CLIL classrooms in Spain the main focus seems to be on language as well, or at least balanced between form and content, due to the teachers' backgrounds as well as the main aims of these lessons (Llinares & Lyster, 2014). This attention to form does not happen in our CLIL setting, precisely because the different nature of the background, training and previous experience that secondary school CLIL teachers have. The lesson orientation is the first difference we found between the two settings in our study, influencing not only the learners' behaviour as to the type of errors, but also the teachers', as we will explain in what follows, and the learners' uptake, as further discussed below. We believe that secondary CLIL teachers should pay further attention to form in their lessons, and their concern with indiscriminate L1 use is the first step towards this change. In this section we will analyse the CFEs in the light of our first

research question, providing more clues for this change of teachers' behaviour that we consider essential for the improvement of L2 learning.

8.2.1. RESEARCH QUESTION 1

In our first research question (RQ1a) we aimed to explore the quantity and quality of the CF moves in the two classrooms. As for the **quantity**, we found a significantly larger amount of correction in the EFL lessons. This difference in CF amount is coherent with the differences of the instructional settings. The EFL lessons are mainly focused on language while the CLIL lessons are oriented to meaning, as we saw above in the summary of the COLT scheme (see section 7.2). As mentioned above, the lesson orientation to content is typical of immersion classrooms (Lyster & Mori, 2006) but not so of CLIL classrooms in other levels, such as primary education, where teachers are language specialists (Llinares & Lyster, 2014). In our data, we found that the EFL teacher was very concerned with accuracy and language form, which led her to use a great amount of correction, among other form-focused techniques (e.g. task planning, task repetition). Example (39) from Milla and Mayo (2014) illustrates how the EFL teacher uses different FonF techniques such as writing on the board and insisting with metalinguistic explanations after the error has been repaired. She uses a total of nine feedback moves for a single error to make sure that the learners notice the correction and do not repeat the error again. In the present study, the EFL teacher's use of different CF moves for the same error has been shown above. Other FonF techniques that the EFL teacher used in the present study were the use of raising intonation or non-verbal language, as seen above. All these variables are really important in a FFI context (Ellis, 2016) and they all contribute to the classroom orientation to form that was revealed in the COLT analysis.

(39) CF IN EFL

Learner: …instead of using the speech and rhyme to express meaning signers /*sɪngərs/ use their hands in fact anything that can be expressed through spoken language can also be expressed through sign /*sɪng/ 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 /saɪn/ language (3) [RC] and they invented a language: 'singers were singing the language' (4) [RpC] and you could see 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) [ElC]

Learners: sign /saɪn/! [ElR]

Teacher: sign /saɪn/ 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 /saɪnə/ sign /saɪn/ language signer (9) [RC].

(Milla & Mayo, 2014: 10)

As mentioned above, we confirmed that the main reason for these significantly different results was that learners turned to the use of L1 very frequently during CLIL lessons, but the teacher very rarely corrected this type of errors. In the literature, some researchers have sometimes opted to exclude this strategy of unsolicited L1 use from the error data analysis (Lyster & Mori, 2006) whilst others have maintained it (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In this dissertation, we decided to consider L1 use

an error since both teachers treated L1 use in that manner, either when they corrected instances of L1 use or when they did not. It can be argued that this view of L1 use as an error is an old-fashioned one, especially in CLIL lessons, where, as we saw above, L1 use is usually not considered a problem but a beneficial strategy and, as Ortega (2015) points out:

> Most foreign language educators, including Lyster in this issue and García Mayo and Lázaro Ibarrola in other work (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2015; Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012) call for a wise use of the L1 for the purposes of cognitive mediation and within certain task-dependent and classroom dynamic constraints.
>
> (Ortega, 2015: 108).

Nowadays, with CLIL programmes and English-medium instruction (EMI) courses spreading over all educational levels (primary, secondary and tertiary), the sporadic use of L1is viewed by most teachers as beneficial. However, a great number of teachers still consider the learners' use of L1 as a mistake and they try to avoid it in their lessons (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017). This is precisely what we have observed in our data.

On the whole, our general results for CF provision go in line with previous research, since in the literature review we saw that FL teachers tend to provide greater amounts of CF than immersion or L2 teachers (de Graaff et al., 2007; Lorenzo et al., 2010). More specifically, the key to understand teachers' corrective behaviour seems to be the variable "instructional setting", each setting featuring a different classroom orientation (to form or meaning). This variable influences teachers' beliefs, as we will see in section 8.3., and leads to a different amount and quality of CF. Therefore, the specific nature of the setting can explain the differences regarding CF between our CLIL teacher,

who follows a content-oriented methodology, and CLIL teachers in previous studies, such as Llinares and Lyster (2014) or even Lochtman's (2007), where CLIL classrooms were more language-oriented.

After examining the amount of CF that teachers provided to learners' errors, we analysed the specific aspects of these **CF moves**. In previous studies we had seen that FL teachers tended to provide more explicit and output-prompting feedback (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lochtman, 2007; Lyster & Mori, 2006), although recasts were the more frequently used type both in FL and in immersion settings, in spite of the fact that their effectiveness for L2 learning is not clear yet. There is a current debate in the literature with findings that have created two different opinions: on the one hand, authors claim recasts are the best option for OCF and argue that they can be highly effective (Goo & Mackey, 2013) and the second group considers this CF type as the least effective and recommend to use recasts combined with other CF types, in specific contexts such as FFI and for certain error types such as pronunciation (Lyster & Ranta, 2013).

In our classrooms, we found that EFL and CLIL teachers preferred recasts over the rest of CF types but the EFL teacher's concern for accuracy led her to use prompts and more explicit types of CF as well as recasts. Besides, she used the "multiple feedback" technique, starting with indirect types of CF such as elicitations or metalinguistic feedback and resorting to recasts when the learners did not repair or uptake the first time. As we have seen in Chapter 7, in spite of the large number of recasts that the EFL teacher used, she preferred the most explicit types of recasts, such as short or isolated, which turn out to be more salient, and according to previous literature, leading to higher rates of uptake (Sheen, 2006). On the other hand, the CLIL teacher used a massive quantity of more implicit recasts, which is coherent with his meaning-oriented lessons. As explained above, our CLIL teacher behaves in a similar way to those in immersion contexts, placing

the emphasis of the interaction on fluency and especially on content, while relegating accuracy and form. Content teachers have been found to be concerned with communication, the centre of their lessons is the subject matter and, as long as learners express ideas effectively, language forms are somehow left behind (Pica, 2002).

Additionally, answering RQ1b, **error type** was found to play a role in the choice of CF types in a different manner in both classrooms. The CLIL teacher used recasts for L1 use, pronunciation and grammar errors and preferred prompts for vocabulary errors. We need to bear in mind that this teacher focused on the content rather than form, so he addressed the lexical problems in learners' utterances with more explicit feedback types, aiming at learners' repair in these cases. However, he did not consider other error types, purely related to language form, as essential as the errors related to meaning. This behaviour is similar to what other teachers in content-based classrooms generally show, (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Conversely, the EFL teacher preferred recasts for pronunciation errors and more explicit CF types (prompts) for grammar or L1 use errors.

Wrapping up, we have found a clear influence of the instructional context as to the amount and types of CF that teachers provide. In each classroom, there is a different classroom orientation, with more emphasis on one of the elements, form or meaning, which is reflected in the teachers' (and also the learners', as we will see in the next section) behaviour regarding CF. EFL classrooms are a more form-focused context, with a larger amount of CF provided and more explicit and salient CF types use. On the other hand, CLIL settings in secondary education follow a meaning-oriented methodology, with a small proportion of correction and more implicit CF types provided. This is precisely the contribution of our study, since the context of CLIL in secondary education had not been examined before, and we have found that CF differs both in amount and types depending on the level of education considered in the study. CLIL in primary

education involves a form-focused approach, with subsequent explicit CF and larger amounts of correction (Lochtman, 2005; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006), while in our study we have confirmed that secondary school CLIL classrooms are focused on content, which leads to differences in the CF moves: smaller amount of errors corrected and a strong preference for the use of implicit and input-providing CF types. The question for researchers would be whether the meaning-oriented methodology in secondary CLIL classrooms is really helping learners in their progress towards the mastery of the language. In general, as explained in previous chapters, research findings of CLIL vs non-CLIL classrooms indicate that this teaching approach is helpful (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Merino & Lasagabaster, 2015; Sylvén 2010), but more detailed studies are needed in order to confirm whether a more form-focused CLIL approach would foster learners'L2 development better than the current content-oriented one (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Muñoz, 2007).One of the techniques used in form-focused approaches is OCF. In what follows we will elaborate on the issue of CF effectiveness in the two instructional contexts in our study by discussing our results for RQ2.

8.2.2. RESEARCH QUESTION 2

In order to answer RQ2 we examined the third move of CFEs, the **uptake move**. As explained in section 1.2 above, CFEs can either have this third move or not, since sometimes learners do not respond to the correction, either due to their inability to repair the error or their lack of noticing of the correction or due to the teacher's or learners' continuation of the topic that prevents the corrected learner from responding to the CF move.This lack of opportunity for uptake influences the results (Sheen, 2004), since some CF moves seemed to be less effective in the quantitative analysis, but the qualitative analysis showed that different factors affected the uptake to different CF types. Thus, we cannot attribute effectiveness only to the type of CF but we have to take into account the

teacher's behaviour after the CF move, in this case the fact the CLIL teacher in our study allowed for uptake in fewer cases than the EFL teacher, due to the different orientation that each of the teachers show in the two learning contexts. Besides, some of the recasts in CLIL could be considered 'non-corrective repetitions', which are instances of negotiation of meaning moves, provided simply to keep the conversation going. Example (40) illustrates these non-corrective repetitions.

(40) Non-corrective repetition in CLIL: Recast followed by topic continuation

STU: because is unlimited the responsibility [*G].

TEA: very good because it has this company has an unlimited responsibility [RCG] is that clear [NURC] is that clear imagine (…)

The learner makes a grammar error, which is responded with a confirmation of the content ('very good') and a reformulation of the grammar error ('this company has an unlimited responsibility') followed by a topic continuation ('Is that clear? Imagine: ...'). A response concerning the content is expected ('Is that clear?') but uptake to the recast is not allowed by the teacher.

Thus, in these cases the teacher does not expect a repair move and continues with the topic. In our study, out of the total number of CFEs, a considerable amount of them involved no uptake. Therefore, the analysis of the third move was somehow limited since the amount of data was reduced in this case. Nevertheless, we managed to obtain what we consider interesting findings that will be discussed in what follows.

The rates of uptake clearly depend on the context and the different orientation of the lessons in each of them: uptake was significantly higher in EFL (91%) than in CLIL

(36%), which was attributed to the high use of recasts in CLIL, since the response to prompts was greater in general (40% in EFL and 30% in CLIL). Moreover, we found significant differences in the uptake to recasts and to reformulations, which was higher in EFL. These results are in line with previous research (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006) and are related to the focus of each of the settings, which caused, not only a difference in the use of CF types, as we saw above, but also in the learners' response to CF in general, and to each of the CF types. As we saw in previous chapters, the Counterbalance Hypothesis (Lyster & Mori, 2006) can provide an explanation for these lower rates of uptake to recasts in certain contexts. That is, in form-oriented lessons such as those in EFL contexts, learners are focused on form most of the time, which makes CF and recasts in particular more salient thus leading to higher uptake rates. This is what happens in our EFL classroom. Accordingly, in meaning oriented lessons, learners are more concerned with meaning so more explicit CF types would be preferable, especially those which call for learners' self-repair. We can see this in our CLIL classroom, where prompts were particularly effective in spite of the little use that the teacher made of these types. We can see an example of an effective prompt in (41) below, where the CLIL teacher corrects an unsolicited L1 use by means of an elicitation. The learner repairs the error successfully by producing the term in English:

(41) Prompt followed by successful uptake (repair) in CLIL

STU: *eh lo que vendes* [*L1]…

TEA: OK and this is in English how is it [ELL1]?

STU: sales [SREL].

In summary, our findings reveal significant differences between secondary CLIL and EFL classrooms regarding the amount of CFEs and many specific aspects of these episodes. It seems clear that the variable 'learning context' affects the behaviour of both groups of participants regarding the episodes and the teachers' and learners' behaviour. On the one hand, teachers correct in different rates, pay attention to different types of errors, and use different corrective techniques depending on their lesson's orientation to form or meaning. On the other hand, learners react differently when they are in a more form-oriented classroom or a classroom more focused on meaning. Our findings are especially interesting as in this dissertation we have analysed the behaviour of the same group of learners in the two classrooms, controlling the potential effect of the learner variable, whereas in other studies the participant learners were different in each of the settings. Yet, our results have been similar to other studies, showing that it is the specific nature of the learning context, materialized in the classroom orientation, which causes the differences in the learners' uptake. In the following section, we will deepen on teachers' and learners' beliefs as another potential cause for these differences in the CFEs in the two observed learning settings.

8.3. BELIEFS ABOUT CF

The analysis of the results of the beliefs questionnaire show that the general attitude towards CF is a positive one although there were differences among the groups and mismatches that need to be discussed.

8.3.1. RESEARCH QUESTION 3

RQ3 aimed to analyse teachers' beliefs about OCF. In our review of the literature on beliefs in Chapter 5, we explained that, overall, teachers believed in the benefits of CF for L2 learning, but showed concern for learners' emotional state when receiving

correction as well as the loss of the communicative flow of the lesson if learners were often interrupted to be corrected (Brown, 2009; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005).

In our questionnaire, both EFL and CLIL teachers scored CF very high in the scale, and we did not find significant differences in their answers to questions on CF types (reformulations, metalinguistic feedback and prompts) or error types (pronunciation, morphosyntactic, lexical) to be addressed. The main difference between our study and previous ones is the trust that our participant teachers seem to have in prompts as well as the more positive general attitude to OCF as a strategy to be used in oral interaction in the classroom.

8.3.1.1. COMPARISON OF BELIEFS AND PRACTICES

RQ3 also was concerned with the comparison of teachers' beliefs and corrective practices. EFL and CLIL teachers in the present study had similar beliefs about CF provision, and theirs was not really different from teachers in other studies. The key point here is whether these beliefs correspond to the teachers' behaviour in the classroom and the reasons that motivate the differences if they exist.

The qualitative analyses of the comparison of our participant teachers' answers to the questionnaire and their CF practices revealed that there was a remarkable mismatch. As explained in the literature review, previous research has found that many teachers do not follow their own beliefs when teaching in the classroom (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Dilans, 2015; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Roothoft, 2014; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Zhang & Jiang, 2009). Similarly, our teachers responded very positively in their beliefs questionnaire but then they did not act according to their own beliefs in the lessons. For example, the amount of feedback provided by the CLIL teacher was not coherent with his positive attitude towards CF. This smaller proportion of correction has been attributed in

previous studies with language teachers to time constraints, lesson orientation and the type of tasks (Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Mori, 2011; Yoshida, 2008). Although research on teachers' beliefs and CF practices has not been carried out in the context of CLIL, it seems that the specific features of this approach in secondary education in Spain, such as the lessons orientation to content, influences our CLIL teacher's practices regarding oral correction. On the other hand, both teachers scored the use of metalinguistic cues and prompts very high, but the most frequently used CF type in both CLIL and EFL was recast. Again, time constraints and lesson focus seem to be the main reason of this choice of CF types in the classroom.

Therefore, although it seems that teachers are starting to consider FonF techniques and CF in particular as necessary and beneficial for L2 development, we still have a lot of work to do if we want these beliefs to make their way into actual teaching practices. Probably teachers are not fully aware of what they do in their lessons, and they should be involved in research so that they are made to reflect on their practices as Mori (2011) proposes.

8.3.2. RESEARCH QUESTION 4

In our last research question, we were interested in analysing learners' beliefs and comparing them with the teachers' opinions. In general, our results were in line with previous studies on learners' and teachers' beliefs, where a mismatch was found between the attitudes of both groups towards CF (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Brown, 2009; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Lee, 2013).Our participant teachers and learners gave significantly different scores to all questions except for the use of prompts (although learners scored lower than teachers) and the item that stated that only EFL teachers should correct, which obtained a negative response as both teachers and learners believed that CLIL teachers should correct language errors as well. They had also a similar response in

the question about the need to correct pronunciation errors. In the remaining items, learners obtained more positive results than teachers, which shows that, as to CF provision in oral interaction, learners are willing to be corrected in either way, implicit or explicit, and any type of error, pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary. They feel that OCF helps them in their learning process and expect that teachers provide them with the highest proportion of correction when involved in oral interaction, both in English and in CLIL lessons.

A pedagogical implication deriving from these results is that teachers and learners should cooperate in this respect. Teachers should be concerned with learners' preferences and learning goals and plan their lessons accordingly. Particularly, if learners feel that they are taken into account and their opinions are listened to, they will feel more motivated. Moreover, if teachers' behaviour matches learners' preferences, teaching techniques such as CF can turn out to be more effective, and consequently, more beneficial for L2 learning. Another aspect that should be considered is the increasing learner motivation if teachers pay attention to their needs and expectations. Furthermore, using self-repair techniques may help learners be aware of their abilities and thus, be more motivated towards their own learning process.

8.4. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have discussed the results obtained from the analyses of the empirical data previously presented in Chapter 7. We have divided the discussion in two parts since we consider that the reporting of the amount of data and multiple findings would be more reader-friendly if we separate them into two different sections. On the one hand, we have discussed the results concerning RQ1 and RQ2, that is, all the findings related to CFEs. On the other hand, results related with the beliefs questionnaires, that is, RQ3 and RQ4, have been discussed.

Regarding CFEs, we expected differences between the two classrooms, EFL and CLIL, since previous research had found that the learning context variable influences teachers' techniques and learners' response to CF (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lochtman, 2007; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Milla & García Mayo, 2014). Similarly, we have found that the lesson orientation in each of the settings leads to differences as to the quality and quantity of CFEs in these classrooms. Thus, in EFL, both teacher and learners were oriented to form more than to meaning, which affected the amount and type of errors, less frequent and more related to pronunciation problems, also the CF proportion and the types of correction provided, more explicit and aiming at self-repair. Similarly, uptake rates and types were also affected by the classroom orientation. We have explained that these results are similar to previous comparative studies where, due to the characteristics of each of the classroom, differences in the quantity and quality of CFEs arise. Findings show that in the CLIL context, more content oriented, CF turns out to be less effective because of the teacher's as well as the learners' focus.

The influence of learning context is also found in the comparison of the teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. Mismatches were attributed to CLIL teachers' orientation to meaning. Therefore, although both EFL and CLIL teachers had similarly positive attitudes towards CF, only EFL teachers put these beliefs into practice. CLIL teachers did not consider that it was their responsibility to correct learners. It is highly likely that their condition of subject specialists and not language teachers influences their CF behaviour.

Finally, we elaborated on teachers' and learners' disparity of beliefs, suggesting that teachers should care more for learners' expectations in order to maximize the effects of CF. Thus, the distinctive features of the learning context as well as the learners'

characteristics have been found to be greatly influential in the amount and types of CFEs that occur in the two contexts analysed in the present study: CLIL and EFL.

CHAPTER 9: GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

9.1. SUMMARY

The aim of the present dissertation was to investigate the issue of CF in two different settings: a traditional EFL classroom and a CLIL classroom. The study was motivated by the need for research about CF, especially in the latter kind of classrooms. Chapter1 explained that CF does not occur in isolation but as part of larger episodes in oral interaction, known as CFEs. These episodes consist of three moves: learner's error, teacher's CF and learner's uptake. Types of CF were defined and classified according to the degree of implicitness that they entail as well as the type of information they offer (positive evidence=reformulations, negative evidence=prompts). Chapter 2 presented the theoretical framework behind the CF construct and showed how all but one of the SLA theories consider CF not only beneficial for L2 learning, but essential for the process to take place. Theorists do not agree on the best CF type or the factors to be taken into account when studying CF though, but in general, they regard the construct as a basic element of interaction, which has been shown to facilitate learning (Long, 1996, 2006).

As mentioned above, we noticed a dearth in CF research concerning several aspects, such as the effect of instructional context and the comparison of teachers' beliefs and their CF practices. Chapter 3 showed that, although there appear to be some definite answers for several questions concerning the provision of CF, there are still aspects that need to be further studied. Thus, it seems to be more appropriate to provide CF in a little delayed manner, select global and frequent errors and prioritize explicit and output-pushing types. Nevertheless, research has revealed that different factors are to be taken into account when deciding the type of CF: error type and learners' IDs such as age or proficiency level, for example. Moreover, instructional context has been claimed to have an impact on CF, even though very few studies have been devoted to this variable, as

shown in Chapter 4. Finally, Chapter 4 explained that the learning approach of CLIL has hardly been examined as far as CF is concerned, thus, being in great need of research. Consequently, we decided to examine CFEs that occur in this learning context and compare them with the episodes in a more traditional setting, EFL. As mentioned in Chapter 5, research has found that teachers' and learners' beliefs also affect the amount and types of CFEs. Consequently, we decided to explore this variable too, comparing the two settings as well as the beliefs reported in a questionnaire with the actual behaviour in the EFL and CLIL classrooms.

In Part II of the dissertation we have presented the study itself, its rationale, methodology, research questions and findings. We aimed to answer four research questions: RQ1 was related to the teachers' CF provision in the EFL and CLIL classrooms whereas RQ2 concerned the learners' uptake. We followed a classroom observation procedure for these two questions, analysing the lessons with a COLT scheme and examining the data from a quantitative as well as a qualitative perspective. The other two research questions were related to the participants' beliefs about CF. Thus, in RQ3 we analysed the teachers' responses, comparing CLIL and EFL teachers' beliefs and also with their behaviour in the classrooms we had observed and recorded. Finally, in RQ4, learners' responses were examined and we identified mismatches between their responses and the teachers' beliefs.

Differences between EFL and CLIL were clear from the very early stages of the analyses: we found a different orientation in the two learning contexts already in the COLT scheme: EFL lessons to form and CLIL to meaning. This difference in the lesson focus of the learning contexts is very likely to be influencing all the other results that we reported afterwards. Thus, we obtained differences in the three moves of the CFEs. Hence, learners' errors were of a different type and more frequent in CLIL than in EFL;

the CLIL teacher provided much less CF than the EFL teacher and the two teachers paid attention to different types of errors and preferred different CF types. Finally, uptake was larger in EFL with higher rates of repair, too. We attributed these remarkable differences to the influence of the learning context, and especially to the focus of the lessons. As in previous studies (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lochtman, 2007; Milla & García Mayo, 2014) the classroom orientation to form or meaning led the teachers to be more concerned with accuracy or content, thus providing more or less CF, attending grammar or lexical errors and using more prompts and explicit recasts or more implicit recasts and hardly any prompts, respectively.

The study contributes to the literature on CF in that we have included the context of CLIL in secondary education. CF in CLIL, as mentioned above, had been scarcely researched, and the few studies that include content based classrooms were set in primary education (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006). Therefore, we have found that there is a difference in the manner that primary and secondary school teachers address errors in the CLIL classrooms in Spain, mainly due to the teachers' different background and previous experience. The lack of concern for accuracy in the secondary CLIL classrooms that we have observed leads to low uptake and larger amount of errors on the part of the learners. On the other hand, the secondary school EFL teachers in our study seem to behave similarly to primary school language teachers as far as CF is concerned. FL teachers address a large percentage of errors and show a clear focus on form that seems to help learners' progress in their L2 acquisition process.

One of the major findings of this study is that the instructional context not only affects teachers' behaviour, as we had seen in previous studies, but also the learners'. Indeed, we have shown that the same group of learners attending two different types of lessons shows differences as to the type and amount of errors and uptake rates. This

finding had not been reported in previous research, as the learners in those studies belonged to different schools and even to different countries (Lyster & Mori, 2006; Llinares & Lyster, 2014). Now, our data have revealed that it is not only the cultural environment but also the classroom environment which affects learners' attention to form or meaning. This is a very important finding since it means that teachers have the key to divert learners' focus to form or meaning by using different strategies such as classroom management or task types.

Regarding beliefs about CF, we found that CLIL and EFL teachers did not differ so much in their opinions, which were generally positive. Additionally, the behaviour of the two teachers we observed and their beliefs did not match. Specifically, the CLIL teacher's positive beliefs towards CF and prompts did not correspond to his low rates of CF, indiscriminate use of recasts and his neglecting of pronunciation and L1 errors. On the contrary, the EFL teacher followed her beliefs when teaching in the classroom. This behaviour goes in line with what happens in other studies. Immersion teachers and CLIL teachers share this tendency to under-correct and ignore certain type of errors while paying attention to content or lexical errors. These teachers also make a higher use of recasts and do not usually provide prompts. The reason seems to be that immersion and CLIL teachers are clearly oriented to content and do not consider their duty to take care of accuracy or language forms. Given that CLIL is intrinsically a combination of content and language, the teachers in this teaching approach should be encouraged and probably trained to use form-focused techniques. Primary school CLIL teachers, being language specialists, do not show this tendency towards content (Llinares & Lyster, 2014). Secondary and tertiary CLIL teachers are obviously concerned with their subject matter (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017), but for the sake of the process of language learning, they should be made aware of the benefits of form-focused techniques such as CF and the risks

that focusing so much on content has for language development, as research in immersion contexts has revealed.

9.2. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The first implication obtained from the analyses of the data in this study is related to the **use of CF in the classroom**, even in content subjects. Teachers should be encouraged and trained to use CF as it has been shown to be beneficial for L2 learning. In our study, we have found that CLIL teachers have positive attitudes towards CF but they use it very little in their classrooms, and when they do so, they prefer the most implicit types of CF, implicit recasts. Maybe it would be interesting to offer these teachers courses on the nature of CLIL and the need for FonF in order to help language learning.

Secondly, as we have explained above, findings regarding CFEs in this dissertation show that teachers can guide **learners' attention** to form or meaning by employing form-focused strategies such as output-pushing CF. Obviously, the type of subject being taught also plays a role. Simply by attending an English language lesson, the learners know that accuracy is important, while being in a Science lesson, for example, they are more concerned with the content of the lesson than with expressing it correctly. Secondary CLIL teachers may use a more balanced methodology that leads learners to focus on form as well as in meaning, thus fulfilling the aims of a CLIL approach.

The third pedagogical implication is related to the following quote by Ellis (2009:14): 'Teachers should ascertain their learners' attitudes towards CF, appraise them of the value of CF, and negotiate agreed goals for CF with them. The goals are likely to vary according to the social and situational context'. In other words, teachers' practices should be connected with **learners' expectations**. Teachers can assess learners as to their

beliefs about language teaching and learning and explain them the benefits of CF while negotiating the types, amount and modes of CF that will be provided.

The fourth pedagogical implication has also been introduced in the summary above and is related to what Ellis (2009) mentions. Teachers (and probably learners) should be informed about the results of research and be **involved in the studies** concerned with L2 teaching and learning. It has been shown that teachers become aware of their own teaching practices when they are asked to reflect on them or when they are informed of research results (Farrell, 2007; Kamiya & Loewen, 2014). This awareness raising has positive effects, since teachers can polish their teaching techniques and modify their classroom behaviour to adapt it to their own beliefs. Of course, there are time and syllabus constraints that will influence their behaviour no matter what they intend to do but their teaching can improve if they know what is beneficial for learners, they are advised on how to implement new ideas and they are made conscious of their own practices. Teachers in general are willing to do what is best for their learners and the first step is to let them know about the findings that research reveals to us. We consider it essential to promote a closer relation between researchers and teachers, since both can benefit from the information that the other part has to provide.

9.3. LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

As in any research study, several limitations need to be acknowledged. These limitations will serve as guidelines for future work on the topic. First, the study has been conducted in a particular school and in a particular region, the BAC, which influences the generalization of the findings. We have reached conclusions from the results of the analyses of our data, and they seem to be in line with previous studies in other contexts. However, we must be cautious when generalizing these findings to all CLIL contexts. First of all, we have seen that there are different types of CLIL implementations and ours

is quite a content-oriented one. Besides, the BAC is a bilingual community, which must have an influence on the manner teachers and learners see language learning, as we are dealing with L3 English learners. Therefore, more studies should be carried out in secondary education classrooms in other parts of Spain and Europe.

Secondly, we have been working with a limited set of data in the sense that the CFEs occur in the same school and with a particular group of learners. We decided to control for the variability of the learners' characteristics by observing only one group of learners in a specific geographical area, instead of different groups of learners in very distinct countries, as other comparative studies have done (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lochtman, 2007; Lyster & Mori, 2006). However, in order to obtain results which can be generalized, more learners and teachers should be observed and compared in further research. Similarly, we were able to obtain a small amount of data for the teachers' beliefs questionnaire. In future investigations, a larger number of EFL and CLIL teachers' responses should be gathered, probably by means of online questionnaires instead of mailing lists, as we did in this case. Besides, the fact that the teachers' questionnaire was not anonymous might have led to teachers' reluctance to respond to it, which should be repaired in future versions of the questionnaire.

Thirdly, this dissertation is focused on OCF since oral and written CF belong to separate fields of research, as we explained above. Nevertheless, we think that it would be interesting to explore the written CF that these teachers provide, comparing learners' production and CLIL and EFL teachers' techniques in order to check whether the differences found in oral interaction also exist in the written mode.

9.4. FINAL COMMENTS

In sum, we have obtained a clear picture of CFEs in secondary CLIL and EFL classrooms: significant differences have been found in the learners' and teachers' behaviour regarding this matter, and the influence of the instructional context has been shown to play a role in these differences. We have seen that both teachers and learners have positive beliefs towards CF, but that there are mismatches between what teachers do and what learners expect as well as between CLIL teachers' beliefs and classroom corrective practices. However, there is still a lot of work to be done regarding CF in different instructional contexts and especially in CLIL classrooms. Multilingualism is spreading worldwide and we need to find ways to help learners in their path towards SLA.

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APPENDIXES

1. TEACHERS'QUESTIONNAIRE:

Department of English Studies

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear teacher,

This questionnaire aims to find out about your beliefs and concerns regarding error feedback and grammar teaching. All your answers will be treated confidentially.

1. **Name:**
2. **School:**
3. **Subjects taught:**
4. **Years of teaching experience**:
5. **English level**: Advanced Very Advanced Bilingual

Express your opinion about the following statements:

6. When learners make errors in speaking a second language, teachers should correct them.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

7. Teachers should correct oral errors by providing learners with the correct form.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

8. Teachers should correct learners' oral errors by providing explanations as to why what they say is incorrect.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

9. Teachers should help learners to self-correct their oral errors instead of providing them with the right form.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

10. Teachers should allow other learners to correct oral errors.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

11. Teachers should correct pronunciation errors.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

12. Teachers should correct oral grammar errors.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

13. Teachers should correct oral vocabulary errors.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

14. Teachers should correct all oral errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

15. Learners learn more when teachers correct their oral errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

16. When learners make errors in writing, teachers should correct them

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

17. Teachers should correct written errors by just drawing attention to them (with a mark, underlining them…)

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

18. Teachers should provide learners with the target form to their written errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

19. Teachers should help learners obtain the correct form for their written errors rather than giving it to them

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

20. Teachers should correct all written errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

21. Teachers should correct spelling or punctuation errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

22. Teachers should correct learners' written grammatical errors in writing.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

23. Teachers should correct written vocabulary errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

24. Learners learn more when the teacher corrects their written errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

25. The teachers of subjects taught in English should also correct language errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

26. Only the English teacher should correct language errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

27. It is more important to practice a language in real-life situations than to study and practise grammatical structures

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

28. Learners should keep grammar rules in mind when they write in English or read what they have written

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

29. There should be more formal study of grammar in English lessons

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

30. There should be more formal study of grammar in the lessons of the subjects taught in English.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

31. Studying grammar helps the learning of a foreign/language

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

32. Generally speaking, learners' communicative ability improves most quickly if they study and practice the grammar of a language

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

33. Is there anything you would like to comment about teaching grammar and/or error correction, etc.?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COLLABORATION

2. LEARNERS'QUESTIONNAIRE:

Department of English Studies

LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

1. First and last name: _____
2. Sex: Female Male
3. Age: _____ 4. Birth place: _____
5. Native language(s)_____
6. Mother's native language: _____
7. Father's native language: _____
8. Languages you use in the following situations:

- at home: _____
- with family (grandparents/aunts & uncles/cousins) _____
- at school: _____
- with friends: _____
- watching TV:_____
- in internet:_____

9. Other languages you can…

- read: _____ understand_____
- speak: _____ write: _____

10. Have you studied any subjects in English in primary or secondary education? Which ones?

_____

_____

11. Have you attended English lessons outside school?

    If your answer is YES, explain:

    When you started:_____

    How many hours a week (approximately):_____

12. Have you ever been in an English speaking country? YES NO

    If your answer is YES, explain:

    When: _____

    Where: _____

    How long you stayed: _____

    Did you attend English lessons during your stay? _____

13. Do you think that English is important for your future? Why?

_____

_____

Express your opinion about the following statements:

14. When I make errors in speaking a second language, I like my teacher to correct them.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

15. I prefer that the teacher correct my oral errors by providing me with the correct form.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

16. I like it when the teacher corrects my oral errors by providing explanations as to why my responses are incorrect.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

17. I prefer the teacher to help me self-correct my oral errors instead of giving me the right form

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

18. I prefer other classmates to correct my oral errors rather than the teacher

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

19. I like the teacher to correct my pronunciation errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

20. I like the teacher to correct my oral grammar errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

21. I like the teacher to correct my oral vocabulary errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

22. I like the teacher to correct all my oral errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

23. I think that I learn more when the teacher corrects my oral errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

24. When I make errors in writing, I expect the teacher to correct them

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

25. I like the teacher to correct my written errors by just drawing my attention to them (with a mark, underlining them,…)

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

26. I prefer the teacher to correct my written errors by giving me the target form

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

27. I prefer the teacher to help enable me to find the correct form for my written errors rather than giving it tome

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

28. I expect the teacher to correct all my written errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

29. I expect the teacher to correct my spelling or punctuation errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

30. I expect the teacher to correct my written grammatical errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

31. I expect the teacher to correct my written vocabulary errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

32. I think that I learn more when the teacher corrects my written errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

33. I think it is important that the teachers of subjects taught in English correct my errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

34. I think only the English teacher should correct errors

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

35. It is more important to practice a language in real-life situations than to study and practice grammatical structures

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

36. I usually keep grammar rules in mind when I write in English or read what I have written

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

37. There should be more formal study of grammar in my English lessons

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

38. There should be more formal study of grammar in the lessons of the subjects taught in English.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

39. Studying grammar helps the learning of a language

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

40. I believe my foreign language improves most quickly if I study and practice its grammar.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

41. Is there anything you would like to comment about learning grammar and/or error correction, etc.?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COLLABORATION!!

3. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEME

Classroom/Subject: No of Students: Teacher: Date: Time:

Student's error	type	Teacher's feedback	type	Student's uptake	type

Type of error: G-Grammar, L-lexical, P-phonological, L1-L1 use (Basque or Spanish)
Type of feedback: RC-recast, CL-clarification request, RP-repetition, EL- Elicitation, ML-metalinguistic cue, EC-explicit correction
Type of uptake: R-repair, Pe-Peer Repair, NR-needs repair, NU-no uptake

4. BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRES

Learners' linguistic background questionnaire (1st year).

1st YEAR (n=25)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	MEAN
OPT	0	18	6	1				2.32
SEX	22	3						-
AGE	1	22	1					2
BIRTHPLACE	22	1		2				1.28
MOTHERTONGUE	10	15						1.6
MOTHER'SMOTHER TONGUE	18	6	1					1.32
FATHER'SMOTHER TONGUE	14	10	1					1.48
AT HOME	10	13	2					1.68
RELATIVES	14	0	1					1.48
AT SCHOOL	4	6	15					2.44
FRIENDS	11	13	1					1.6
TV	10	6	9					1.96
INTERNET	8	6	10	1				2.16
READ	0	0	9	9				2.52
SPEAK	0	0	7	10				2.44

UNDERSTAND	0	0	9	8				2.36
WRITE	0	0	8	8				2.36
TRILINGUAL	18	0	7	0				1.56
EXTRA-CURRICULAR	7	10	7	1				2.08
ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES	5	10	10					2.2
IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH	0	7	0	12	0	5	1	3.96

Learners' linguistic background questionnaire (2nd year).

2ND YEAR (n=26*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	MEAN
OPT	0	16	10	0				2.38
SEX	14	12						-
AGE			23	3				3.12
BIRTHPLACE	24	2						1.08
MOTHER TONGUE	17	9						1.35
MOTHER'S MOTHER TONGUE	22	4						1.15

FATHER'S MOTHER TONGUE	19	5	2					1.35
AT HOME	15	10	1					1.46
RELATIVES	12	13	1					1.58
AT SCHOOL	4	1	21					2.65
FRIENDS	18	6	2					1.38
TV	14	7	5					1.65
INTERNET	9	1	16					2.27
READ			5	9				2.27
SPEAK			5	9				1.96
UNDERSTAND			5	10				2.12
WRITE			5	7				1.65
TRILINGUAL	13	3	10					1.88
EXTRA-CURRICULAR	7	16	3					1.85
ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES	0	9	17					2.65
IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH	0	2	1	16	1	6		4.31

*The two learners that did not attend Business lessons are included

5. DATA AND TEST RESULTS

Teacher effect

Table 24: Amount of correction in EFL1 and EFL2

	EFL1	**EFL2**
NON-CORRECTED ERRORS	23	40
CORRECTED ERRORS	69	148
TOTAL ERRORS	**92**	**188**

Table 25: Amount of correction in CLIL1 and CLIL2

	CLIL1	**CLIL2**
NON-CORRECTED ERRORS	129	441
CORRECTED ERRORS	38	114
TOTAL ERRORS	**167**	**555**

Table 26: Type of correction in EFL1 and EFL2

CF TYPE	**EFL1**	**EFL2**
RECASTS	35	84
REPETITIONS	2	4
CLARIFICATIONS	1	5
ELICITATIONS	18	29
METALINGUISTIC	6	6
EXPLICIT CORRECTION	7	20

REFORMULATIONS	42	104
PROMPTS	27	44
TOTAL	**69**	**148**

Table 27: Type of correction in CLIL1 and CLIL2

CF TYPE	**CLIL1**	**CLIL2**
RECASTS	28	81
REPETITIONS	0	7
CLARIFICATIONS	0	7
ELICITATIONS	7	10
METALINGUISTIC	1	8
EXPLICIT CORRECTION	2	1
REFORMULATIONS	30	82
PROMPTS	8	32
TOTAL	**38**	**114**

Errors

Table 28: Amount of errors by type in EFL and CLIL

ERROR TYPE	EFL	CLIL
L1	29	391
G	52	44
P	80	95
L	27	25
TOTAL	**188**	**555**

RQ1a: CF types in EFL and CLIL

Table 29: Amount of CF by type in EFL and CLIL

CF TYPE	EFL2	CLIL2
RECASTS	84	81
REPETITIONS	4	7
CLARIFICATIONS	5	7
ELICITATIONS	29	10
METALINGUISTIC	6	8
EXPLICIT CORRECTION	20	1
REFORMULATIONS	104	82
PROMPTS	44	32
TOTAL	**148**	**114**

RQ1b

Table 30: Amount of CF types depending on error type in EFL and CLIL

CF TYPE+ERROR TYPE	EFL	CLIL
RECAST		
RCL1	11	52
RCG	10	12
RCP	55	12
RCL	8	5
REPETITION		
RPL1	0	0
RPG	3	1
RPP	1	2
RPL	0	4
CLARIFICATION R.		
CLL1	1	5
CLG	2	0
CLP	0	0
CLL	2	2
ELICITATION		
ELL1	6	4
ELG	12	0
ELP	7	0
ELL	4	6
METALINGUISTIC CUE		
MLL1	1	5

MLG	4	0
MLP	0	0
MLL	1	3
EXPLICIT CORRECTION		
ECL1	1	1
ECG	5	0
ECP	10	0
ECL	4	0

RQ2

Table 31: Amount of uptake to CF types in EFL and CLIL

CF TYPE	EFL	CLIL
RECASTS	42	5
REPETITIONS	4	6
CLARIFICATIONS	5	6
ELICITATIONS	27	10
METALINGUISTIC	4	7
EXPLICIT CORRECTION	9	1
REFORMULATIONS	51	6

PROMPTS	40	29
TOTAL	**91**	**35**

Table 32: Amount of uptake by type in EFL and CLIL

	EFL	**CLIL**
NO UPTAKE	57	79
NEEDS REPAIR	32	14
SELF REPAIR	54	16
PEER REPAIR	5	5
TOTAL UPTAKE	**91**	**35**

RQ3

Table 33: CLIL teachers' responses to closed questions in CF beliefs questionnaire

CLIL TEACHERS (N=11)	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
OCF	0	0	6	4	1
REFORMULATIONS	0	1	2	7	1
METALINGUISTIC PROMPTS	0	1	6	4	0
PROMPTS	0	2	3	5	1
PRONUNCIATION ERRORS	0	0	1	10	0
GRAMMAR ERRORS	0	0	3	7	1
VOCABULARY ERRORS	0	0	2	9	0
ALL ERRORS	2	1	5	3	0
PEER CF	0	2	3	5	1
LEARN FROM CF	0	4	2	5	0
CLIL TEACHERS CF	0	1	3	7	0
EFL TEACHERS ONLY CF	3	6	2	0	0

Table 34: EFL teachers' responses to closed questions in CF beliefs questionnaire

EFL TEACHERS (N=20)	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
OCF	0	1	8	11	0
REFORMULATIONS	0	2	5	10	3
METALINGUISTIC PROMPTS	0	3	5	10	2
PROMPTS	0	1	6	7	6
PRONUNCIATION ERRORS	0	0	3	13	4
GRAMMAR ERRORS	0	2	8	8	2
VOCABULARY ERRORS	0	1	4	12	2
ALL ERRORS	6	9	4	1	0
PEER CF	0	6	1	12	1
LEARN FROM CF	1	3	6	10	0
CLIL TEACHERS CF	0	3	4	10	3
EFL TEACHERS ONLY CF	4	11	2	1	2

RQ4

Table 35: Learners' responses to closed questions in CF beliefs questionnaire

LEARNERS **(N=51)**	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
OCF	0	0	2	29	20
REFORMULATIONS	0	0	5	38	8
METALINGUISTIC PROMPTS	0	2	4	25	20
PROMPTS	1	6	15	22	7
PRONUNCIATION ERRORS	0	1	6	35	9
GRAMMAR ERRORS	0	0	4	36	11
VOCABULARY ERRORS	0	0	3	35	13
ALL ERRORS	0	0	8	32	11
PEER CF	3	29	18	1	0
LEARN FROM CF	0	1	4	32	14
CLIL TEACHERS CF	0	2	3	29	17
EFL TEACHERS ONLY CF	13	21	12	4	1

TEST RESULTS

Table 36: Statistical tests and results

Question	TEST	GROUPS	CONDITIONS	p-value>0.05	≠?
TEACHER EFFECT 1	CHI	**CLIL1/CLIL2**	Correction (Yes-No) vs Year (1-2)	0.6121218	NO
TEACHER EFFECT 2	CHI	**EFL1/EFL2**	Correction (Yes-No) vs Year (1-2)	0.5833834	NO
TEACHER EFFECT 3	Fisher	**CLIL1/CLIL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) vs Year (1-2)	0.05938	NO
TEACHER EFFECT 4	Fisher	**EFL1/EFL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) vs Year (1-2)	0.5508	NO
TEACHER EFFECT 5	Fisher	**CLIL1/CLIL2**	Correction type (RF, PM) vs Year (1-2)	0.5234	NO
TEACHER EFFECT 6	Fisher	**EFL1/EFL2**	Correction type (RF, PM) vs Year (1-2)	0.2228	NO
ERRORS 1	CHI	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Error type (L1, G, P, L) vs classroom	7.840022^{-38}	YES
ERRORS 2	CHI	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Error type (G, P, L) vs classroom	0.3767	NO
RQ1.a 1	CHI	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Correction (Yes-No) vs classroom	$2.2x10^{-16}$	YES
RQ1.a 1	CHI	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Correction (Yes-No) vs classroom without L1 errors	$2.2x10^{-16}$	YES
RQ1.a 2	Fisher	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) vs classroom	0.000224	YES
RQ1.a 3	Fisher	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) vs classroom. WITHOUT L1 ERRORS	0.007344	YES
RQ1.a 4	CHI	**CLIL2/EFL2**	Correction type (RF, PM) vs classroom	0.8759	NO
RQ1.b 1	CHI	**EFL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) depending on Error type (L1, G, P, L)	0.0004612	YES
RQ1.b 2	CHI	**EFL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) depending on Error type (G, P, L)	0.00005321	YES

RQ1.b 3	CHI	**CLIL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) depending on Error type (L1, G, P, L)	0.0005269	YES
RQ1.b 4	Fisher	**CLIL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) depending on Error type (G, P, L)	0.0006821	YES
RQ1.b 5	Fisher	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) vs classroom. GRAMMAR ERRORS	0.00239	YES
RQ1.b 6	Fisher	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) vs classroom. LEXICAL ERRORS	0.07319	NO
RQ1.b 7	Fisher	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) vs classroom. PRONUNCIATION ERRORS	0.04724	YES
RQ1.b 8	Fisher	**EFL2 / CLIL2**	Correction type (RC, RP, CL, EL, ML, EC) vs classroom. L1 ERRORS	0.0322	YES
RQ2 1	CHI	**EFL2/CLIL2**	Uptake (Yes-No) vs Classroom	5.05^{-9}	YES
RQ2 2	CHI	**EFL2/CLIL2**	Uptake (Yes-No) vs Classroom. RECASTS	1.34^{-6}	YES
RQ2 3	-	**EFL2/CLIL2**	Uptake (Yes-No) vs Classroom. REPETITIONS	-	All 0
RQ2 4	Fisher	**EFL2/CLIL2**	Uptake (Yes-No) vs Classroom. CLARIFICATION REQUESTS	1	NO
RQ2 5	Fisher	**EFL2/CLIL2**	Uptake (Yes-No) vs Classroom. ELICITATIONS	1	NO
RQ2 6	Fisher	**EFL2/CLIL2**	Uptake (Yes-No) vs Classroom. METALINGUISTIC CUES	0.7779	NO
RQ2 7	Fisher	**EFL2/CLIL2**	Uptake (Yes-No) vs Classroom. EXPLICIT CORRECTION	0.0961	NO
RQ2 8	CHI	**EFL2/CLIL2**	Uptake (Yes-No) vs Classroom. REFORMULATIONS	2.407^{-9}	YES
RQ2 9	Fisher	**EFL2/CLIL2**	Uptake (Yes-No) vs Classroom. PROMPTS	1	NO
RQ2 10	CHI	**CLIL2/EFL2**	Uptake types (NU, NR, SR, PR) vs Classroom	8.54^{-9}	YES

RQ3 1	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	ALL ERRORS	0.0949	NO
RQ3 2	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	OCF	0.4269	NO
RQ3 3	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	REFORMULATIONS	0.5553	NO
RQ3 4	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	METALINGUISTIC PROMPTS	0.1447	NO
RQ3 5	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	PROMPTS	0.1827	NO
RQ3 6	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	PRONUCIATION ERRORS	0.6695	NO
RQ3 7	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	GRAMMAR ERRORS	0.2608	NO
RQ3 8	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	VOCABULARY ERRORS	0.9838	NO
RQ3 9	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	PEER CF	0.855	NO
RQ3 10	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	LEARN FROM OCF	0.9191	NO
RQ3 11	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	CLIL TEACHERS CF	0.5553	NO
RQ3 12	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	EFL TEACHERS ONLY CF	0.9191	NO

RQ4 1	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	ALL ERRORS	4.729^{-11}	YES
RQ4 2	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	OCF	3.82^{-4}	YES
RQ4 3	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	REFORMULATIONS	0.02853	YES
RQ4 4	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	METALINGUISTIC PROMPTS	0.0002149	YES
RQ4 5	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	PROMPTS	0.3294	NO
RQ4 6	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	PRONUNCIATION ERRORS	0.9314	NO
RQ4 7	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	GRAMMAR ERRORS	0.008544	YES
RQ4 8	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	VOCABULARY ERRORS	0.06778	NO
RQ4 9	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	PEER CF	6.09^{-3}	YES
RQ4 10	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	LEARN FROM OCF	7.98^{-3}	YES
RQ4 11	U-Mann	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS**	CLIL TEACHERS CF	0.003327	YES

	Whitney	**AND LEARNERS**			
RQ4 12	U-Mann Whitney	**CLIL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS**	EFL TEACHERS ONLY CF	0.9466	NO

6. MULTIPLE FEEDBACK MOVES

Class/Lesson	Feedback type	Examples	Comments
2EFL1	RC+ML=EC	*STU: (…) miraculously [mɪˈrækʊlʊʊsli][*P]… *TEA: shh miraculously[mɪˈrækjʊləsli] (emphasis) remember intonation miraculously [mɪˈrækjʊləsli] [ECP]! *STU: miraculously [mɪˈrækjʊləsli][SREC] there haven´t been any victims.	
2EFL1	RC+ML=EC	*STU: (…) there haven´t been [*G] any victims. *TEA: there weren't any victims you are talking about the past right there weren't any victims there weren't [ECG] any what other word do you have for victim? *STU: but was today [NREC]! *TEA: yes but the the tense that you have is past were involved it is not there has been an accident and then you can use the present uhm the past [MLG] another word for victims [NUML]?	Then, topic continuation
2EFL2	ML+RC=EC (after [NUEL])	*STU: eh (reads) xxx I'm very easy [*G] distracted. *TEA: and the second one then no no the second one then read it read it one B [ELG]? *STU: (reads) xxxI need to take it easily [*G] [NUEL]. *TEA: in fact it is the other way around because when I say take it take it easy [ECG] haven't you heard it take it easy what do I mean? *STU: relax [NUEC]. *TEA: relax and that is an expression that is an idiom so it means to take things easy it's the same so the second one one B is takes take things easy [ECG] [NUEC] so the first one Julen was [ELG]? *STU: I'm very easily [SREL] distracted.	Correcting exercises. Topic continuation and no option for uptake in the first case but clear option for uptake and repair in the second case.
2EFL2	ML+RC= EC	*STU: here generally speaking xxx (reads) at least or of course [*G] as well? *TEA: no because you are limiting actually at least so are giving you are making a general statement but then you are limiting it to your	The learner corrects the mistake on the paper.

		own opinion so I would say at least [ECG] (learner corrects on the paper) [SREC].	
2EFL6	RC+EL= EC	*STU: (reads) [NURC] a wall was built around the town for defense but during the long period of peace which followed the Norman Conquest ['kɒŋkest][*P]… *TEA: con con [ELP] [NUEL] quest conquest ['kɒŋkwest] can you repeat Pello [ECP]? *STU: conquest ['kɒŋkwest] [SREC] (reads) people built outside the walls (…).	
2EFL6	ML+EL=EL	*STU: (reads) the Bank [RRC] of England nearby is the Stock Exchange which is a busy market except that her not food but shares in commercial companies are bought and sold a little further ['f ʌ ðə] [*P] along… *TEA: not further ['f ʌ ðə] a little [ELP]? *STU: eh [NREL]… *TEA: do you remember further ['fɜ:ðə] [RCP]. *STU: further['fɜ:ðə][SRRC] along in Leadenhall street is Lloyds…	
2EFL6	ML+EC=EC	*STU: suits [swi:ts][*P] and… *TEA: not sweets sweet is something that you eat and is full of sugar suits [su:ts] yes [ECP]? *STU: [NUEC] (reads) and rolled umbrellas.	In spite of using three types of CF (EC, RC, ML) for the error, the learner doesn't acknowledge the correction.
2EFL7	ML+EL=EL	*STU: because it is an endurance race you have to take it in a calm way [*L] to have endurance enough to finish race. *TEA: hum hum unit nine no eight how do you say it in English when you have to take things in a calm way you take it [ELL]? *STU: easy [SREL].	
2EFL8	ML+EL=EL	*STU: (reads) something you did give [*G] an enormous sense of achievement. *TEA: the verb is ok David but not the tense something you did it's past so you cannot say give [MLG] which… *STU: xxx I don't know [NRML]. *TEA: if the sentence is in the past you will need a verb in the past so [ELG]? *STU: gave [SREL].	
2EFL8	ML+EL=EL	*STU: (reads) xxx you standed [*G]… *TEA: what is the past tense of stand [ELG]? *STU: stood [SREL].	
2EFL10	The first move ML+EL=EL	*STU: (reads) the next European elections due [*G] to be in few months' time. *TEA: look we have got due here (signals board) be due to infinitive what can we omit be or due or to how do you know that you can	In the end, the teacher elicits Peer Repair

		omit something if you see it here because you have got brackets right so what can you omit of the three elements be due or to [ELG]? *STU: due [NREL]. *TEA: due and what you have done is omitting to or omitting be actually so can you omit be can you omit? *STU: no. *TEA: no what can you omit? *STU: due. *TEA: so repeat again [ELG]. *STU: the next European elections… *TEA: election. *STU: election xxx. *TEA: you have got expect is and due. *STU: expect to be [NREL] [*G]. *TEA: any ideas [ELG]? *STU: is [PeEL].	
2EFL10	EC+ML=EC	*STU: *GPS* [*L1]. *TEA: GPS you have no GPS you have no mobile phone remember this is an English lesson Leire [ECL1] I don't know Xabi can you read number six [NUEC].	No option for uptake. Topic continuation
2EFL12	ML+EL=EL	*STU: (reads) our holiday plans have been fallen [*G] through they can't xxx achieve xxx. *TEA: why do you say have been fallen through why passive I agree with the choice of the tense of the of the verb but can you say have fallen [ELG]? *STU: yes [NREL].	
2CLIL7	ML+EL=EL	*STU: (reads) the clients owe to this company eh letters to be charged [*L]… *TEA: eh eh the clients owe to this company three thousand euros you don't know more OK if you read the clients owe three thousand euros you don't have information about letters so it will be [ELL]? *STU: realizable [SREL].	Content error.

7. COMMENTS TO THE OPEN QUESTION IN QUESTIONNAIRE

LEARNERS

"Teachers should improve the ability of the learner to correct his or her own mistakes. As long as the learner is able to do that" (Karla P., 1st year learner).

"I think the lessons should be more active, the learners shouldn't be just listening to the teacher and taking notes. When I was studying in America I realized that the best way to learn English is speaking all the time, not doing grammar. In the end, we have to improve our capacity to talk English naturally" (Iñigo A., 1st year learner).

EFL TEACHERS

"I feel teaching grammar is often a matter of reflecting on the language itself to conclude by ourselves. This way we are able to remember facts and structures better. Error correction is important to achieve accuracy but I also feel that as long as communication happens some mistakes could be allowed" (Karmele P., 1st year EFL teacher).

"I do not feel entirely satisfied with some of my answers, especially 6-13. Although I basically agree that we should give some treatment to errors and their correction, I think we should favour fluency over accuracy. In any case, treatment of errors should take place afterwards rather than during the speech" (Esteban B., EFL teacher).

"Learning a language is a question of time, basically. Having the opportunity to use and practice the language in real-life situations certainly helps to increase the learners' communicative ability. Undoubtedly, teaching other subjects in English will expose learners to the language for more hours and will turn the language into a real communication language within the classroom. If we want communication to be something real, that is, if we want to convey an idea and make sure we are understood,

we should not rely on the reader's or listener's ability to understand what we are not really saying because of our mistakes. Therefore, mistake correction is essential to the process of learning how to communicate or convey messages" (Javier G., EFL teacher).

"Peer correction seems to be the most effective" (Mirian A., EFL teacher).

"Errors should be corrected according to the learner's level. I think it could be counterproductive to correct every single error a learner makes. It's difficult to learn when you receive too much information. Teachers should correct those mistakes which learners shouldn't be making because they already know their correction. I feel item 19 (help learners obtain the correct form for their written errors) is very interesting but we don't always have time to carry it out in large classes. As for grammar, I find it a good tool to improve learner's skills, but practising a second language in real-life situations is the most valuable tool teachers can have" (Paz S., EFL teacher).

"It's not a black or white answer. Grammar is important to scaffold the language; you need a basic grammar to organize your ideas. Vocabulary is really important and necessary but in adults or teenagers is much easier when they have something they can start building up from, and grammar is the skeleton of a language. Practicing a real-life situation is really useful but it doesn't mean you are against grammar. You can do both. In fact, I do it in my classes.

In my opinion, when learners are speaking, correcting mistakes is important but not interrupting the conversation. You can correct them in many ways, for example paraphrasing their sentences or showing the most important ones at the end of their presentation. We have to encourage learners to speak and fluency is important but accuracy is also important. If they make the same mistakes once and again they won't improve.

If it is a written essay sometimes underlining the mistake can be enough but on other occasions it can be necessary to correct them or give them a better way. According to the level of the learners some mistakes can be allowed but if there are too many mistakes you can correct and explain them and ask the learners to rewrite the essay again.

Pronunciation is also important to be corrected. If the phonic is not practiced or corrected showing the real pronunciation, the learner won't be able to learn it. Correcting mistakes in a nice atmosphere and encouraging learners to improve themselves is really useful and motivating because they become aware of the real pronunciation and try to do it well (I'm thinking of /h/ or /dz/ sounds for example). Our language has only got 24 sounds and English 44, so learners should be taught and corrected to get the better pronunciation but as I told you before in a nice atmosphere and cheering them up." (Esther V., EFL teacher).

"We have realized that error correction is not as effective as the teacher expects. Sometimes learners go on making the same mistakes even if they have been corrected many times, so there should be new ways for learners to improve their written and oral skills" (Genoveva U., EFL teacher).

"I have nothing against teaching/learning grammar directly – it helps to structure learners' knowledge. However, nowadays learners are not used to be learning grammar a lot, so an attractive kind of exercises are needed in order to attract their attention, as, for example, internet or ICT mediated/supported grammar exercises.

I think that the correct pronunciation should be more insisted on in our schools, as oral communicative skills are often left out of the curriculum, because teachers struggle to prepare the learners for the A levels, where oral production is, unfortunately, nonexistent" (Marta K., EFL teacher).

"Sometimes I found it difficult to choose just one option, as there are reasons for different circumstances: types of learners, interest in the language, time, age, etc." (Alicia M., CLIL teacher).

"As a teacher of different subjects in English, I consider that the most important thing should be to create a real environment to be able to express ideas, feelings...in English without any type of restrictions, limits...having a real communication in English should be the objective. But at the same time, I think that it is quite difficult to achieve it because of the time that we have and the different external obligations that at our level we have to fulfill" (Iñaki V., 2nd year CLIL teacher).

"I would like to point out that to properly understand my answers you should take into account that I teach Mathematics through English. This means that I cannot use much time to correct language mistakes, although that does not necessarily mean that in my opinion correcting mistakes is not good for learners" (Ana V., CLIL teacher).

"In my view (not being an English teacher) corrections should be made in a natural way, trying to help learners and making them feel comfortable with the language. For them is a challenge to study in a foreign language, so we should try to correct them, of course, but avoiding that they can feel discouraged of intervene, question or present their opinions. What is more, when they feel uncomfortable about something they want to ask I prefer them to use their own mother tongue, even when I give them the explanations in English" (Maite F., CLIL teacher).

"I think that having a good grammatical base is useful for a learner and his/her future abilities in communication; but according to experience, it is easier for learners to speak using common patterns in context in a natural way despite not knowing or understanding

the grammatical rule. Obviously, when trying to obtain a degree, having grammatical rules perfectly fixed is very important.

About making mistakes, I consider that a teacher should always correct them, but giving the learners the opportunity to spot the errors and self-correct them in written. When speaking, it is sometimes better not to correct every mistake or his/her pronunciation while the learner is still speaking because it could interrupt him/her continuously and limit the spontaneous speech, it can sound uncomfortable. I prefer to comment and correct the mistakes once he/she has finished (even with the help of other learners) and make that learner repeat the same expressions or sentences without mistakes" (Mª Jesús A., CLIL teacher).

"If the learner is doing a long oral explanation of a topic and he/she makes some mistakes, it is better to take notes of them and do the correction when he/she finishes. The reason is that in this kind of exercises the focus of the activity is fluency rather than grammar" (Asier J., CLIL teacher).

CD: CFEs in 1st and 2nd year CLIL and EFL

The CD included in the back cover contains the CFEs found in the analysis of the data from the recorded lessons in 1st year CLIL and EFL (file 1) and 2nd year CLIL and EFL (file 2).