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List of abbreviations

CF	Corrective Feedback
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
UG	Universal Grammar

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1. Introduction

Errors occur whenever a language is acquired: they occur in first language acquisition and in second language acquisition. The correction of the errors is part of the class – teachers feel it is their task and students want to be corrected – since it is anchored in the seemingly-fixed discourse structure. The perception of errors and their correction, however, have undergone changes over time. The reputation of error correction has gone from being a positive one under Behaviourism, for example (errors should be eradicated) to a negative one in the Innatist view.

This work focuses on examining applied corrective feedback (CF) strategies in an EFL class (language focus only) and in a CLIL class (language AND content focus). The study should provide useful insights into which errors are corrected in EFL and in CLIL classes and should compare the feedback strategies applied in the two contexts. Contrasting the corrective behaviour findings for CLIL classes with the results for EFL classes should foster understanding of common practices among teachers. The results were expected to vary, as the *foci* of the two above-mentioned contexts differ. The study was carried out in Upper Austria and the evaluation of the data is based on transcripts of classroom recordings. The following research questions will be answered:

1. What types of linguistic errors are corrected during oral communication in EFL and in CLIL?
2. What type of oral corrective feedback is used to correct the errors in EFL and in CLIL?

The first part of this work focuses on theoretical considerations and the second part contains a discussion of the empirical study that was conducted. In this first part, Section 2 introduces and defines important terms, Section 3 presents language learning theories in the context of CF and errors and Section 4 presents a consideration of crucial questions connected to error correction. Subsequently, Section 5 discusses recommendations for error correction. Section 6 explores the thoughts of the participants involved in error correction – teachers and students. Section 7 then provides an overview of existing research on CF and considers the two contexts of EFL and CLIL.

The second part starts with Section 8, which introduces the empirical study, including the research aim, method and CF taxonomies. Section 9 outlines the findings and these are discussed in Section 10, which also addresses the answers to research questions 1 and 2, evaluates the results and discusses them in the context of other studies in this same field. The last section, Section 11, explores the possible outlook for the future and discusses main findings of this work.

2. Important terms and concepts

2.1 Error and corrective feedback (CF)

There is no broad consensus in the literature on the definition of the term “errors”. This work uses Chaudron’s definition (1986), which is that errors are: “(1) linguistic forms or content that differ from native speaker norms or facts, and (2) any other behavior which is indicated by the teacher as needing improvement”.

Although some authors make a distinction between the terms “error” and “mistake” (Corder 1967), I use the terms interchangeably, since in a classroom situation, it is often impossible to distinguish between the two. Regarding the terms “error correction” and “feedback”, Larsen-Freeman (2003: 123) argues that the latter is wider in terms of scope, therefore, although the terms “error correction” and “feedback” are used interchangeably, in this paper, the term “corrective feedback” will be the one used most frequently.

One of the earliest attempts to define oral CF was made by Chaudron (1977: 39) who states: “any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance”. A similar, more recent approach which seems to be commonly accepted is Sheen’s (2011:1) approach. She refers to CF as the “teacher reactive move” with the aim of drawing the student’s attention to the “grammatical accuracy” in their oral communication or their written communication. In the same vein, Li (2014: 196) considers corrective feedback as “teacher and peer responses to learners’ erroneous second language (L2) production”.

One can also distinguish between direct and indirect feedback. Direct feedback involves explicit statements such as: “That is the wrong word”. Indirect feedback, for instance, could be a clarification request as in “You can’t do *what?*” – indicating that the verb used was incorrect (Saville-Troike 2006: 110). The difference between the two feedback forms

is that students realise that direct feedback is feedback more easily than they might do with indirect feedback, which might be mistaken for questions due to acoustical misunderstandings or content questions.

Another distinction can be made as well: CF can be divided into “focused” and “unfocused” feedback (Sheen 2011: 8). Whereas “focused” CF is feedback limited to only one or to a minor sample of errors, “unfocused” CF addresses a wide array of flaws (Sheen 2011: 8). Sheen uses the words “intensive” to describe the concept of focused CF and “extensive” to describe unfocused CF (Sheen 2011: 8). Most studies on oral CF have focused on “focused” and “intensive” CF (Sheen 2011: 8).

2.2 Oral and written feedback

Although this work focuses on oral CF, an introduction to the theme of CF needs to explain the distinction between oral and written feedback. Although the two forms have some similarities, such as that the feedback in both forms can be provided by the teacher or by self- or peer-correction, there are numerous differences between the two forms. Written CF is characteristically delayed, whereas oral feedback can be immediate or delayed – for example, the feedback could be provided instantly or at the beginning of the next lesson (Pawlak 2014: 97). Immediate feedback can be a good way to correct, but one has to consider that the students are focused on producing speech, thus do not always have the capacity to take in the feedback immediately. An alternative here is delayed feedback. A distinctive feature in the case of oral CF is that the feedback is usually given in front of the class and in written CF it is (more) personal feedback, since students usually write the texts when they are alone. A major advantage of written feedback is that students know that the CF is intended to correct an error or a vague structure, for instance (Pawlak 2014: 97). With oral feedback, the corrective intention might not always be evident (some CF types, such as recasts, are less intrusive, and they might be mistaken as a confirmation of the student’s declaration). Although there are explicit and implicit forms of oral CF, in written feedback, only explicit feedback exists, as the correction is obvious (Pawlak 2014: 97). It might be useful to combine the two forms (oral and written feedback) (Pawlak 2014: 101). This depends on the context: for example, methodological situation (presentation, group discussion etc.), linguistic feature being corrected, how often this specific error occurs, and if it should be corrected implicitly or explicitly.

2.3 Uptake

Corrective feedback includes a set of moves, the “CF episodes”, that can also entail uptake (Li 2014: 196). “Uptake” is a term used to describe the reaction of the learners to the feedback they receive (Li 2014: 196) (“uptake” can also be non-existent). Lyster and Ranta use the following explanation for the term “uptake”: “a student utterance that immediately follows the teacher’s feedback with the intention of drawing attention to some aspect of the student’s initial utterance” (1997: 49). The constituents of CF episodes are “a trigger, the feedback move, and (optionally) uptake [...]” (Ellis 2009: 4). The same page Ellis (2009: 4) presents an example from Ellis and Sheen (2006), which shows a complex CF episode (there are also simple CF episodes), as can be seen by the multiple corrective moves below:

Example 1

- S1: What do you spend with your wife?
T: What?
S1: What do you spend your extra time with your wife?
T: Ah, *how* do you spend?
S2: How do you spend

In Example 1, we can see that the teacher has to correct the student twice in a row before he or she can pose the question correctly. First, the teacher asks for clarification, and subsequently provides the correct form.

In general, there are two possibilities for uptake: after receiving feedback, the student might react by repairing, meaning that the student replies using the corrected phrase (Sheen 2011: 7). This is the case in Example 2 (Sheen 2011: 7). The other scenario is uptake without repair, which Lyster and Ranta (1997: 49) refer to as “needs repair” (see Example 3). Students might completely ignore the CF move and continue with what they were saying, or merely confirm the feedback they have received (Sheen 2011: 7).

Example 2 (uptake plus repair)

- S: There was the crow who stole ...
T: There was *a* crow who stole a piece of cheese.
S: There was a crow.

Example 3 (uptake without repair)

S: His mom saw it and yelled at him.

T: His mom saw what?

S: saw snake home.

T: saw the snake.

S: yes.

In Example 2, the student repeats parts of the corrected sentence, whereas in Example 3, the student confirms the CF with a “yes”, without repeating it. This could mean that the student has not processed the meaning of the corrective move.

Now that important terms have been introduced and the term “uptake” was discussed, the focus will shift to language learning theories and how they view errors.

3. Language learning theories and the perception of errors

The question of how languages are learned has triggered different answers over the course of time, and different answers have led to different language learning theories being dominant or most popular at different times. This section briefly discusses the language learning theories, with a focus on how errors have been perceived over time. Although there are also language learning theories on first language acquisition, while I acknowledge the difference between the two forms, the main focus here will be on second language acquisition. The terms “children” and “students” will be used.

Errors are a natural part of language learning. This is true of the development of a child’s first language as well as of second language learning by children and adults. Errors reflect the patterns of learners’ developing interlanguage systems – showing where they have overgeneralized a second language rule or where they have inappropriately transferred a first language pattern to the second language.

(Lightbown & Spada 2006: 190).

This quote by Lightbown and Spada indicates the current view on errors – a positive approach, although this was clearly not always so in the past. The next sub-section will explore changes in the perception of errors in language learning in the last few decades.

As the introductory quote indicates, errors occur naturally in language acquisition. An error can be triggered by overgeneralization of a rule of the new language system (using a rule in the wrong context) or for instance when the first language interferes with the second language. In general, errors are now also seen as a sign of progress in language learning and the complex processes that are happening in a person’s mind when acquiring

a language. However, learners' speech was seen as an "incorrect version of the target language" until around the 1960s.

3.1 Behaviourism

In the 1940s and 1950s, Behaviourism had a great impact, particularly in the United States (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 10). The main focus of this psychological theory with regard to language learning is that children imitate language and get what is called "positive reinforcement" (a person praising them or successful communication) (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 10). The theory was that after some time, children would establish correct language habits. The positive reinforcement from the environment and the input the children receive from it was seen as crucial. (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 10) The S-R-R Stimuli is characteristic of this approach: "stimuli" (environment) resulting to "responses" (by the child) and "reinforcement" (achieving what it wanted or the desired requested reaction of other people, etc.). These pairings are practised and can form habits (Saville-Troike 2006: 25). Behaviourist theories see errors as something to be avoided and eliminated in order not to foster fossilization (Pawlak 2014: 10). There is an argument in favour of external feedback – both negative and positive feedback.

3.2 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) sees errors as having their roots in the first language. It has been indicated, however, that students often do not make errors because they are trying to transfer structures from their first language, but rather because their awareness of the target languages structure is still evolving (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 79). In other words, CAH compares L1 and L2 and wants to explain students' errors (Saville-Troike 2006: 34). In the 1970s another approach called "error analysis" (EA) emerged. The motivation behind EA was to find out what knowledge the students actually have about the target language (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 79). This evolved from CAH, as CAH could not provide an explanation for quite a number of features of learners' language. (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 79). Proponents of EA took the view that the students were not making the errors that they should have been making according to the CAH (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 34). Behaviourism and the CAH were gradually losing advocates.

3.3 Error Analysis

The difference between the two approaches is that CAH aims more at predicting errors and EA aims to detect and explain different types of errors. As Saville-Troike (2006: 37) puts it, “Error Analysis (EA) is the first approach to the study of SLA which includes an internal focus on learners’ creative ability to construct language.” The EA view of errors was that they were not negative and needed to be eliminated, but rather, an indication of the learning process (Saville-Troike 2006: 38). Being part of the learning process, errors are viewed as being crucial and indicate that students are using the new system (Saville-Troike 2006: 39). The knowledge of the target language that the students expand throughout their learning is called “interlanguage” (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 80). This term was used in the introductory quote to this section and was coined by Selinker (1972). Interlanguages are said to be both systematic and dynamic – since students adapt their hypotheses on the second language according to the increased input they get over time (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 80).

3.4 Innatist perspective

Behaviourist theories began to be criticised and the nativist theory (including Universal Grammar (UG)) began to develop. The nativist theory highlighted the importance of positive evidence, since the inner process could be unleashed – providing error correction was not seen as beneficial. The innatist perspective postulates that all a child’s requirements are in its mind, meaning that it does not require teaching in order to acquire a language (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 15). Chomsky, a popular advocate of this approach, suggested that all languages are innate and that there is one “universal principle” behind them, the UG, which supports the child, enabling it to reject incorrect hypotheses on how language systems function (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 15). Criticising the behaviourists, Chomsky says that the environment only forms the basis, meaning that there have to be people who speak to the child, but the main factor is the ability to acquire languages, which is biologically programmed. Another criticism of Behaviourism is that children learn more about the structure of language (to differentiate between the grammaticality (or otherwise) of a sentence) than they could possibly learn from the language they hear in their environment. (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 15)

3.5 Interactionist/developmental perspective

The innatist perspective was criticised by cognitive psychologists and developmental psychologists, who held that developmental stages were important, and not only the final state. The focus of the interactionist/developmental approach is on the interaction of the environment and the innateness of language ability. (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 19)

3.6 Connected methods

In the light of the different language learning theories, a number of teaching methods will be analysed according to their view on errors and how to handle them.

In the past decades, there has been more focus on interaction in second language acquisition (Safari 2013: 1165). In the 1960s and 1970s, attention was centered on grammar, implying that the production of correct sentences was crucial and errors were something bad. The main tasks were translation tasks, which will be evident from the subsequent methodological perspectives (Soumela 1999: 90). The shift that took place in the 1980s led away from grammar-driven teaching to the introduction of the communicative competence (Soumela 1999: 90). Instead of focusing on grammar, the development of skills, especially communication skills, began to play a crucial role in teaching and learning in the context of communicative competence (Soumela 1999: 91). How the view on errors has changed has already been explored, but now, the question is how these changes were evident in the different methodological developments. The perception of errors in general and how they are dealt with is related to the underlying methodological perspectives, as they mirror the positions in language pedagogy as well as the influence of new theoretical considerations (Pawlak 2014: 9). Therefore, error perception should not be seen in isolation, but within the context of the language learning theory it is based on.

3.6.1 Grammar-Translation Method

This section will exemplify how the perception of errors has changed over time by discussing different methods that have been popular in their time. The methods should demonstrate clearly the characteristic views on errors. For the Grammar-Translation Method, correct answers are crucial, and if students make mistakes, the teacher provides the correct answer. (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011: 19) Two aspects are very

important in this method: translating texts and reading literature in the target language (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011: 17). The idea is that by studying the grammar of the target language, students will get to know their native language better – meaning that learning a new language enhances the native language as well (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011: 11). This method values correct responses and error correction, for which the teacher takes responsibility.

3.6.2 Direct Method

The Direct Method is a method that encourages communication in the target language and postulates that students should “associate meaning with the target language directly” (vocabulary is introduced by using pictures, pantomime, etc.) – instead of having a translation into the native language. It uses a different CF, favouring self-correction, which is fostered by the teacher. (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011: 28-30).

3.6.3 Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method was actively used until the 1980s (Saville-Troike 2006: 25). This method focuses on repetition and habit formation (Saville-Troike 2006: 25). For this method, errors have a negative connotation and should be avoided. Basically – to put everything into perspective – the view of error correction twice changed dramatically and CF (in certain forms and in specific circumstances) is now perceived as beneficial to second language acquisition. In traditional language teaching, (Grammar-Translation Method) error correction was crucial, which was also true for the Direct Method, albeit with a focus on self-correction. The Audiolingual Method, which was based on the behaviourist positions, sees immediate CF as crucial (Pawlak 2014: 11). Current positions on language learning – communicative language teaching, task-based teaching and learning, content-based second language instruction – agree with providing CF (at least the use of some types of feedback in specific contexts) (Pawlak 2014: 12). Having discussed methodological perspectives and their relation to error correction, the next sub-section will focus on important models in language learning theory.

3.7 Important models

Basically, the focus has changed from an internal focus (stressing innate language knowledge) in the study of SLA to an external focus (highlighting language use) (Pawlak

2014: 25). The focus on forms approach, which postulated the explicit learning of linguistic features and the use of error correction, prevailed until the 1970s (Pawlak 2014: 9). Criticism of formal instruction was beginning to be heard, and one form it took is Krashen's (1981, 1982) Monitor Model. The next step was the perception that there should be only a minimum of error correction, or none at all: meaning-focus and authentic interaction were priorities of language instruction under the so-called "zero grammar option" (Pawlak 2014: 9). Research findings from several studies (e.g. Ellis 2001) showed the ineffectiveness of the meaning-focus-only approach, so the reputation of form-focus again became more positive.

3.7.1 Krashen's (1981, 1982) Monitor Model

Krashen's (1981, 1982) Monitor Model stresses the dominance of subconscious acquisition and not of conscious learning and it entails five hypotheses. A crucial theory of language acquisition is the Comprehensible Input Theory, also developed by Krashen (1985). Krashen (1985) suggests that acquisition is possible by providing input that is a little above the learner's actual competence. The learner should be able to process the meaning, though (Krashen 1985). As Krashen (1985) proposes, this happens by the student applying strategies for inferring meaning from context and world knowledge, as well as using his or her actual language skills. Two aspects that foster processing of meaning for the learner are "simplified input" and strategies for inferring meaning from the context. However, Krashen's theory was not received entirely positively (Safari 2013: 1165): Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), for instance, criticise among other aspects that parts of the theory cannot be refuted. Moreover, critics reported that Krashen's input approach could not be considered a holistic way of addressing language learning, because, they maintained, meaningful input alone did not lead to progress in every area of language acquisition (Safari 2013: 1166). To put it another way, even years of exposure to meaningful input did not prove effective for each aspect of language learning (Safari 2013: 1166).

Krashen's view on error correction can be said to be not very positive. Indeed, he says (2003) that CF might facilitate learning, but only to a minor degree, as it does not reveal its impact on the fostering of implicit knowledge and stresses negative effects such as anxiety.

3.7.2 Long's (1983) Interaction Hypothesis

Related to this context is Long's (1983) Interaction Hypothesis, which focuses on grammatical features within communicative tasks (Swain 1985). As Schmidt and Frota called it (1986), "noticing the gap" occurs, where students notice that there are distinct differences between their interlanguage and the target language. This in turn fosters learning (Safari 2013: 1166). While it is not clear whether "noticing the gap" happens due to formal instruction (Lightbown 2000), studies showed that students receiving formal instruction had better skills compared to students being taught with a meaning focus.

According to Long, an additional factor which is crucial for language acquisition is interaction, as can be seen from the following passage (Long 1991):

[...] the input which is shaped via interaction contributed strongly and directly to the acquisition and that in order to make input comprehensible, modifications and adjustments are needed for the interactional structure of conversation.

Input interaction is also vital, as some language skills might not fully develop otherwise (Long 1991). By now, general agreement seems to have been established on learners having to actually use the target language to achieve fluency and accuracy in it (Safari 2013: 1166). Long's Interaction Hypothesis was revised and now focuses more on the role of CF in interaction (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 44). Long can be seen as being in favour of error correction – more precisely, in favour of the benefits of error correction restricted to communication-based activities (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 54).

3.7.3 Swain's (1985, 1995) Comprehensible Output Hypothesis

Swain (1985, 1995) developed the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis as a reaction to the Comprehensible Input Theory, developing it into the Output Hypothesis which is in favour of the productive use of the target language and considers it necessary for increasing language skills (Soumela 1999: 19). As might be inferred from the name of the hypothesis, the focus is clearly on comprehensible output, and additionally on pushing learners to ensure they produce enough language output (Swain 1995: 195). The aim is also to develop the ability to communicate fluently and accurately. Output was recognised as playing a substantial role in acquiring a second language, mainly by looking at the findings of the Canada immersion programs (Swain 1995). Swain's recommendation was that students did not have enough talking time in which to practice use of the target language (Swain 1995). Output might lead students away from a meaning level to

syntactic use (Swain 1995). Hence, language production might foster the improvement of syntax and morphology (Swain 1995). She also stated that while output required “complete grammatical processing”, understanding involved more open skills, such as understanding the meaning of an utterance as well as “strategic processing” (Swain 1995: 128).

Another concept that should be considered in the context of the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis is the so-called “pushed language use” (Swain 1995). Swain (1985, 1995) elucidates this term by adding that learners foster their language production skills when they are pushed to use the language, since learners can test new forms of language and also adapt certain linguistic structures. Also, the process involves them realising where their speaking weaknesses lie (Swain 1985). It can be seen as a chance to “test their hypotheses [...]” and to contrast them with the provided input, which will then lead to appropriate output in the end (Safari 2013: 1166). Swain’s (1985: 248-49, 1995) view includes CF as students have to notice gaps, which should be done in meaningful communication and pushed output should be resulting be precise and coherent and appropriate.

Having presented a number of language learning theories, Section 4 below will focuses on questions related to CF, such as whether, how, and when to correct.

4. Crucial questions related to CF: whether to provide it, and if so, when and how?

Teachers may feel the urge to correct and most of them acknowledge the need for correction, even though uncertainties exist. There seem to be no easy rule of thumb or rules set in stone concerning CF. In particular, there is puzzlement regarding what errors should be corrected and what CF strategies should be used (Lee 1997). The potential negative effects of CF on students, such as increased anxiety levels, are also an issue among teachers (Kleppin & Königs 1991, Schulz 2001). At the same time, no feedback at all could also apparently have a negative psychological impact: creating anxiety and affecting motivation, for instance (Ferris 2004).

The context in which the CF provided is either the classroom (where it is provided by teacher or students) or outside (provided by native or non-native speakers) (Sheen 2011:1). For in-class CF, the question arises of when teachers should correct errors, in

accuracy-based activities, in fluency-based activities, or both (Sheen 2011: 40). Opinions on this matter are divided, with some arguing for CF in all types of oral activities and others being against error correction in fluency-based activities, as students should not be interrupted in their communicative flow (Sheen 2011: 40). How to provide CF really appears to be a challenge for teachers, as confirmed by Hendrickson (Sheen 2011: 42). He suggests three different methods for dealing with this issue. First, this could be done by: “using error charts for building a hierarchy of error correction priorities based on the tactics that parents employed to help their children express their ideas” (Sheen 2011: 42). Secondly, errors that occur frequently in an activity could be discussed at the end of that same activity and thirdly, recordings could be made (Sheen 2011: 42).

According to some theorists, CF in oral communication should be immediate, regardless of what type of activity it is (fluency-based or accuracy-based) (Sheen 2011: 40). However, not all theorists agree with this statement, and suggest that the above-mentioned possibility of delayed feedback should be used (Sheen 2011: 40). This implies that students receive their feedback only at the end of an activity, in order to avoid constant disruption and distraction of students who are trying to communicate (Sheen 2011: 40). Usually, delayed CF is applied in fluency-based activities, as the focus is on fostering the ability to communicate and transfer meaning at an appropriate pace in the target language (Sheen 2011: 40). Strategies for delayed feedback may include discussing the errors afterwards by allowing the student to self-correct and only intervening as a teacher when the student needs support (Hedge 2000).

Corrective Feedback can be used not only for upholding successful communication but also to foster linguistic knowledge. In the same vein, Sheen (2011: 2) concludes that oral CF is connected to both negotiation of meaning and negotiation of form.

Looking at the question of which errors to correct, Hedge (2000: 289) defines two distinct concepts: systematic errors and mistakes. While the former are “evidence of a learner’s current stage of interlanguage [...] [that is connected with] incomplete or faulty knowledge of English”, the latter are triggered by an “inability to perform that knowledge in production [...] [due to aspects] like carelessness, tiredness, distractions [...]” (Hedge 2000: 289). Hedge (2000: 289) also puts forward the concept of global and local errors, which distinguishes between global errors, which restrict communication, and local errors, which do not. Some researchers (Li 2014: 198, Hendrickson 1980) point out that rather,

the distinction between “global” and “local errors” can help the teacher decide whether to intervene by providing CF or not. This seems to be a more acceptable suggestion in terms of feasibility, as evaluating students’ mistakes in oral communication according to the systematic error/mistake distinction would seem to be very difficult to manage from a teacher’s perspective. Lightbown and Spada (2006: 179) highlight the importance of providing feedback for persistent errors which might be undetected by the students, and errors that are made by most of the students in the class. Further proposals come from Hendrickson (1978), who favours correction of errors as follows: firstly, those that considerably affect communication; secondly, “errors that have highly stigmatizing effects on the listener or reader” and thirdly, errors that occur frequently. Hendrickson’s suggestions would seem to be a reasonable way of supporting the aim of language teaching to enable the students to successfully communicate.

In brief, teachers tend to have issues and uncertainties concerning CF in a classroom context (Sheen: 2011: 41). Using focused correction is one way of reacting to the dilemma of if and what errors should be corrected (Sheen: 2011: 41). More ways of addressing this theme are discussed in the subsequent section.

5. Recommendations regarding CF

One might see a reason for providing recommendations on CF behaviour: Sheen (2011: 42) refers to the common CF practice as “[t]eachers’ actual practice of CF is often characterized as lacking in consistency and precision”. Examples of inconsistencies that were examined are variations over time concerning the same error, and variations depending on what student committed an error (Sheen 2011: 42). Generally speaking, there seems to be a call for consistency in CF (Sheen 2011: 42). However, one might ask if recommendations are helpful for application in practice?

Recommendations on teaching in general are contested, since it is difficult to generalise research findings for different contexts, such as the setting, teaching style, individual learners’ habits or needs. Nevertheless, research findings should be used in practice, since research is not done for its own sake, but with the aim of improving knowledge and practices in a certain area. Keeping in mind that not every recommendation can be applied in every context (given varying circumstances, such as different school settings,

learner needs and other requirements), this sub-section will discuss ten recommendations on error correction by Ellis (2009: 14). Starting with learners' attitudes, Ellis suggests that it is vital that teachers familiarise themselves with the learners' views on CF and discuss goals with them (Ellis 2009: 14). Moreover, it should be made clear that CF will be provided during oral interaction; in other words, learners should be informed that CF will be provided (something which might be taken for granted with written texts). Empirical evidence has shown that CF is effective and that teachers should provide it to students when it comes to accuracy-based activities and fluency-based activities (Ellis 2009: 14). Nevertheless, observing students' anxiety levels is crucial for being able to vary feedback strategies to suit their needs and therefore ensure that anxiety does not hinder learning (Ellis 2009: 14). A certain degree of flexibility is required in order to conform to students' diverging "cognitive and affective needs" (Ellis 2009: 14). Thus, a wide array of feedback strategies should be used. One strategy to employ might be to first use implicit error correction, and only if the learner does not have the capacity to self-correct, to then provide explicit correction (Ellis 2009: 14). This means that teachers have to perceive the uptake and react appropriately (Ellis 2009: 14). According to Ellis (2009: 14), uptake time should be allowed, so that students have time to respond to the CF received. However, whether there is enough time in the lesson to wait for most of the students' uptake after CF is questionable.

Ellis (2009: 14) considers focused CF to have a higher impact than unfocused CF and suggests setting goals in the individual lessons on what linguistic areas to correct, in both fluency-based and accuracy-based activities. "Teachers should be prepared to correct a specific error on several occasions to enable the learner to achieve full self-regulation" (Ellis 2009: 14). What this implies is that the student should ideally receive feedback on recurring errors – which, again, might be a quite difficult task in a class of 30 students, for example. One way of using this CF technique is to select a few students in every lesson that take part in speaking activities and provide them with feedback afterwards. The recommendations are generally useful to reflect on one's own teaching behaviour and to choose several strategies to try out in practice for increasing the effectiveness of error correction. It would be not realistic to call for teachers to adopt all of the strategies recommended at once, as settings vary (as been mentioned before). Similarly, Sheen says that taking a critical stance towards "pedagogical prescriptions" is essential, since contexts vary (Sheen 2011: 50). In addition, it might be overwhelming for the teacher to

use this technique in every single lesson – as teaching involves a wide range of activities, aspects and considerations (e.g. spontaneous decisions of every kind), not only concerning error correction. However, even if teachers only apply and reflect on some of the recommendations given, this could lead to an improvement in CF. Teachers can decide what strategies work best for them and then keep to those. To say that recommendations are not applicable at all would mean preventing teachers from receiving information that might support them and their students in their learning process.

After analysing methodological advice to see if it could be appropriate for a specific context, teachers should test its “[...] efficacy in their own instructional contexts” (Sheen 2011: 50). According to Sheen, that research is needed in order to confirm or refute guidelines in pedagogy that are merely “[...] based on methodologists’ own experience [...]” (Sheen 2011: 51). However, she considers this “pedagogical advice” to be valuable (Sheen 2011: 51). We can agree that research is required, rather than merely relying on experiences. As CF is highly complex, it is not easy to establish practical guidelines for it (Sheen 2011: 50). If an error needs to be corrected, the type and the timing of oral CF have to be based on the individual students as well as the kind of “instructional activity” (Sheen 2011: 50).

Even though it appears that giving rules or recipes for teaching is generally avoided, since every situation should be handled differently, depending on the individuals involved – their proficiency level, psychological factors, etc. – the CF ‘guidelines’ presented above would seem to be useful, since they provide a basis for discussion and reflection which could pave the way for more critical thinking on the teachers’ part regarding their teaching philosophy and aims, towards a choice of feedback strategies in line with the teachers’ general teaching concepts (Ellis 2009: 15). Having talked about recommendations for error correction in class, the next sub-section will discuss participants’ attitudes to CF.

6. Participants and their attitudes to CF

6.1 Teachers’ attitudes

This section explores the attitudes of teachers and students towards CF and related themes such as correction-related anxiety. Studies by Basturkmen et al. (2004) and Lee (2009)

will be introduced. It is an interesting fact that teachers often agree in theory with certain recommendations that are supported by research, but in practice, they seem to deviate from them. Surprisingly, teachers' opinions and preferences do not necessarily correspond to their action in class (Sheen 2011: 49). Basturkmen et al. (2004) examined the oral CF strategies of ESL teachers in New Zealand and Lee (2009) focused on writing in secondary schools in Hong Kong (Sheen 2011: 49). The divergence can be seen in different aspects, and although writing is not the focus of this paper, Lee's study will be used for exemplification as well. The teachers' stated beliefs will be juxtaposed with their behaviour in practice (Sheen 2011: 49): For example, although "[t]eachers believe there is more to good writing than language form", in their feedback strategies, they seem to focus predominantly on form (Sheen 2011: 49). Another example is that teachers state that they think that receiving feedback should enable learners to find and repair errors themselves, but in practice the teachers take over these tasks (Sheen 2011: 49). In general, the tendency seems to be that teachers believe students should play an active role in error correction and in improving their writing and see positive aspects in process writing (Lee 2009). However, the stated recommendations that are part of the teachers' beliefs regarding how these improvements can be achieved do not seem to be applied in the classroom in practice (Sheen 2011: 49). And although the remarks above were originally directed more towards feedback on written texts, the concepts could partly be applied to oral CF as well.

The deviations of the teachers' actions from their own view of ideal practices may be rooted in conditions set by institutions and conditions during exams for instance, that force teachers to deviate from their personal beliefs (Sheen 2011: 49; Lee 2009). Moreover, there might be a lack of awareness on the teachers' part of this divergence. Thus, it is important for teachers to reflect on their own practices and also on which alternatives are available (Sheen 2011: 49).

6.2 Students' affective response to feedback

Having talked about the teachers' attitudes to CF in the previous sub-section, we now move on to the feelings of learners towards CF. One might ask what view the students have of their oral errors being corrected by the teacher. The question is whether they have a broadly positive opinion on it (e.g., because they see the necessity of it and think it is useful for enhancing their language proficiency) or whether they have a negative view of

it, perhaps connected to the feeling of intrusion – or even anxiety – when they are attempting to express themselves. In two studies, Schulz (2001) showed that the students' opinion of CF was more positive than the teachers': nearly all the students participating in the study wanted to receive error correction and felt that a formal study of language was essential. Examination of the teachers' opinion of the same topic delivered a clearly different picture: only a small proportion of the teachers viewed providing CF as desirable and only half the teachers agreed with the students' view of formal study as a requirement.

Keeping in mind that students differ widely in terms of their preferences, personality and aptitude, the feeling of anxiety when it comes to receiving oral feedback also has to be considered here. The opinion is widespread that CF might trigger anxiety, which might then inhibit speaking and learning (Sheen 2011: 42). Anxiety can be different from student to student and is largely determined by specific situations. Some students might get anxious when they have to talk in the target language in front of the class – but enjoy group discussions, for instance (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 61). Also, not all feelings connected or similar to anxiety are necessarily negative. Tension can be helpful, for instance: tension before a test might increase motivation and performance (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 62). Introducing the terms “cognitive” and “affective” feedback, Vigil and Oller (1976) claim that although CF on the cognitive side may be helpful for comprehending one's own errors, it might lead to students developing “sensitive affective filters”. Likewise, Hedge (2000) draws attention to the role of the affective filter by referring to Krashen (1985). Affective factors, such as “attitude, anxiety, competitiveness, and other emotional responses [...]”, may foster or inhibit learning (Hedge 2000: 21). In the case of inhibiting learning, this filter is described as “a sliding barrier” that impedes “processing of input” due to negative factors (Hedge 2000: 21). Students who have strong negative feelings connected to the subject are said to have a “high affective filter” (Hedge 2000: 21). Students' negative responses to feedback are worthwhile noticing and discussing, since this aspect seems to have an impact on learning processes.

As teachers have long suspected, learners experience the strongest fear in negative situations connected to speaking activities (MacIntyre and Gardner 1991). The following quote shows MacIntyre and Gardner's (1991) argument in favour of feedback – both positive and negative – and stresses the importance of the teacher's role when it comes to reducing anxiety and promoting positive attitudes:

[...] teachers have both the power and the responsibility to counter the development of anxiety by building self-confidence through positive early experiences, through providing reassuring feedback, and through promoting self-perception of developing proficiency.

In other words, they believe that the role of the teacher is to provide positive learning situations for the students, ones that entail feedback strategies and raise the students' awareness of their own progress (which can be done through self-reflection activities, for instance). Corrective feedback plays a crucial role for students' attitude to learning and teachers are required to consider this as well as adjust their CF behaviour to the students' needs. Reducing students' anxiety regarding making errors (which might be rooted in the fear of the resulting embarrassment in front of the other students), and simultaneously providing enough and effective CF in order to foster language learning should be the goal.

6.3 Factors affecting teachers' views – teachers in research

Coming back to the teachers' views, one question to ask might be what factors influence the teachers' attitude to CF. Among numerous factors, there is knowledge about correcting and personal experience in this particular area. But how could the knowledge on CF be improved? This is where teachers taking part in research comes in: if they are doing research (or participating in a research project – e.g., by answering questions by a researcher) they can and could receive new information on CF.

Varying views exist, however, on the relevance of findings in the field of research regarding teachers actually being situated in the institutional context of school (Sheen 2011: 171). The opinions range from researchers providing information and teachers only applying it, through research results that can only be applied in part and with care, to teachers conducting research in their classrooms or being part of research themselves (Sheen 2011: 171). Ellis (2010) highlights the importance of teacher-educators, who build a link between research and the teaching context. Why teachers who engage in research themselves (instead of just being informed about research results) are important can be seen from Vásquez & Harvey's study (2010). Teachers conducted a classroom study on CF based on an existing study (Vásquez & Harvey 2010). The results indicated a change of teachers' view on feedback before the empirical project in class and after it: at first, their main worry was the affective aspect of CF, but gaining better insights into the

characteristics of CF and uptake affected their views and even their teaching practices in the end (Vásquez & Harvey 2010). In other words, the gain in terms of knowledge about the topic and their personal experience seemed to have had an impact on their attitudes towards CF and on their behaviour in practice. As Sheen (2011: 174) puts it, “[s]uch participation fosters a critical and deeper reflection on practice, which surely is the primary aim of research directed at teachers”. After all, the focus of research on CF should be on initiating discussion and “rais[ing] awareness” and not on “prescribe[ing]” (Sheen 2011: 174). Before we move on to a discussion of how CF occurs or be handled in classroom (see Section 4), let us reconsider what has been stated in this section. Regarding teachers’ role in research we have become aware of three main points: although the role of teachers’ in research processes seems to be contested, there appear to be positive effects on teachers’ attitudes to CF and the teachers’ actual CF strategies in class (cf. Vásquez & Harvey’s study). Additionally, teachers being involved in research can start discussions on the subject of error correction and lead to awareness-raising and possibly reflection as well.

7. Research findings

7.1 Literature review - Effectiveness of CF

Corrective feedback in oral interaction seems to be viewed as overall effective (Lyster & Saito 2013, 2010). Numerous authors have shown the effects of CF in their studies (cf. Russel & Spada 2006). However, research exists that says that the effectiveness of CF is minimal or is non-existent (Truscott 1999).

There are voices (Truscott & Hsu: 2008) against CF: Truscott argues against L2 written correction. The focus on written feedback should not hinder us to include it here in this discussion, since his voice is a major one. He found that students made less errors in a writing task in the revision process (if they had to write the same task again), when they received feedback. (Truscott & Hsu: 2008) In a different writing task the students who received feedback (first task) did not perform better than students who did not receive any feedback. According to them (2008), the fact that students performed better in the revision process does not imply that CF is effective. Learning is not indicated by the better performance in a revision task. Although, this argument is not directed against CF and its effectiveness in general, they criticise writers using evidence that are short-term

natured for arguing in favour of feedback. (Truscott & Hsu: 2008) In fact, long-term effects would be more meaningful. Truscott (1996) takes a much stronger stance against error correction in a different work. In his view (1996), grammar correction should be banned from writing, as it does not have any impact at all, but might even have negative effects. In other words, accuracy is not reached by correction but teachers should not intervene in order to prevent damage. For oral feedback Truscott (1999) stresses the negative aspects. Grammar correction would not have any positive effects on the accuracy of spoken language, thus teachers should drop grammar correction.

On the other hand, there are strong views for corrective feedback: Doughty and Varela (1998) for instance found that repetitions combined with recasts were more beneficial compared to no feedback. Staying with recasts, there is evidence that recasts are beneficial (Han 2002, Leeman 2003). Han (2002) focused on written and oral narratives with adult learners of English and observed a rise in tense consistency of the learners by the provision of recasts. Similarly, Leeman (2003) found positive effects of recasts. Others refer to recasts as being ambiguous and Ellis & Sheen highlight the lack of evidence for recasts being more effective than models (2006). Furthermore, they (2006) draw attention to the tendency of prompts and explicit forms of feedback being more effective than recasts. Russell and Spada (2006) found that corrective feedback has a considerable impact on acquisition. They (2006) argue that feedback types that initiate reformulation on the student's side, such as metalinguistic clues and clarification requests, could be more beneficial than feedback types that do not, such as recasts. Regarding different types of corrective feedback, Lyster & Ranta (1997) and Panova & Lyster (2002) found that recasts was the type of corrective feedback that triggered uptake least often. In other words, recasts was the type that was the least effective. Carroll and Swain (1993) tested different feedback strategies and their effectiveness. In their laboratory study they found that the groups that received corrective feedback showed better results than their non-feedback counterparts. Moreover, the group receiving the most explicit feedback type was superior to all the other groups. Mackey and Philp (1998) found that more advanced students could profit more from recasts than less advanced students. Their view is that recasts are beneficial for more advanced students. In Lyster and Ranta's study (1997), however, recasts were not considered as beneficial and types of feedback other than recasts lead to uptake more frequently.

Even if some feedback types seem to be more effective than others, using only one type is not the most effective way. A good variety of feedback types seems to be more beneficial (Lyster, Saito & Sato 2013: 21). Also, in practice the types do not seem to be clear-cut but have fuzzy boundaries (Ellis 2012: 263).

There are positive as well as negative views on error correction and I would like to conclude that error correction can be effective, but different factors have to be taken into account. Pawlak (2014: 88) mentions the following factors as crucial when errors are corrected: “overall instructional agenda of a given lesson, the activity being performed, the properties of the linguistic feature that has been applied incorrectly, learner characteristics or contextual circumstances”. In other words, not all errors should be corrected in all circumstances shall be corrected.

7.2 Studies compared and contrasted to Lyster’s study

Numerous studies have been published on the theme of CF in classrooms, focusing on different research questions and often in different contexts. This sub-section will provide a discussion of the research work by various authors compared to Lyster’s work, since his work plays an important role in the empirical part.

Regarding CF types and the frequency of correction, studies showed that morphosyntactic errors are the most frequently corrected errors, even if learners are generally better at repairing or discerning lexical as well as phonological errors (Lyster et al. 2015: 21). They conclude that “[...] CF might be more facilitative of lexical and pronunciation development than of morphosyntactic development” (Lyster et al. 2015: 21). The researchers Mackey et al. (2000) found that lexical and phonological errors were more frequently repaired and perceived than other error types, since they could hinder successful communication more easily. In this connection, Isaacs & Trofimovich (2012) suggested that “lexical and phonological errors directly inhibited native speakers’ perceived comprehensibility”, thus these aspects seem to be quite essential for effective conversation in the target language. Lyster introduced six sub-types in the third category, phonological errors: (1) “[d]ecoding errors as students read aloud”, (2) “[m]ispronunciations resulting from particularities of the French sound system”, (3) “[a]bsence of obligatory elision”, (4) “[A]bsence of obligatory liaison” (Lyster 2001: 279) (5) “[P]ronunciation of silent letters” and (6) “[a]ddition of other elements [...] or

omission of obligatory ones [...]” (Lyster 2001: 279). In addition to the above- mentioned categories, Lyster and Ranta (1997) had an additional category named “multiple”, which was used for learner’s utterances which included numerous error types (Lyster 2001: 279).

In his study, Lyster (2001: 287) investigated the interrelation of different types of learner errors and the corresponding CF types. Furthermore, he examined “[w]hat types of corrective feedback lead to the immediate repair of what types of learner errors” (2001: 287). The results depicted a tendency of grammatical and phonological errors to be followed by recasts (2001: 287). Lexical errors, however, rather triggered negotiation of form (2001: 287). With respect to repair, Lyster (2001: 287f) showed that the recasts that were usually made after (grammatical and) phonological errors initiated repair in the form of “learner repetition”. In the case of negotiation of form, “the majority of grammatical and lexical repairs were peer-and self-repairs [...]” (Lyster 2001: 288). The outcomes concerning repair will only be covered briefly, as the main focus of my paper is CF.

Compared to other studies, Lyster’s study indicated a “more consistent[] and less random[]” way of providing feedback (Lyster 2001: 288). Lyster (2001: 288) recognised a quite consistent pattern in teachers’ correction behaviour in terms of phonological and lexical errors (Lyster 2001: 288): about “70% and 89% respectively” were corrected. Moreover, he detected a relation between the choice of feedback type and the error type (Lyster 2001: 288). Another prominent aspect is the “proportion of error types receiving CF from these teachers reflected the rate at which these various error types occurred” (Lyster 2001: 288). Explicit correction and reactions to L1 occurrences were not included in the analysis (Lyster 2001: 288). In general, the teachers were quite unaffected by the learners’ use of L1 (Lyster 2001: 288). Regarding phonological errors, about 50 percent were found to be “decoding errors”, when reading out a sentence, for instance (Lyster 2001: 288). With respect to lexical errors, teachers seemed to provide CF especially when the error was of a lexical type, and favoured negotiation of meaning (Lyster 2001: 289). This means that students should self-repair their errors, perhaps due to the danger of students understanding recasts to be an additional possibility, rather than realizing that the phrase they have uttered is actually incorrect (Lyster 2001: 289).

Grammatical errors did not receive as much attention as lexical errors (Lyster 2001: 289). Even though grammatical errors were corrected, they seemed to reoccur (Lyster 2001:

289). Hence, Lyster (2001: 290) inferred that repairing grammatical errors demands more complex thinking due to the “system-driven rules of grammar [that] are more complex [...]” compared to lexical rules. It seems that these strategies were avoided as they were more complicated for the learners, thus enabling teachers to save time in lessons by using recasts and maintain students’ concentration on delivering content (Lyster 2001: 290).

The distribution of repair initiated by different CF types is “only about one-third of the grammatical repairs followed recasts; almost two-thirds were peer- and (mainly) self-repairs following the negotiation of form” (Lyster 2001: 290). While negotiation of form triggers reformulation of “nontarget output”, recasts tend to be misunderstood “at least in content-based classrooms [...]” (Lyster 2001: 290). In other words, recasts might have another “discourse function” than the function of error correction (Lyster 2001: 290). Lyster (1998) suggests that recasts might also be connected with acknowledgements or further information. Looking at grammatical errors, recasts might not be able to inform students about what is adequate in the target language, whereas positive evidence might in fact get across to the students. This means that students could think that the teachers’ correction is an additional option and not a corrective move.

In brief, Lyster’s research identified two interesting patterns (Lyster 2001: 291), the first being was that teachers corrected mistakes in grammar and phonology by using recasts. Negotiation was used for errors in lexis (Lyster 2001: 291). Doubting the appropriateness of the concept of “negotiation of form”, Lyster (2001: 291) hints that negotiation happened using “lexical items” instead. The second pattern focuses on repair: Lyster (2001: 291) recognised that recasts mainly triggered “phonological repairs”, and negotiation of form was followed by “grammatical and lexical repairs”. Consequently, Lyster (2001: 291) concludes that teachers’ choice of CF type according to error type was appropriate. Lyster also found that teachers tended to correct grammatical errors more often by negotiation of form (Lyster 2001: 291). However, limitations are that a proper evaluation in classroom studies is still needed to be able to evaluate its effectiveness (Lyster 2001: 291). Not only does negotiation of form initiate peer- and self-correction, but also special patterns could be found in “the types of errors it tends to follow [...] and [...]the types of errors that get repaired as a result of it [...]”(Lyster and Ranta 1997). As the results of his research acknowledge, the “negotiation of form” is a “distinguishable set of feedback moves”, which would benefit from being explored more thoroughly through research (Lyster 2001: 291).

Having reviewed the existing literature on corrective feedback, we now move on the contexts EFL and CLIL.

7.3 EFL and CLIL as contexts of CF

Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit (2010: 279) declared the “institutional context” to be a highly important variable that influences not only “language use”, but as a result also “language learning”. Characteristics of CLIL that were acknowledged by studies seem to be CLIL’s extended communicative possibilities – in other words, students have more chances to actually use the language, and different “communicative intentions” compared to an EFL classroom setting (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 279). L2 seems to be more complex to understand for students, both in terms of vocabulary and in terms of structure of the lesson (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 280). On a positive note, students tend to have a more dominant function in the CLIL context than in the EFL context. A tendency was found in schools for CLIL lessons to focus on content, even though there was a linguistic aim behind them (cf. Stoller 2004). Usually the subject curriculum is consulted and learning takes place via the target language (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 285). Whereas, as Hall (2004: 76) indicates, in EFL classrooms, the “meaningful personal engagement in talk” is often missing. “Content-based situations” shift the focus from language as such to content and getting across “meaning” (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 286). This purpose that language fulfils, especially in CLIL classrooms – as students know that not only the language is important, but the subject itself as well – could be why CLIL seems to be effective as a concept (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 286). In the future, more work needs to be done concerning the role of CLIL in providing new theory (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 286). In their view, CLIL “[i]mplies a new language model ” (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 286).

Research demonstrates that CLIL students are not only more adventurous than EFL students when using the target language (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008), but also seem to outdo their counterparts in “speaking ability” (more precisely, in every aspect of it) (Hüttner & Rieder; Ruiz de Zarobe 2008). Furthermore, a comparison of the ability to communicate in “spontaneous” speech found that CLIL students performed better than EFL students (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 280). Also, the former showed better results at “[...] implementing macro-level structuring devices as well as micro-level features like maintaining tense consistency in narratives” than the latter (Hüttner & Rieder 2010: 280).

In addition, students in a CLIL context also seemed to be more directed towards their interlocutor and showed a higher ability to adapt to different situations compared to the students in an EFL context (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 280). It is now considered partially proven that the effects of CLIL lead to an enhancement of speaking abilities, whereby “pronunciation” is the constituent that is influenced only to a slight extent (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 280). A brief comment on writing (L2) here: Students’ L1 writing did not seem to outperform students’ CLIL-L2 writing (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 281).

However, one must be careful when comparing the CLIL context with other instructional contexts (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 282) – usually, students choose to become part of the CLIL group and/or they have to meet certain criteria in order to do so (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 282). Moreover, it is difficult to analyse the positive achievements of CLIL students and distinguish between the effects that can be traced back to CLIL itself. A range of aspects affect the comparability of CLIL effects with other classroom settings: school characteristics such as teacher engagement and skills, differences between the students, aspects such as familial support, etc. (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010: 282).

Concerning different types of CF, Lyster and Llinares (2014: 181) distinguish between recasts, prompts and explicit correction. In their study they compared CLIL and immersion classrooms according to the use of types of corrective feedback. The findings of CLIL and immersion classes were equally distributed, which suggests that there is no significant difference in the use of types of CF between the two contexts (Lyster & Llinares 2014: 192). Recasts being “the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error”, score the highest frequency (Lyster & Llinares 2014: 182). Based on the respective study, Lyster and Llinares (2014: 192) argue that the effects of recasts could be enhanced when a didactic purpose is at hand in the context of a meaning-oriented classroom. However, they (2014: 192) highly object the view that recasts do not accomplish the aim of focusing students’ attention on form.

Yet there are other studies that come to a slightly divergent conclusion pertaining to the frequency of types of corrective feedback: Milla and Mayo (2014: 4) make reference to a study of Lyster and Mori (2006) that contrasted corrective feedback in foreign language lessons with immersion classes. The results seemed to show that teachers in foreign language classrooms tended to use more prompts, which are “moves that push learners to self-correct[ion]” (Milla & Mayo 2014: 3). Teachers in the second language classroom,

though, were mainly using recasts, which indicate a communicative focus (Milla & Mayo 2014: 3). It has to be noted that this study was not conducted in an English language context, but in a Japanese as a foreign language and French as a second language classroom (Milla & Mayo 2014: 3). A similar conclusion was drawn by Lochtman (2007) who analysed CF that was used in foreign language classes in comparison to immersion classes. He says that on the one hand, teachers in a foreign language class are more likely to use prompts in order to foster learners' self-correction (Milla & Mayo 2014: 3). Teachers in an immersion frame, on the other hand, rather use recasts, which involve teacher correction (Milla & Mayo 2014: 3).

Further insights should be gained from Milla and Mayo's own study (2014: 15) that found that "there are differences in the types, quantity and manner" between the CLIL and the EFL classroom when it comes to corrective feedback. Milla and Mayo explain the tendency of CLIL lessons to incorporate implicit feedback more than direct feedback by the focus on content (2014: 15). Also, EFL classrooms were said to include a bigger variety of corrective feedback types (Milla & Mayo 2014: 15). As the authors themselves acknowledge, the study was "an exploratory study" (Milla & Mayo 2014: 16) and general statements or tendencies are not easy to generate.

The shared conclusion of several researchers, that a wide array of corrective feedback types should be used rather than focusing on a single one, is hard to refute. One argument of Lyster and Saito (2013: 30) is that the complex and "cultural nature of language classrooms makes it impossible to prescribe only one type of CF across all instructional settings". In a different contribution Lyster and Saito (2013: 295) highlight the importance of varying types of corrective feedback once more, which according to their suggestion should include more direct methods. Safari (2013: 1173) supports Lyster and Saito's view that a wide range of corrective feedback types should be used and special consideration should be given to aspects influencing the learning conditions, such as the age and the proficiency of the learners.

As already mentioned above, studies suggest that teachers in CLIL classrooms largely opt for implicit correction (Milla & Mayo 2014). Yet very little empirical work has been conducted until now, therefore this view might be questioned. Dalton-Puffer (2008: 15) finds that a further difference of CLIL compared to EFL classes is that students themselves introduce repair in CLIL. I agree with her when she writes that repair that is

triggered by students is only characteristic of CLIL classrooms and not of the EFL context. This could be related to different factors, like reduced speaking anxiety of students in CLIL lessons due to the additional focus on content.

Common agreement seems established regarding the importance of varying the type of corrective feedback one gives as a teacher – irrespective of the context of CLIL or EFL. Further research has to be done when it comes to how language errors are treated in the context of CLIL.

Having discussed the theoretical considerations on errors and CF in this first part, the next part will focus on the empirical study.

8. Empirical Study

8.1 Research aim

The focus of the empirical study is on the following two research questions: Research Question 1 is concerned with the type of linguistic errors that are corrected and Research Question 2 is concerned with the type of oral CF that is given by the teacher. Both research questions are analysed in the EFL context and the CLIL context.

RQ1: What types of linguistic errors are corrected during oral communication in EFL and in CLIL?

RQ2: What type of oral corrective feedback is used to correct the errors in EFL and in CLIL?

In addition, I formulated three hypotheses. As Rasinger says, hypotheses give information on “[...] the potential and/or suggested relationship between at least two variables [...]” (Rasinger 2008: 31). Based on the existing research on oral CF in different institutional contexts, the following three hypotheses were formulated:

H1: More linguistic errors are corrected in the EFL context than in the CLIL context.

H2: Only lexical errors are corrected equally in terms of frequency in the EFL and the CLIL context.

H3: Recasts are more common in CLIL than in EFL.

The study will produce findings on the respective research questions and the hypotheses will either have been confirmed or rejected. A few comments on the focus that has been chosen for this study: as can be seen from the formulation of Research Question 1, only linguistic errors (i.e. no content errors) will be analysed in this study.

As I am adopting a teacher's perspective in this study – and whether flaws are fossilized or occur only due to other factors, such as a lack of attention or tiredness is not evident to the observer – I will not distinguish between the terms “error” and “mistake” in this study, and they will be used interchangeably. Moreover, although the types of CF will be analysed in detail, an analysis of the uptake is beyond the scope of this study, even though it would be an issue worth looking into more thoroughly in the future (as would the issues errors and CF in written work). In this study, the focus is on oral communication; oral errors that occur and how they are addressed.

8.2 Method

8.2.1 Setting

This empirical study was conducted in the Europagymnasium Auhof, a grammar school (AHS) in Linz. The students participating in the study are all from the Linz International School Auhof (L.I.S.A.), which is one of three sites of the Europagymnasium Auhof. In this particular site, students can choose between a focus on economics (L.I.S.A. Economics) or a focus on languages (L.I.S.A. Languages) – which was the setting for my study. Even though, it is a bilingual school, according to the participating teacher, the teaching approach is to apply CLIL concepts. I collected the data in the course of five weeks in 2015: video recording started in early October and was completed by November 2015. The video recordings took place in one classroom and involved a single teacher – only the contexts were different, as EFL and CLIL were looked at separately. The class involved is an elementary school class, which meant that German was probably more present than it would be in the upper grades (and this was also the teacher's impression). In an international school, the students have generally reached quite a high level of English proficiency by the time they are in the upper grades.

The reason I decided to carry out research at the L.I.S.A. is that this school is located in Linz, which will probably be my future working environment. Moreover, this school is an international school, which is interesting for me as a language teacher. In addition, the range of schools that fulfilled my requirements of teaching geography in English and being located in Linz was rather limited and it was the only school that responded to my enquiry. Before the actual research process at the L.I.S.A. a number of organisational matters were to be taken: Part of the preparation process for the empirical research study was to request permission of the Landesschulrat Oberösterreich, the headmaster of the school, the class teacher, the students, and their parents.

8.2.2 Participants

The female teacher who participated in the study has eight years of teaching experience, and she teaches geography as well as English. The study sample consisted of 26 students from an Austrian Grade 4 class, 18 female and 8 male students. What should be noted at this point is that about half the students were taught in a different group for English, since fewer students mean more interaction possibilities for every student. Although it could be argued that comparability is decreased because of this, it is not a different class that is analysed in EFL – the number of participants is only smaller compared to the CLIL context. In terms of sampling, the class that was observed was the only one with the same teacher taught for both subjects (English and geography); consequently, the class was considered to be appropriate for the research study. The names of all the participants (students and the teacher) have been changed in order to guarantee their anonymity. None of the students had English as their first language, but they had a good command of English (especially speaking skills).

8.2.3 Data collection

A total of eight lessons were video-recorded by me and due to time constraints, I transcribed six of these. For this purpose, the Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) transcription conventions [2.1] were used. The lessons were 45 minutes in length, a total number of 270 minutes of video material that was transcribed and resulted in a total of more than 60 pages of transcripts. The transcripts are in English and German, and for the latter, standard German transcription was used for the Upper-Austrian dialect (that was used in a few instances). Of the six lessons, three were EFL

lessons and three were geography CLIL lessons. Importantly, since the same teacher taught the EFL lessons and the CLIL lessons, there was no need to consider different teaching styles and preferences when comparing the two contexts. Moreover, the lessons were conducted in the same class, which may lead to an increased comparability of the outcomes. The results were discussed with the teacher in debriefing sessions and her opinion of the findings will be included.

Neither the teacher nor the students knew what the research topic was in advance, so the recorded lessons contain natural classroom discourse. Also, I did not intervene or take part in the activities and attempted to be what Dörnyei (2007: 179) calls a “non-participant-observer”. It was essential for me that the lessons be structured and held as usual, and for any distraction that could be caused by the lesson being recorded to be kept to a minimum for the teacher and the students. According to the teacher, the students were not distracted by the recording process.

The above information on the data setting, participants and procedure will be supplemented by a brief reflection and consideration on the methods that were applied.

8.2.4 Data Analysis

8.2.4.1 Framework for analysis

8.2.4.1.1 Lyster’s error taxonomy

This Section will present and discuss one error taxonomy and two CF taxonomies. The first taxonomy classifies errors, whereas the second classifies oral corrective feedback strategies. The most appropriate taxonomy will be chosen for the empirical study in this paper.

Lyster’s error taxonomy, adapted from Lyster and Ranta (1997), will be discussed in this section (Lyster 2001: 278). This taxonomy distinguishes between four major error types: “grammatical, phonological, lexical, and unsolicited uses of the first language (L1)” (2001: 276). Lyster and Ranta were attempting to investigate the reactions of the teacher to L1 interferences by their students (2001: 276). In general, they chose a “focus-on-form” approach, therefore content errors were ignored (Lyster 2001: 278). To begin with grammatical errors, Lyster and Ranta include errors occurring when uttering “closed classes” such as “determiners, prepositions, and pronouns”, in “pluralisation, negation, question formation, relativisation, and word order” (Lyster 2001: 278). Furthermore,

grammatical errors involve flaws in “grammatical gender” and in “tense, verb morphology, auxiliaries [...] and subject/verb agreement” (Lyster 2001: 278). Looking closely at lexical errors now, Lyster decided on the following two sub-categories: The first one being “inaccurate, imprecise, or inappropriate choices of lexical items in open classes – namely nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives” (Lyster 2001: 278). As for instance, “*adoption for adaptation*” et cetera (Lyster 2001: 278). The second sub-category Lyster defined as “[n]ontarget derivations of nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives, involving incorrect use of prefixes and suffixes” (2001: 278).

The categories “grammatical” and “lexical errors” that have already been discussed before are appropriate for the study, and thus will be applied as explained; no adaptations will be made.

With regards to phonological errors, numerous sub-categories are listed, such as errors when students read in front of the class or the pronunciation of sounds that should be omitted (Lyster & Ranta 2001: 278). This study includes, all the pronunciation errors that are relevant to the English sound system are included. In other words, phonological errors of every kind are included (and since Lyster and Ranta were referring to the French sound system, the characteristics that can only be found in that system will obviously not be included in this study).

Finally, there is the category of unsolicited uses of L1, in this study meaning the students’ use of German when the teacher would anticipate the use of the target language. In this study, in line with Lyster and Ranta (2001), this category does not involve utterances in L1 that were triggered by the teacher, as for instance when the teacher asks the students to talk in German. Uses of L1 that were incited by the teacher, were completely off-topic (organisational) and before the actual start of the lesson are not included in my study.

8.2.4.1.2 Lyster and Ranta’s corrective feedback taxonomy

I will now introduce the framework of Lyster and Ranta, which will be applied in this paper at a later stage. Lyster and Ranta (2001: 272) established six categories for classifying CF sequences. See table 1 for the different feedback types and examples from Li (2014: 196), which present ways of correcting the flawed statement “He has dog”:

Reformulations	Feedback type	Example
	Explicit correction	No, you should say “a dog”.
	Recasts	A dog.
Prompts	Elicitation	He has ...?
	Metalinguistic clues	You need an indefinite article.
	Clarification requests	Sorry?
	Repetition	He has dog?

Table 1: Examples of feedback types (Li 2014: 156)

These feedback types have been explained by Lyster and Ranta in the following way: explicit correction is characterised by a declaration that the utterance was wrong and the teacher providing the right form (as in “No, you should say **a** dog”) (2001: 272). The second type of CF, recasts (as in “a dog”), are defined as feedback by the teacher that implicitly restates flawed student messages either on the whole or only partially. Elicitation refers to the teacher “directly elicit[ing] a reformulation from students”, as in “He has...”?. Three options exist, the first being to direct questions to the students, the second is to pause and the third being to request students to restate their utterance. Metalinguistic clues are described as “comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance [...]”. As can be inferred from the example above, clarification requests are utterances such as “Sorry?” or “Pardon?”, which indicate that the teacher has not understood. Repetition is a feedback type that is defined as a repetition of the student’s incorrect sentence(s) using appropriate intonation for drawing the student’s attention to the error.

Having discussed the six CF types, the categories into which Lyster & Ranta grouped them will be introduced. They distinguished between two categories (Lyster & Ranta 2007), the first being “reformulations”. This first category is characterised by providing the student with the correct form and includes recasts and explicit correction (Lyster & Ranta 2013: 3). The following CF types fall into the second category prompts: elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests and repetition (Lyster & Ranta 2013: 3). These consist of reformulations but “a variety of signals other than reformulations that push learners to self-repair [...]” (Lyster & Ranta 2013: 3).

This framework seems to be appropriate for my purpose of analysing CF moves and will be exemplified with material from my own data, starting with explicit correction (Example 2):

2. S10: <reading> the news are read slowly using a limited vocabulary of about hundred and fifty words. </reading>
T: hundred and fifty wouldn't be enough one thousand five hundred exactly elke.
(29.10.2015 EFL p.4)

In example 3 the error is recasted, even if at the beginning the teacher says yes, which might be confusing for the student. This example shows the rather tricky implication of recasts – students might take for confirmation or simply as the provision of synonyms:

3. S8: being produced.
T: yes they ARE being produced. [...]
(08.10.2015 EFL p.2)

Elicitation can be found in the data as well, in Example 4:

4. S1: they are insulting everyone on facebook and in real life they are like <L1de> opfers </L1de>
T: they are?
SX-f: victims.
(06.11.2015 EFL p.10)

An instance where the teacher used metalinguistic clues can be seen in Example 5 below:

5. S9: english influenced by many languages because of tv and [...]
T: well you left out parts of the sentence armin what did you get?
(08.10.2015 EFL p.2)

In my sample, there was no data for clarification requests and repetition. The framework is used as it was presented in this section. In the case of explicit corrections, teacher utterances were also included, even if they merely consisted of “No”, with no further explanation. This is because the teacher is still indicating explicitly that the utterance is erroneous.

8.2.5 Coding procedure

The data was coded for CF types (see Table 2), for who provided feedback (see Table 3) and for error types (see Table 4). The corrective feedback types range from 1 to 6 and are grouped into the common categories of reformulations (1) and prompts (2). The person who provides the feedback was also coded for individually because in some instances it was not the teacher who corrected the error, but another student or the same student who had made the error. If there was no CF at all, it was coded as 0. Error types range from 1 to 4; 4 meaning unsolicited use of L1 which, although it is sometimes not considered as an error as such, was included, as the teacher's approach to the students' use of German in the lessons could vary from EFL to CLIL context.

As Dörnyei (2007: 185) puts it, “[...] coding schemes introduce systematicity into the research process”, which means that coding enables the researcher to discern highly informative data and the main tendencies. After coding, a first insight can be gained from the data, enabling statistical calculations to be made, and graphs to be generated. For this, I used Microsoft Office Excel, a widely-used software programme, which seemed to be suitable for the given purpose.

As for the quantitative approach, the data was analysed according to absolute frequencies and relative frequencies of corrected errors and CF in CLIL and EFL contexts. The purpose of the analysis was to show the relationship between the variation in the frequency of the teacher's corrective feedback and the context in which it appeared. For example, whether it appeared after a certain error type or if it appeared in a CLIL or an EFL context.

With regard to the actual coding procedure, I first selected the data from the transcript and then coded it for different categories. A list of the codes used is given in tables 2-4 below:

Codes for CF types		Broader categories	
1	Explicit correction	Reformulations	1
2	Recasts		
3	Elicitation	Prompts	2
4	Metalinguistic clues		
5	Clarification requests		
6	Repetition		

Table 2: Codes for CF types

Codes for the person giving feedback		Codes for error types	
0	No corrective feedback	1	Grammatical
1	Teacher	2	Phonological
2	A student	3	Lexical
3	The student him-/herself	4	Unsolicited use of L1

Table 3: Codes for person giving feedback Table 4: Codes for error types

During the coding process, the data was constantly screened and cleaned to ensure reliability. There are various ways of checking reliability, and where there is a team of researchers, a colleague can be involved in the coding process, for example, coding the transcript (or part(s) of the transcript) independently, so the codes can be compared and consequently revised (Dörnyei 2007: 57). In the present study, given the fact that I was working alone, reliability was checked by coding the data numerous times and screening for possible inconsistencies. Having discussed the relevant framework for analysis and the coding scheme in this section, we now move on to the findings of the present study.

8.3 Reflection on the research process

A few words here regarding observational data and its usefulness, to shine light on the advantages and disadvantages of the method. Observational data is said to lead to a more objective view of the occurrences, compared to interviews for instance, that rely on the personal evaluation of the event(s) by the interviewee (Dörnyei 2007: 185). On the hand, recorded applied linguistics data does not provide information on the motivation behind a certain action, as mental activities remain hidden (Dörnyei 2007: 185). Moreover, the participants might be influenced by the fact that the researcher is recording them (Dörnyei 2007: 185) – although this did not seem to be a hindering factor in the present study. In my study, observational data was very useful, since the purpose of the study was to provide an insight into patterns of students' errors and teacher's reactions.

Conducting research in general and classroom studies in particular involve certain difficulties for a researcher. Dörnyei (2007: 188-190) lists various characteristics that are especially true for studies that are conducted in a classroom environment, and the ones that were true for the present study will be considered here briefly. As soon as technical equipment such as video cameras is used, problems might occur that might cause a

prolongation of the data collection process. This might be inconvenient, considering that this kind of research is generally rather time-consuming even if everything works out as scheduled. Since numerous participants are involved at one time changes of plan are inevitable: projects or parts of projects are re-scheduled to a time that was originally reserved for the study or last-minute excursions. (Dörnyei 2007: 188-190) Luckily, I did not have to deal with major issues during the data collection period, and also, minor changes of plan are to be expected in every research environment and might not be restricted to classroom studies. At the same time, however, this study made me more aware of the time-consuming nature of classroom research, especially when it comes to transcribing the video-recordings (it is clearly advantageous to have experience in this method in order to speed up the process). Having said that, many different factors come into play in classroom research, such as those mentioned above, which can easily result in challenges that require patience and flexibility on the part of the researcher.

9. Findings

9.1 Overall figures

This section presents the results of the empirical study, which will then be discussed in Section 8. Graphs and tables illustrate the trends observed in the study along with extracts from the transcripts as examples. First, the data set will be described and overall trends introduced, followed by a more detailed discussion of the results of the study. The more in-depth analysis is divided into two parts: the analysis of error frequency according to type and the frequency of CF types. As has already been mentioned, the data will be inspected from two angles: the institutional contexts of EFL and CLIL.

Errors and corrective feedback			
absolute values			
		Errors	CF
E F L	Lesson 1	29	22
	Lesson 2	24	6
	Lesson 3	26	7
C L I L	Lesson 1	16	9
	Lesson 2	13	2
	Lesson 3	16	4
Total		124	50

Table 5: Errors and corrective feedback: absolute values for the whole data set

Overall, there were 124 error sequences and 50 CF moves in the six lessons – as can be seen in Table 5. These absolute numbers signify that while some of the errors led to correction, a significant number of errors did not have this effect. In other words, teaching continued as normal about 70 times, despite students making errors: the error was not corrected. The mean of errors for the whole data set is 20.7. For corrective feedback, the mean is 8.3. In total, about 40% of the errors were provided with corrective feedback by the teacher or the students.

9.2 Who provides feedback?

After having had a first global look at the data, Figure 1 now addresses the question of who corrects errors in class. The values are absolute and portray an overall impression including data from the EFL and the CLIL contexts.

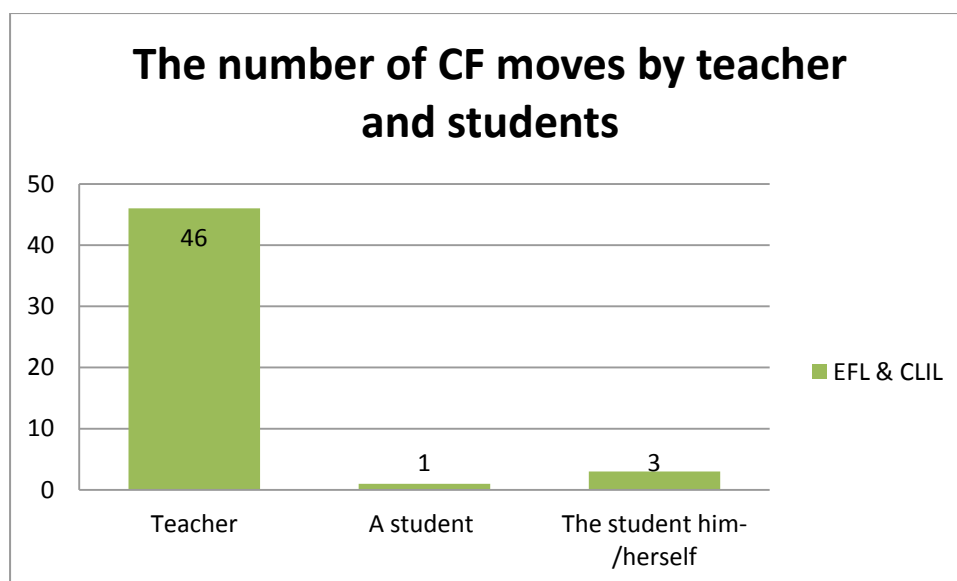


Figure 1: Corrective feedback by teacher and students

Figure 1 shows the number of CF moves contributed divided into teacher, students and self-correction by students. What clearly emerges is that the teacher is the one that provides feedback in the majority of cases – in 46 instances, to be precise. And at the other end of the scale, the numbers of CF moves provided by students are quite low: one peer-correction (by a fellow student) and a mere 3 self-corrections occurred in the data set.

Percentage of errors corrected		
EFL	Lesson 1	75.86
	Lesson 2	25
	Lesson 3	26.92
CLIL	Lesson 1	56.25
	Lesson 2	15.39
	Lesson 3	25
Total		40.32

Table 6: Percentage of errors corrected

As indicated in Table 6, the percentage of errors that were followed by CF ranges from 15%, in CLIL Lesson 2, to 76% in EFL Lesson 1. There is a considerable variation

between the highest and lowest numbers for the two institutional contexts: EFL ranges from a low of 25% to a high of 76%, whereas CLIL ranges from a low of 15% to a high of 56%. Overall, about 40 % of the errors were corrected in EFL, and in CLIL approximately 30%.

9.3 Error types

Before we move on to how the errors were corrected, let us look at the distribution of error types. To begin with, absolute and relative values of how error types are distributed among the individual lessons will be given, followed by a distinction between the scores for error types and the frequency values of different **corrected** error types.

Error types per EFL lesson					
	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Total	%
Grammatical	17	9	6	32	41.03
Phonological	3	2	1	6	7.69
Lexical	3	0	1	4	5.13
Unsolicited use of L1	5	13	18	36	46.15

Table 7: Error types per EFL lesson

Table 7 shows, that the most frequent error type in EFL lessons is the unsolicited use of German. The second highest percentage in EFL is grammatical errors (41%), followed by phonological errors (8%), with the lowest percentage being lexical errors (5%). Looking at the absolute numbers of unsolicited use of L1 errors across the lessons, it can be seen that there is a fairly wide range, from 4 to 36.

Error types per CLIL lesson					
	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Sum	%
Grammatical	5	4	3	12	26.67
Phonological	3	0	1	4	8.89
Lexical	2	1	0	3	6.67
Unsolicited use of L1	6	8	12	26	57.78

Table 8: Error types per CLIL lesson

Moving on to CLIL lessons, Table 8 shows that CLIL lessons experienced a high percentage of unsolicited use of L1 errors (58% of all the errors), followed by grammatical errors (27%). For CLIL, the percentage of grammatical errors is 27% (see Table 8) and higher in EFL (41%). In terms of absolute numbers, the lowest are 3 (lexical errors) and 4 (phonological errors). The absolute numbers for grammatical errors and unsolicited use of L1, 12 and 26 respectively, are comparatively small compared to the EFL context.

To illustrate the data more vividly, it is presented in direct contrast in Figure 2: In both institutional contexts (EFL and CLIL) the most frequently occurring error is unsolicited use of L1 at 46% and 58% respectively. Grammatical errors are in second place, whereby students show a higher frequency of grammar errors in EFL (41%) than in CLIL (27%). The remaining scores are less frequent; phonological errors range from 7 to 9% and lexical errors from 5 to 7% – the lower values are referring to EFL and the higher to CLIL.

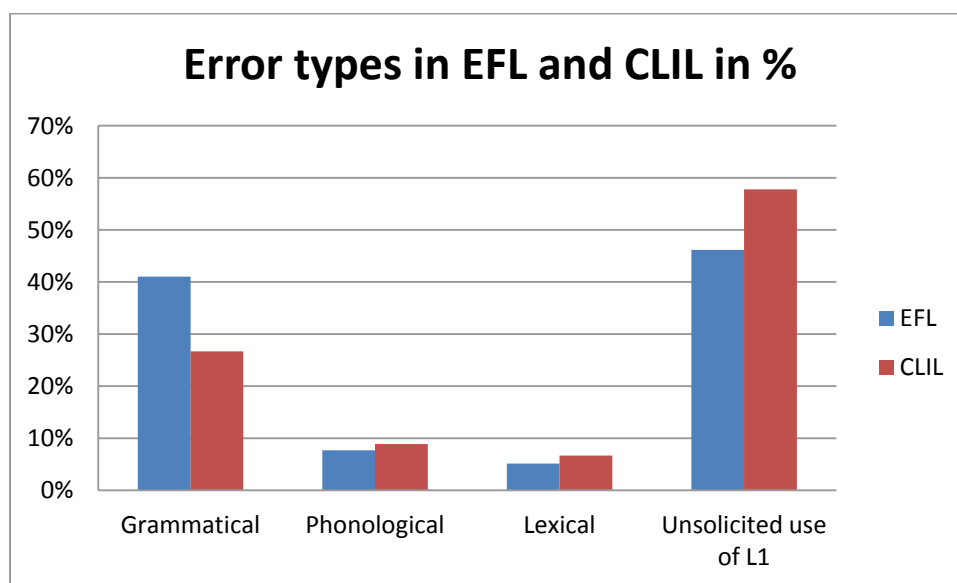


Figure 2: Comparison of error types in EFL and CLIL

As Figure 3 shows, there is a substantial difference, in the distribution of corrected error types in EFL and CLIL – especially if one looks at the unsolicited use of L1 (pink) and grammatical errors (dark blue). The difference in the distribution of lexical and phonological errors that were corrected is not significant. Taking a closer look at the data, the highest of all the values can be found in the EFL context, where 53% of all corrected errors are grammatical errors. Staying within EFL, grammatical errors are followed by

unsolicited use of L1 and phonological errors, which have a share of 19% based on the total number of corrected errors. To paraphrase, 19% of all unsolicited use of German and phonological errors are corrected in the EFL context. (Lexical errors, comprising only 9% of all corrected errors, are corrected fairly infrequently.)

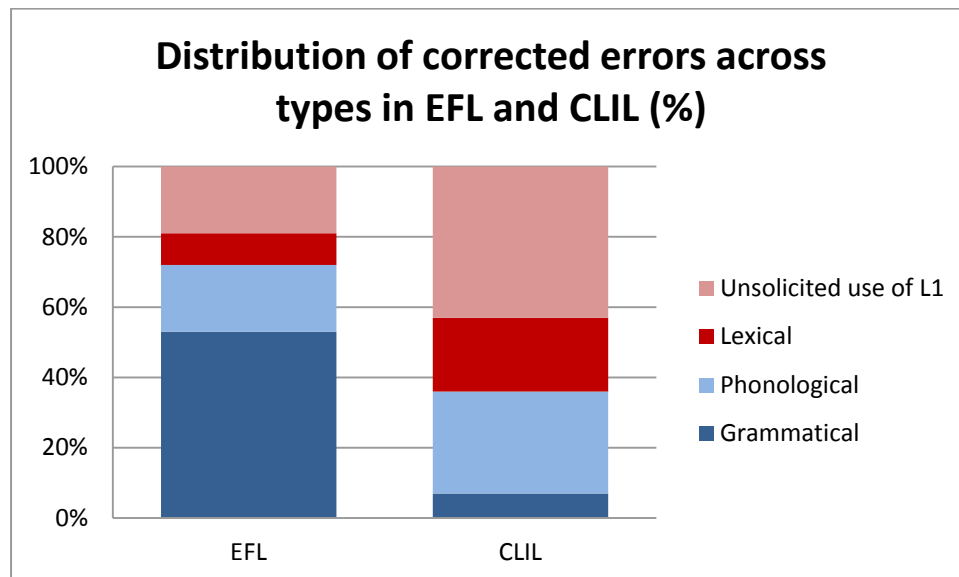


Figure 3: Corrected errors across types in EFL and CLIL

Figure 4 compares CLIL and EFL in terms of the relative frequency of the different error types that were corrected. Relative frequency here is the number of corrected errors of one type divided by the total number of errors of the respective type. By multiplying this value by 100, the score is easier to compare, as it then shows the percentage (Rasinger 2008: 90). For both contexts, phonological errors have the highest relative frequency, with a relative frequency of 1. In other words, 100% of the phonological errors were corrected in both contexts. A relative frequency of 1 also can be found for lexical errors in CLIL – with a relative frequency of only about 0.8 for the same category in EFL. Considerably lower is the relative frequency of error correction in the error types “grammatical” and “unsolicited use of L1”: about 0.5 for grammatical errors in EFL, and 0.1 for grammatical errors in CLIL. For “unsolicited use of L1”, the opposite is true: in this case, CLIL shows a slightly higher relative frequency compared to that for EFL for this category. However, both values have a relative frequency of about 0.2.

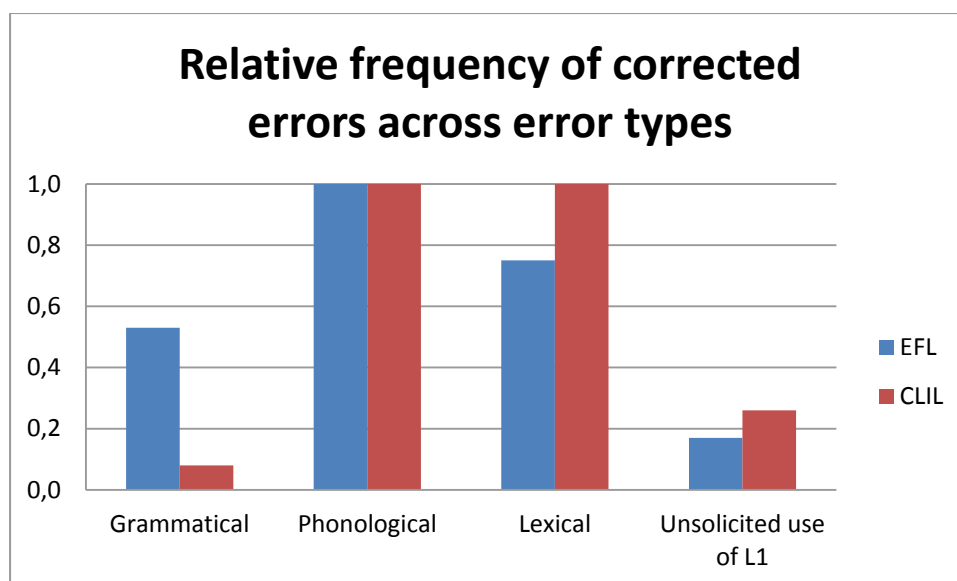


Figure 4: Relative frequency of corrected errors across error types

To provide a better picture of the figures, some of the absolute values for errors that received correction will be presented in more detail. In EFL, 17 out of a total of 32 grammatical errors were corrected, whereas in CLIL 1 out of 12 was corrected. The second example concerns phonological errors: while 6 out of 6 errors were provided with corrective feedback in EFL, in CLIL, 4 out of 4 were.

9.4 Corrective feedback

In this sub-section, we move on from discussing what types of errors occur and what errors are corrected, to how these errors are corrected. In other words, the quantitative data for corrective feedback types will be presented at this point. Firstly, (tables 9 and 10 present) the data based on corrective feedback moves, including teacher and students, and then in figures 5 and 6 show the data focused on the teacher providing feedback. This means that students' feedback is excluded in the second part so as to provide a thorough description of teacher-centered feedback.

As far as corrective feedback types in EFL lessons are concerned (see Table 9 above), there were no instances of corrective feedback in the last two categories, "clarification requests" and "repetition". The next lowest share of corrective feedback type is held by "elicitation" and "metalinguistic clues" (11% and 14%, respectively), with a quite high share held by "explicit correction" (20%), exceeded only by the most frequent corrective feedback type in EFL, "recasts" – which had a share of 54%. Recasts also comprise the highest percentage in CLIL, as can be inferred from Table 10 below.

Corrective feedback types per EFL lesson					
	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Sum	%
Explicit correction	3	1	3	7	20
Recast	13	4	2	19	54.29
Elicitation	1	1	2	4	11.43
Metalinguistic clues	5	0	0	5	14.29
Clarification requests	0	0	0	0	0
Repetition	0	0	0	0	0

Table 9: Corrective feedback types per EFL lesson

There were no instances of clarification requests or repetition to correct errors in EFL and CLIL lessons (Table 10). By far the most frequent CF type was “recasts”, at 67%, an even higher percentage than in EFL. “Elicitation” and “metalinguistic clues” were both second most prominent categories, at 13%, whereas the share of explicit corrections reached only 7%.

Corrective feedback types per CLIL lesson					
	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Sum	%
Explicit correction	0	0	1	1	6.67
Recast	5	2	3	10	66.67
Elicitation	2	0	0	2	13.33
Metalinguistic clues	2	0	0	2	13.33
Clarification requests	0	0	0	0	0
Repetition	0	0	0	0	0

Table 10: Corrective feedback types per CLIL lesson

It is important to highlight once more that the data in figures 5 and 6 represents the teacher’s feedback only. The distribution would be similar if students’ feedback were to

be included, since the latter is quantitatively insignificant. The students used recasts to correct each other.

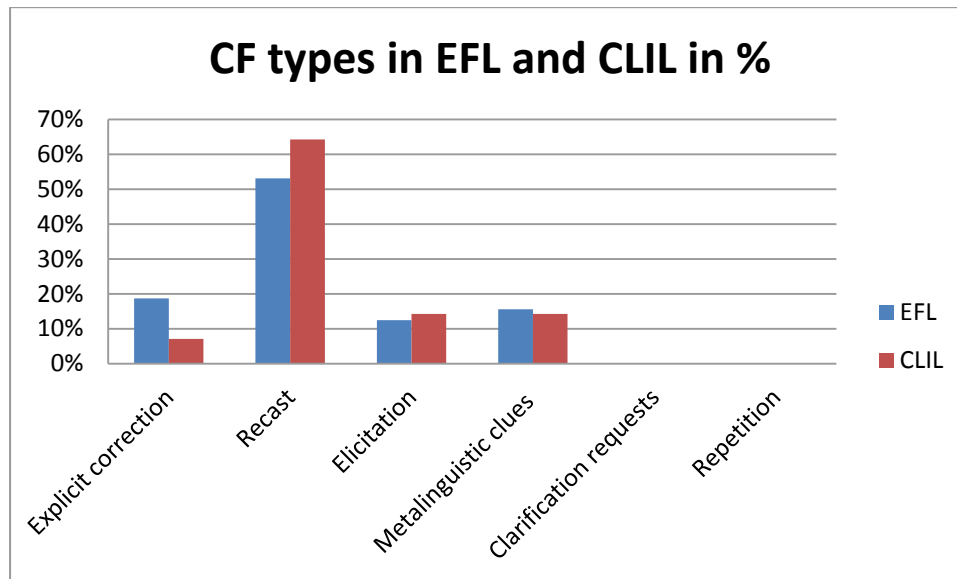


Figure 5: Corrective feedback types in EFL and CLIL

Recasts are much more frequent than the rest of the feedback types, with a share of 53% in EFL and 64% in CLIL, compared to scores of around 0% or 13% to 16% for the remaining CF types.

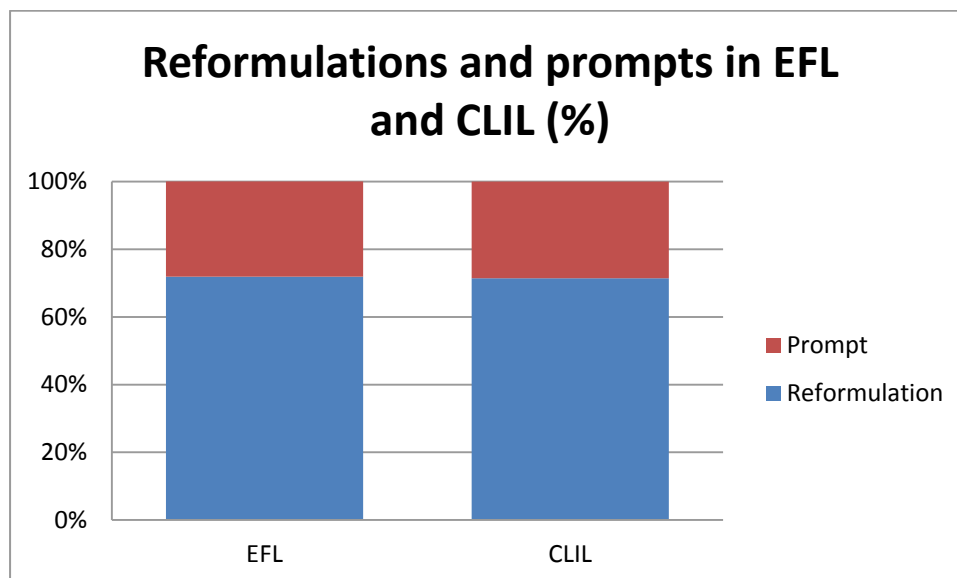


Figure 6: Reformulations and prompts in EFL and CLIL

To put the different CF types into a larger frame, they are classified in Figure 6 into the superordinate categories “reformulations” and “prompts”. The majority of CF types belong to the broader category of reformulations, as indicated in Figure 6.

9.5 Relation of error type and corrective feedback type

After presenting numbers of error types and corrective feedback types that were used in the class separately, we move on to the interrelation of the two variables. To put it another way, we will explore how the teacher corrected each error type: i.e., what type of corrective feedback did she use for what error type.

Phonological errors were corrected most frequently by the use of recasts and also using with explicit correction. Both types are reformulations and belong to the category of direct forms of corrective feedback. Similarly, grammatical errors seemed to predominantly trigger recasts, followed by explicit correction. Recasts are also the most frequent type of corrective feedback for the unsolicited use of L1 followed by elicitation. Corrective feedback for lexical errors was provided mainly, in the form of recasts, followed by metalinguistic clues. The teacher appears to favour recasts, independently of the error type. Phonological and grammatical errors, in particular, seem to trigger recasts and explicit correction (direct forms of feedback). The small sample size made it impossible to make comparisons across the two different settings, to see how specific error types are related to specific CF types.

Error type	Corrective feedback type (ranked according to frequency – highest first)
Phonological errors	Recasts – Explicit correction
Grammatical errors	Recasts – Explicit correction
Lexical errors	Recasts – Metalinguistic clues
Unsolicited use of L1	Recasts – Elicitation

Table 11: Error types and corrective feedback types

9.6 Students’ feedback

This section analyses self-correction (feedback provided by the students themselves after they had made an error) and peer-correction (feedback that students provided for each

other). Since there are not many instances of student feedback, most of them will be analysed here.

In example 6, a student recasts an error for another student without being asked to do so by the teacher. As the teacher does not say anything when student 2 makes an error, a male student provides the correct preposition instead.

6. S2: and german so german here in austria i never was? in
T: i've never been.
S2: i have never been **in in** united kingdom.
SX-m: **to**
S2: yeah and i just

(08.10.2015 EFL p.11)

In Example 7, Student 3 corrects Student 5 by providing the correct tense construction, which is confirmed by the teacher with a repetition.

7. S5: <reading> we **will** leave very early tomorrow morning because it's a long drive to kiel? </reading>
S3: **we are going to?**
T: we are going to leave we are going to leave.

(06.11.2015 EFL p.5)

Extract 8 exemplifies a self-correction by a student who chooses to use a different preposition in his or her utterance.

8. S3: okay so when we were driving from montenegro to dubrovnik there weren't really real borders but usually borders are like **at** the railway?
T: yes.
S3: **on** the railway or but that that wasn't the case because it was like in the middle of woods and stuff.

(08.10.2015 CLIL p.6)

9.7 Students' L1 use

It is interesting to look at the motivation that leads the students to use L1 in EFL and CLIL. Although it is not possible to explore the motivation of each individual student (as, one would have to carry out interviews with each of the students), it is possible to analyse the situation according to the transcripts in which situations students used the L1

and not English. The following transcript excerpts will be used to illustrate the possible reasons for the unsolicited use of L1.

One of the instances where students chose to use German rather than English to express their thoughts was when they were talking about more complex matters. This is illustrated in Example 9, when the interlocutors are talking about the Turkish government.

9. T: so it has to do you mentioned two things at least here with politics maybe and their elective systems and so on. so it's different just it's different from these countries and you also mentioned youtube twitter internet in general. so social media as well as media print media what's different there in turkey yes?
S6: <L1de> erm entweder sie werden kontrolliert von der tuerkischen regierung oder es hat e jetzt am anfang vom jahr wars auch so dass a zeit lang youtube twitter und fuer tuerkische nutzer gesperrt war. </L1de>
T: <L1de> sehr gut [...]

(19.10.2015 CLIL p.8)

Another aspect was – and this example is taken from a CLIL lesson – when students had to make presentations in front of the class. Some of the students switched to German, some did not and some used German throughout their presentation. Despite the teacher using English, the student starts presenting in German and continues using German throughout the whole presentation. Since the teacher does not intervene, one can suppose that she tolerates the use of the L1 in presentations in CLIL.

10. T: [...] why did you draw the borders or how <1> many </1>
S1: <L1de> <1> wir </1> haben uns dazu entschlossen dass wir die grenzen nach den religionen ziehen also da. </L1de>
T: okay.
S1: <L1de> dann haben wir die da so <2> durchgezogen </2> </L1de>

(12.10.2015 CLIL p.1)

In addition, L1 was used by students especially when they had questions that were not related to the lesson, such as what teacher would be teaching them next year. Interestingly, here, the teacher used L1 as well. This situation, which occurred right at the beginning of the lesson, was not included into the quantitative analysis of error types (or more precisely, was not included into the category “unsolicited use of L1”). Since the teacher talked in German herself, the use of L1 here was not unsolicited – as the teacher's use of German might give the students the impression that the use of L1 is now appropriate. Therefore, no example will be included in this part.

Moreover, when students talk about grammar, they tend to switch to German. As it can be seen in Example 11, the student is missing some words, and the teacher allows the student to switch to German:

11. T: why do we have to use or why is the correct sentence i have never been. why do we use why do we use present perfect tense?
S9: <L1de> das ist wie ich war einmal. </L1de>
T: why is past tense not correct it or is a better language er tense?
S9: <L1de> weil wie soll ich das jetzt erklaren. </L1de>
T: <L1de> versuchen wirs auf deutsch was ist der unterschied zwischen der past tense und der present perfect tense in der verwendung? </L1de>

(2.10.2015 EFL p.11)

Overall, peer-correction and self-correction appeared to be quantitatively insignificant in my sample: Once peer-correction occurred and 2 times self-correction. Qualitatively, however, it is interesting to explore when and how they occur: in other words, what type of feedback was applied. Contexts in which the students use the L1 are when they aim at expressing complex issues, exploring grammar-related topics and - especially in CLIL - when they are doing demanding presentations.

To put it in a nutshell, the main findings presented in this section illustrate that the most common error type is the unsolicited use of L1 in both EFL and CLIL. And in CLIL, this is also the error type that is most frequently corrected. In EFL, however, it is grammatical errors that trigger feedback most often – even taking into account that unsolicited use of L1 is more frequent. The next section provides an in-depth discussion of the findings.

10. Discussion

This empirical study quantitatively examined the corrected error types and the CF types that were applied and compared them in the different settings of EFL and CLIL. For a more in-depth analysis, the research questions that were posed at the beginning of this work will be reintroduced now and answered more fully. Moreover, the hypotheses will be tested and the findings will be compared to existing results in the field of error correction, including studies by Lyster and Ranta and Milla and Mayo. Before beginning the discussion, I will briefly reiterate the settings and circumstances of the studies, as this will be useful for interpretation of the results in context. Milla and Mayo's study was set

in secondary education, in a public high school and two different teachers participated. The students were approximately 16-17 years of age and the languages used in the programme are Spanish, Basque and English. Milla and Mayo observed a total of seven lessons, three of them Business Studies and four of them English language classes. The setting of Lyster and Ranta's study was immersion classes at elementary level, and they observed 27 lessons with 4 different teachers: 13 French language art classes and 14 subject lessons.

10.1 Research Question 1

This sub-section is structured as follows: firstly, some general aspects will be discussed, then Research Question 1 will be answered, followed by Research Question 2, and finally, the hypotheses will be addressed.

As far as the overall error correction rate is concerned, it is worth noting that 40% of all errors were corrected, meaning that 60% of the errors did not receive feedback of any sort. Considering that the lessons included a considerable number of communicative activities, it seems probable that the teacher's aim is to foster fluency, so she tries to keep interruptions to a minimum.

Regarding peer- and self-correction, one could ask why students do not correct each other or themselves more often. The reason might be connected with the established way of teaching in Austrian schools, where it is usually the teacher who corrects errors in oral communication. There might be exceptions, where teachers deliberately focus on students correcting each other, but in general, it is considered important that students do not shout out, but only talk when it is their turn (for instance after raising their hand). Students might not want to threaten other students' face as well. Moreover, it is the teacher who decides whether to make a pause and wait for (other) students to react or to correct the error instantly.

Turning now to Research Question 1, the question was formulated in the following way:

RQ1: What types of linguistic errors are corrected during oral communication in EFL and in CLIL?

The findings indicated a variation between the two settings of EFL and CLIL concerning error types that triggered teacher feedback. Although more than half of the corrected

errors in EFL were grammatical errors, the highest figure for all errors was unsolicited use of L1 in CLIL. At the same time, grammatical errors represented not even 10% of all of the corrected errors in CLIL. And although unsolicited use of L1 had a high share (about 40%) in CLIL, in EFL only 20% of all error correction was connected to the use of German. Moving on to the relative frequency, which is also pertinent to Research Question 1, the figures were surprisingly similar for both contexts: correction of phonological errors showed a relative corrective frequency of 1 in EFL and CLIL; lexical correction had a frequency of 1 in CLIL and 0.7 in EFL, which indicates that the teacher frequently corrected phonological errors and lexical errors. Lower relative frequency scores were found for grammatical errors (0.5 in EFL and 0.1 in CLIL), and unsolicited use of L1 (0.2 in EFL and 0.3 in CLIL). This means that the latter error types were corrected less frequently.

	EFL	CLIL
Error that received correction	Grammatical errors – only 10% of all errors	Unsolicited use of L1
Relative frequency	Phonological errors, lexical use	Phonological errors, lexical use

Table 12: RQ 1 – main findings

In brief, the two settings have diverse patterns with regard to the corrected error types: The Grammar errors are the error type that is predominantly corrected in EFL, whereas errors related to the unsolicited use of L1 outweigh the other categories in CLIL. High relative frequency values could be detected for phonological errors and lexical errors, showing similar patterns in both settings. The corrected unsolicited use of L1 had a minor share of all of the unsolicited use of L1 in EFL and CLIL. Variation could be seen in grammatical errors, where EFL had a considerably higher number of corrected errors than CLIL, though.

The high percentage of corrective feedback applied to phonological errors could be rooted in the urge to teach students correct pronunciation and enable them to communicate effectively, which is an important aspect for developing a good command of oral skills. The high level of correction of grammatical errors in EFL could be explained by the form-focus, whose aims are accuracy and correct structures. This would also hint at why this error type is not often corrected in CLIL contexts – indicating that in this context,

negotiation of meaning is more important than an exclusive focus on form. And even though one would expect the correction of the unsolicited use of L1 to be higher in EFL (since EFL has a language focus only) it was actually higher in CLIL. Talking of EFL, written and oral exams are held in English, since language proficiency has to be achieved (which can be seen from the curriculum). Conversely, in CLIL, students can choose to take exams and tests in German (see Rechtsinformationssystem) so that a possible deficiency in their English language skills does not stop them achieving a good grade in the subject which is taught in English. Taking this into account, the teacher's tendency to correct uses of L1 more frequently in CLIL than in EFL might seem surprising – although the tendency might be due to the teacher not being aware of her feedback patterns.

Contrary to my findings, Lyster and Ranta found that over half of the grammatical errors were corrected, in both the French language classroom and in the immersion classroom. The figures in my sample point towards a much lower frequency rate (10%) in the CLIL context (as compared to the immersion classroom). The trend that was detected in the present study is that there is a considerable difference between the more form-focused EFL classroom and the CLIL classroom, which is usually more negotiation-oriented: grammatical errors are much more frequently corrected in the EFL context. Another difference was in the percentage of unsolicited use of L1 errors that received corrective feedback: Lyster and Ranta found higher values (about 50% in the language class and 40% in the subject class) than my sample indicated. In my study, a mere 20% of the unsolicited uses of L1 were corrected. For the language classroom, the two studies showed similar results – about half of the grammatical errors were corrected. For feedback on lexical errors and phonological errors, my sample showed a high rate in both contexts. In the same vein, Lyster and Ranta found a tendency for teachers to correct lexical and phonological errors frequently. (Lyster 2001: 282)

	Lyster & Ranta's study	Present study
Grammatical errors	LC (Language classes) & CC (Content classes): high % is corrected	EFL: more correction CLIL: less correction
Unsolicited L1 use	LC & CC: high % is corrected	CLIL: less correction

Table 13: Differences between Lyster & Ranta's study and the present study

On a general note, one can say that even though there are some congruities between Lyster and Ranta's outcomes and the present research, there are major divergences in other parts. Similar results in terms of the rate of phonological, lexical and grammar error correction are 'contradicted' by the considerably lower grammar-related feedback turns in CLIL as well as the fewer L1 corrections in my study. In brief, there seems to be a remarkable difference in the frequency of feedback moves regarding grammatical errors in the two contexts. As demonstrated in the present study the EFL context, which is rather associated with form orientation, showed much higher CF instances triggered by grammatical errors than the CLIL counterpart. This general trend illustrates the different foci of EFL as compared to CLIL – where grammatical errors might be considered to be of subsidiary importance by the teacher.

Moving on to the relation between error types and CF types, the following was the case: Lyster (2001: 290) argued that lexical errors, if corrected, rather incited negotiation of form, but this is not in line with my sample, which showed that the teacher preferred recasts over negotiation of form. The reason for the low rate of prompts to correct grammatical errors (Lyster 2001), stems from the fact that teachers know that grammar errors are more effort for the students to repair. That might not be the teacher's first priority when we think of the subject focus of immersion classes.

	Lyster & Ranta's study	Present study
Grammatical errors	Recasts	Recasts
Phonological errors		
Lexical errors	Negotiation of form	Recasts

Table 14: Comparison of relation error type and feedback type

Grammatical and phonological errors trigger recasts and the results of my study correspond with those of Lyster and Ranta's study. When it comes to lexical errors, they claim that these are negotiated (Lyster 2001: 290). My findings contradict theirs, indicating that lexical errors are predominantly recasted. In general, Lyster and Ranta's outcomes reveal a regularity in the teachers' feedback strategies: recasts were used for grammatical errors and phonological errors, while negotiation was used for lexical errors (Lyster 2001). These findings could not be supported in my study, where all of the error types were mainly recasted.

The reason for the difference in results might be explained by the different circumstances of the studies. The sample of Lyster and Ranta's study is larger: 27 lessons compared to the 6 lessons in my study. In addition, individual teacher differences might have an influence on the results.

10.2 Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was formulated as follows:

RQ2: What type of oral corrective feedback is used to correct the errors in EFL and in CLIL?

Surprisingly, the results for the CF types used in the two settings resemble each other to a quite high extent. The distribution of reformulations and prompts in EFL corresponded with the distribution of the same for CLIL: 70% of the CF strategies belonged to the category of reformulations, and the residual 30% were prompts. In addition, in both contexts, the vast majority of CF types were recasts: about 50% of the CF types in EFL and approximately 70% in CLIL. Yet, the values for explicit correction were opposite: in EFL, about one fifth and in CLIL only 10% were explicitly corrected – meaning that there was more explicit correction in EFL than in the CLIL context. The figures for elicitation and metalinguistic clues, around 10%, were similar. More specifically, in my sample, the data also provided information on how error types and teacher feedback were interrelated.

Errors	Correction
Phonological, grammatical errors	Recasts, explicit correction
Lexical errors	Recasts, metalinguistic clues
Unsolicited use of L1	Recasts, elicitation

Table 15: relation between error types and corrective feedback types

As might be inferred from the preponderance of recasts, overall, they were the most dominant feedback form for all of the error types. Phonological and grammatical errors, tended to be corrected by reformulations, with explicit correction following recasts in those two error categories. For lexical errors and unsolicited use of L1, the teacher's preference (after recasts) were metalinguistic errors and elicitation, respectively.

Finally, the scores for student feedback revealed that these played a quantitatively inferior role, with only one peer-correction and three self-corrections. All of the student and peer feedback moves were recasts.

Looking at the results, the question that still remains is why the present study revealed these trends in this way. There are a number of possible reasons for the outcomes of the present empirical research. With regard to the corrective feedback types used, it could be argued that the teacher did not use clarification requests and repetition at all, because she felt that they were too intrusive in the lesson procedure, and that they distracted the students too much from the content. This could hold true, at least for CLIL. However, the question of why she did not apply clarification requests and repetition even in EFL, where time can and should sometimes be devoted to fostering language accuracy, is still unanswered. The predominant use of reformulations rather than prompts, might be due to the aim of developing fluency, or might be due to teacher's unawareness of her own CF behaviour. Information on the teacher's view of the results will be provided in the subsequent Sub-section 8.4 below. According to the data, the teacher did not vary the feedback strategy between reformulations and prompts in the EFL and the CLIL classroom. Looking at the feedback strategy used for L1-related errors, it was found that at least some degree of negotiation was involved, using the second most frequent CF forms– metalinguistic clues and elicitation. Yet, for phonological and grammatical errors, explicit correction and the most implicit form – recasts were applied.

It can be suggested that phonological errors require recasts in order to show students the correct pronunciation. Grammatical errors, on the other hand, are more complex for students to process and thus might be the reason that they predominantly trigger recasts (as Lyster argues in his study as well). The expectation that grammatical errors involve more processing from the students goes hand in hand with the expectation that students might need more time, might get confused or at least distracted from the actual topic. Coming back to the present study, the data set allows us to infer that the teacher is careful not to allow the CF to interfere too much with the lesson, and thus tends to opt for recasts, so as to allow the students to continue with their statement. Whether or not students usually realise that the recasts are not confirmations of their utterances or synonyms, but indications of errors, is another matter. (However, assessment of uptake is not part of this work, since including this aspect in the research process would go beyond the scope of this empirical study.)

The question that remains is: How do the results for Research Question 2 compare to those of other research?

Milla & Mayo's study	Present study
EFL: explicit correction = most frequent CLIL: recasts most frequent	EFL: recasts most frequent CLIL: recasts most frequent
EFL: metalinguistic clues, explicit correction, elicitation frequent (not in CLIL!)	EFL + CLIL: elicitation, metalinguistic clues equally distributed EFL: greater amount of explicit correction than in CLIL

Table 16: Comparison of Milla & Mayo's study and the present study

Milla and Mayo (2014)'s study showed predominant use of mixed corrective feedback strategies in EFL (i.e. where several types are used simultaneously) and a predominant use of recasts in CLIL. Furthermore, the study revealed a pattern whereby EFL corrective feedback strategies were more form-focused, whereas in CLIL, implicit correction prevailed (Milla & Mayo 2014: 15). They detected different ways of correcting in each context: Whereas the teacher aimed to keep interference to a minimum in CLIL, in EFL, the teacher usually postponed the feedback to after the utterance, but then focused on correcting explicitly. The EFL teacher used multiple feedback types, such as metalinguistic clues or repetition. In my sample these types of feedback were used quite rarely and besides, no variation described by them as "delayed feedback" was predominant in EFL classes. Their study showed significant differences in the types of explicit correction and repetition, indicating that in EFL, explicit correction and repetition were preferred to implicit correction. Conversely, CLIL contexts illustrated that recasts were clearly dominant in that particular context. (Milla & Mayo 2014)

Similar results were found in the two studies in terms of the frequency of recasts – Milla and Mayo's study (see 2014) and my study showed a high frequency of recasts in CLIL. Different outcomes, however, can be seen in the number of recasts used in EFL: Milla and Mayo (2014: 9) reported explicit CF strategies to be the most frequently used in EFL, whereas the teacher in the present study preferred recasts over any other feedback category in EFL as well. Moving on to explicit forms of CF, Milla and Mayo argue that elicitation, metalinguistic clues and explicit correction were quite common in EFL–unlike the feedback given in CLIL. In contrast, the present study demonstrated that these

types were equally distributed among the two contexts, with the exception of explicit correction: as already mentioned, the number of corrections of those types in EFL outweighed the number occurring in CLIL.

Comparing the two studies is problematic, in that the teacher in EFL used a variety of different strategies, which were then considered as a single, multiple category. This category was omitted from the present study, because it is unclear. Moreover, Milla and Mayo's study involved 2 teachers, whereas my study involved 1 teacher.

Although in EFL, more negotiation of errors and feedback might have been expected, given the form orientation of this context, Milla and Mayo's results (2014) are only partly in line with the ones of the present study. They found a tendency towards implicit correction in CLIL a more form-focused feedback in EFL, whereas my study points toward an implicit feedback approach in both settings. The results may differ from one another because there was only one teacher in my study, so no personal teaching style that had to be considered. Although Milla and Mayo found variations in their study, it must still be acknowledged that the different teaching styles perhaps influenced the outcomes. Before moving on to the hypotheses, I will provide an excerpt of the teacher's view of the results and her CF strategies.

10.3 Teacher's view

This sub-section will present insights into the teacher's thoughts, since, they seem to shed light on the teacher's cognitive processes and the complex processes involved. Knowing the students and their skills and deficiencies, and the two learning contexts well, the teacher's thoughts are interesting and contribute to a clearer understanding of the underlying reasons for her actions. Understanding the teacher's behaviour is a first step towards investigating underlying structures and in turn, increasing awareness and establishing an in-depth basis for more consistent and effective feedback strategies, and more research is needed in this area in the future.

The teacher was happy to have taken part in the study and used the study's findings as feedback for her own teaching. She was surprised that the percentage of indirect correction strategies for the geography lessons was quite high (30%). According to the teacher, the reason for the high percentage of unsolicited use of L1 is triggered by the students' willingness to express their views on more complex themes as well, and if they

want to include their prior knowledge of themes that they have only covered in their mother tongue before. This is in line with the findings reported in the results section, which showed the tendency of students to use German, especially in situations when personal topics are explored and where they are giving their opinions.

What is highly interesting is that the teacher's explanation for the high share of unsolicited use of L1 in geography classes is that she considers it crucial for the students to know the technical terms not only in English but in German as well. That would hint at a more conscious approach on the part of the teacher, meaning that at least some of the L1 use is tolerated or might even be promoted. Unfortunately, however, this explanation contradicts the results of the study, since the teacher corrected more unsolicited use of L1 errors in CLIL than in EFL.

The teacher also said that she was prone to correcting a great number of phonological errors, since she wanted to enable the students to successfully communicate on a quite high level. The teacher said she was careful not to correct every grammatical error, so as not to discourage the students and to promote fluency of speech.

Including the teacher's thoughts on the data was interesting for two reasons: Firstly, it showed the level of awareness that she had regarding the theme of error correction and her own correcting behaviour. And secondly, underlying policies and beliefs were partly revealed, hence could shed some light on why she (re)acted as she did. Making these views visible is the first step of starting to work on reflection and change.

10.4 Scrutiny of hypotheses

Having answered the research questions and discussed the teacher's view on her corrective feedback strategies, we will now move to the three hypotheses that were generated at the beginning of the study.

C	H1: More linguistic errors are corrected in the EFL context than in the CLIL context.
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The first hypothesis concerned linguistic errors that entail basically the whole set of error types except content errors, which were excluded from this study (see Section 6). Overall, the percentage of linguistic errors that were corrected was higher in EFL than in CLIL. In other words, Hypothesis 1 could be confirmed, which means that in my sample, more linguistic errors were corrected in an EFL context than in a CLIL context.

R	H2: Only lexical errors are corrected equally in terms of frequency in the EFL and the CLIL context.
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To test Hypothesis 2, the relative frequency was taken into account. This hypothesis was based on the assumption that the teacher would correct lexical errors in EFL as often as in CLIL, since both contexts have a language focus. It was expected that the correction of phonological and grammatical errors, as well as unsolicited use of L1, would vary across the two settings. The reason for this assumption was that CLIL has an additional focus, which is subject matter, and that therefore, the teacher might generally restrict the correction to lexical errors, to enable smooth and successful communication. As the results demonstrate, all of the phonological errors trigger feedback, and lexical errors were corrected much more frequently in CLIL than in EFL, corrected at a rate of 0.5 in EFL and 0.1 in CLIL, grammatical errors were the only category that showed a lower relative frequency in CLIL than it did in EFL. Taking all relative frequency scores into account, the second hypothesis can be refuted, albeit grammatical errors are corrected to a lesser extent. Lexical errors are not corrected equally in terms of frequency in the two settings (and the unsolicited use of L1 triggered feedback even more often in CLIL than in EFL).

C	H3: Recasts are more common in CLIL than in EFL.
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The data in my study allowed Hypothesis 3 to be confirmed. The outcomes revealed that even though both settings had considerably high shares of recasts in the overall feedback types, the teacher recasted more in CLIL (67%) than in EFL (54%). Thus, the hypothesis that recasts are more common in CLIL than in EFL is confirmed for my sample.

The findings have been discussed in light of the research outcomes of other studies, the research questions have been answered and hypotheses have been verified (H1 and H3) or refuted (H2). After having scrutinised the hypotheses, it is time to draw a conclusion in the last section.

11. Conclusion

CLIL has received much of attention over the past decade, and has been explored from many different research angles. There appeared to be a research gap in research focusing on the distinction between the EFL and the CLIL contexts according to CF strategies

used. This quantitative study aimed at investigating the variety of error types and the variations in the use of CF strategies in these two learning contexts. Overall, the relation between different settings and the teacher's corrective feedback behaviour was examined. And in particular, the types of corrective feedback strategies that were used were analysed, including the teacher's and the students' habits according to the context. In addition, the errors that triggered correction were examined across type and setting.

The expectations were that, in general, more linguistic errors would be corrected in the EFL context and that the only error type that would show equal frequency of correction in both contexts would be lexical errors. Furthermore, it was considered reasonable that recasts would be the most frequent corrective feedback move in the CLIL context. Two of these hypotheses (H1 and H3) could be confirmed, and one (H2) refuted. More information on the predominant trends will be summarised below.

To conclude, one of the main patterns that could be detected is that when it comes to the difference of the two contexts, the errors that make up the biggest share of the total error correction are grammatical errors in EFL and unsolicited use of L1 in CLIL. The latter finding contradicts that of other studies (cf. Lyster 2011). The form-focus in EFL accounts for the results in EFL, but the outcome in the CLIL context is surprising, because in CLIL, there is a dual focus, which includes content. It is assumed that this unexpected outcome might be the result of a possible unawareness on the part of the teacher of her own CF strategies. General tendencies for CF showed that the overwhelming majority of CF was in the shape of recasts – reformulations by which the teacher provides the correct form, rather than prompts where the students themselves repair. In the present study, self-correction and peer-correction were found to play a minor role. While Lyster and Ranta found that lexical errors were typically negotiated, my results did not indicate any instance where negotiation outweighed the most popular form of feedback (recasts). This preference on the part of the teacher might be rooted in the non-intrusive nature of recasts and the fact that they allow an immediate resumption of the topic.

Milla & Mayo argue that the EFL context produces varied corrective feedback strategies, while CLIL is dominated by implicit forms. Conversely, my study shows a clear preponderance of implicit feedback in both settings. This is somewhat unexpected, as more negotiation of form could have been expected in the CLIL context. Even if parts of

my study corresponded with the findings of other researchers (cf Lyster; Milla & Mayo), the majority of the findings did not show similarities to existing data. These differences might also be enhanced by the small sample size of my study compared to Lyster & Ranta's study.

It should be noted that my research was of an exploratory nature and thus, is rather hard to generalise. Nonetheless, important insights could be gained into the as yet insufficiently explored area of the adopted CF moves by teachers across EFL and CLIL settings. In order to enhance and strengthen the effects of feedback strategies on language learning in both contexts, further research is required to explore which feedback moves are provided for which error type(s) – and are the most successful, for each context individually. Future research should also take into account the teachers' approach to the correction process and involve them in the research process in order to raise awareness on the topic of CF strategies and possible variations across contexts. It is hoped that this would in turn lead to CF strategies that are consistent, reflective and varied.

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Appendix

Abstract

Although further research is necessary to fully explore the differences between oral corrective feedback in CLIL and EFL classes, the proposed research is directed towards shedding light on this area. One of the main objectives of this work is to provide useful insights into which errors are corrected in CLIL classes, and in what context, as compared to the feedback moves applied in the EFL classroom. Contrasting the corrective behaviour findings for CLIL classes with the results for EFL classes should foster understanding of common practices used among teachers. The results are expected to vary, as the focus of the two above-mentioned contexts range from a language focus only (EFL) to a language AND content focus (CLIL).

In terms of methodology, the study is based on quantitative research. The required data was collected using a classroom observation procedure in one class taught by one teacher and debriefing sessions were used to receive information on the teacher's view on the results. The sample consisted of three CLIL (geography) lessons and three EFL lessons. The evaluation of the data was based on transcripts of the classroom recordings. The study was carried out in Upper Austria. The results show that more linguistic errors are corrected in the EFL context than in the CLIL context. Moreover, the findings indicate that recasts are more common in CLIL than in EFL. Although the results are limited in scope due to the small number of samples, this work has the potential to initiate further exploration of this research area.

Zusammenfassung

Diese Arbeit zielt auf die Erforschung der Unterschiede zwischen der mündlichen Fehlerkorrektur in EFL und CLIL Klassen. Die Ergebnisse sollen Informationen zu den Handlungspraktiken, die von Lehrpersonen im Zusammenhang mit Fehlerkorrektur angewendet werden, liefern. Dabei wird im Besonderen der Unterschied zwischen den beiden Kontexten EFL und CLIL untersucht, wodurch die unter Lehrpersonen vorherrschenden Praktiken besser verstanden werden sollen.

Die Arbeit zählt zur quantitativen Forschung und die verwendeten Methoden umfassen Unterrichtsaufzeichnungen in einer Klasse bei einer Lehrperson. Es wurden Transkripte der Unterrichtseinheiten erstellt und analysiert. Insgesamt wurden sechs Unterrichtseinheiten beobachtet, davon waren drei Englisch Stunden und drei CLIL Geographie Stunden. Außerdem wurden Nachbesprechungen mit der Lehrperson durchgeführt, die es ermöglicht haben die Sichtweise der Lehrperson auf die Ergebnisse in die Arbeit einzubinden. Die Studie wurde in Oberösterreich durchgeführt.

Es konnten beispielsweise folgende Unterschiede zwischen dem sprachorientierten EFL Unterricht und dem inhalts- und sprachorientierten CLIL Unterricht gefunden werden: Die Resultate zeigen, dass im EFL Unterricht mehr sprachliche Fehler korrigiert werden als im CLIL Unterricht. Grammatikfehler werden im CLIL Unterricht seltener als im EFL Unterricht korrigiert, wobei diese Fehlerkategorie die einzige ist, die im CLIL Unterricht niedrigere Werte als im EFL Unterricht aufweist.

Die Ergebnisse sind zwar aufgrund der kleinen Stichprobe nur eingeschränkt vergleichbar, jedoch besteht das Potenzial der Arbeit auch darin einen Anreiz für weitere Studien in dem Forschungsgebiet mündliche Fehlerkorrektur im EFL und CLIL Unterricht zu schaffen.