Interactional Patterns by English Specialists and Content Teachers at Secondary School

Lucía Gómez López

(MESOB) Especialidad de Inglés

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INTERACTIONAL PATTERNS BY ENGLISH SPECIALISTS AND CONTENT TEACHERS AT SECONDARY SCHOOL

Author: Lucía Gómez López

Tutor: Ana Llinares García

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation accomplishes a study framed on interactional patterns: teachers' initiation, students' response, teachers' Corrective Feedback and students' response to it, namely, uptake. This study attempts to examine and contrast the differences obtained in three 2nd ESO extracurricular classes where English is taught by both content teachers and English specialists at the secondary level. Observation of 12 distinct sessions was attained using an observation sheet adapted from COLT[1] Part B (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) and applying the error treatment sequence proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Findings indicate that there exist differences between content teachers who mostly rely on recasts and English experts who frequently turn to translations but do also employ a wider variety of Corrective Feedback types. Two new types of Corrective Feedback were incorporated within this study: paraphrased feedback and translation prompting. Finally, some pedagogical implications on how to enhance and hone teachers' teaching practices will also be contemplated.

Keywords: initiation, response, Corrective Feedback, uptake, content teacher, English specialist, IRF, error treatment sequence, COLT.

1. COLT stands for Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995).

RESUMEN

Este trabajo de fin de máster realiza un estudio enmarcado en los patrones interaccionales: la iniciación de los profesores, la respuesta de los alumnos, el Feedback Correctivo de los profesores y la respuesta de los alumnos a éste, es decir, la absorción ('uptake'). Este estudio trata de examinar y contrastar las diferencias obtenidas en tres clases extraescolares de 2º ESO en las que el inglés es impartido tanto por profesores de contenido como por especialistas en inglés en el nivel de secundaria. Se observaron 12 sesiones distintas utilizando una hoja de observación adaptada a la Parte B del COLT[1] (Spada y Fröhlich, 1995) y aplicando la secuencia de tratamiento de errores propuesta por Lyster y Ranta (1997). Los resultados indican que existen diferencias entre los profesores de contenido que apelan principalmente a los 'recasts' y los expertos en inglés que recurren con frecuencia a las traducciones, pero que también emplean una mayor variedad de tipos de Feedback Correctivo. En este estudio se incorporaron dos nuevos tipos de Feedback Correctivo: llamados 'paraphrased recast' y 'translation prompting'. Por último, también se contemplan algunas implicaciones pedagógicas sobre cómo mejorar y perfeccionar las prácticas docentes de los profesores.

Palabras clave: iniciación, respuesta, Feedback Correctivo, absorción (uptake), profesor/a de contenido, especialista en inglés, IRF, sequencia de tratamiendo de errores, COLT.

1. COLT hace referencia al esquema de Orientación Comunicativa de la Enseñanza de Idiomas (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995).

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the last decades, Corrective Feedback has become a fundamental component within Second Language Acquisition. Yet, the question on how many and what type of errors should be addressed and the type of CF employed requires to pay attention to contextual factors. Lyster and Ranta (1997) published a study framed on CF and learners' response to it, namely uptake, and since then, these features received much more attention. They developed an error treatment sequence, pigeonholing each type of CF and uptake under a named label. This classification will be taken as a departure point throughout this analysis.

Within this Master's Dissertation Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence will be analysed within Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) Initiation-Response-Follow up or Feedback (henceforth IRF) exchange structure. An adaptation of Spada and Fröhlich (1995) Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (henceforward COLT), more precisely Part B, concerned with learners' and teachers' verbal interactions and thus, communicative features, has been applied and adapted in order to measure the data obtained.

Thereupon, within this theoretical framework, this inquiry seeks to support the attainment of clear patterns regarding mainly the quantity and CF types employed by English specialists and content teachers in speaking-oriented classes to three 2nd ESO groups where the English language is taught within an extracurricular course. Nonetheless, teachers' initiation through questions, length of students' responses, coupled with students' response to CFs, namely uptake, will also be measured. What is more, all this data will be interpreted through the participating teachers' beliefs about their teaching practices, more specifically in relation to the features addressed in this study. Ultimately, all the gathered data will be compared and contrasted to previous studies in order to hypothesise and explore plausible explanations.

This study is thus designed to start giving a detailed theoretical overview of each of the analysed features which constitute the blend of the IRF pattern and the three moves (+one) involved in Oral Corrective Feedback (hereafter OCF) – initiation, response, feedback, uptake, following Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence. Afterwards, an exhaustive presentation of the methodology will be accomplished emphasising the instruments employed for the data collection and analysis – COLT and an adaptation to Lyster and Ranta's error treatment sequence –. Then,

within the results and discussion sections, findings from both the observation and the final teachers' questionnaire which gathered information regarding their beliefs, will be examined and exhaustively discussed. Finally, a closing section devoted not only to the consideration of some attainable pedagogical implications striving to improve teaching practices, but also including additional reflections on diversity will also be included for the sake of suggesting further research on the study and possible avenues in which Corrective Feedback could be successfully implemented to manage diversity in the English classroom setting.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The issue of how English teachers initiate conversation and react to students' utterances, together with the latter's responses to both teachers' questions and feedback are the main concerns of this paper. Indeed, given the importance of these interactional patterns – questions, responses, Corrective Feedback (CF) and uptake – in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), a wide range of studies have been devoted to analysing and examining these particular matters, aiming at providing accurate definitions of each term and describing their types. Therefore, throughout this section of the study a detailed review of the literature employed will be accomplished.

Classroom communication exchanges are frequently initiated with a question raised by the teacher in order to capture the students' attention and engage him/her in classroom interaction. Several investigations and studies have been concerned with the distinct types of questions and their quantity, as well as students' responses and their length. Richards (2003; in Al-Zahrani & Al-Bargi, 2017: 135) declared that "*the act of verbal questioning and answering that occurs between teacher and student is more frequent than any other event in EFL classrooms*". Yet, when erroneous responses occur, teachers' feedback is required.

Hattie (1999; in Voerman et al., 2012: 1107) considered feedback as "*one of the most influential factors in learning, as powerful as the quality and quantity of instruction*". Corrective Feedback by second English teachers is approached by Lyster and Ranta (1997: 42) "*as an analytic teaching strategy*". Llinares-García (2005: 12) includes CF within the category of pedagogical feedback and details it as a type of teacher's feedback which together with positive and negative evaluation "*includes changes in the learner's utterance*".

Positive – positive comment made by the teacher –, negative – negative comment made by the teacher – and interactional feedback – "*comment made by the teacher, with no evaluative or corrective purpose, which may enhance the learners' linguistic production*" (Llinares, 2005: 12) – also appear in this study. Yet, they will not be heeded in detail due to space constraints. This study will be therefore mainly concerned with Corrective Feedback.

Notwithstanding, other more contemporary researchers such as Milla and García-Mayo (2021) or Yang and Lyster (2010) use the term Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF) to distinguish it from written feedback. The analysis of OCF is based on Lyster and Ranta (1997) study but rather specifies in more detail the three moves; (1) error produced by the learner; (2) teacher's OCF move through feedback; and (3) learners' reaction to that OCF, what is commonly known as uptake, if it appears (Milla & García-Mayo, 2021).

These three moves are contextualised within the IRF exchange – Initiation-Response-Follow-up or Feedback – developed in the 70s by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975; in Llinares et al., 2012: 78), which is described as "*a type of interaction where the teacher initiated some form of action, usually through a question, the students respond, and the teacher acknowledges the student's response*". According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975; in Saswati, 2018: 32) this pattern is considered to "*facilitate learner-initiated communication and learning opportunities*".

Notwithstanding, in the IRF pattern the learner's reaction (uptake) is not studied. In fact, some represents scholars have criticised the nature of the IRF pattern since it does not "*encourage students' initiation and repair*" (van Lier, 1988; in Llinares et al., 2012: 78) and it limits a more conversational manner of interacting in class. What is more, van Lier also pointed out some years later (1996; 151; in Saikko, 2007: 18) that the IRF pattern did not represent *"true joint construction of discourse*" since neither students' ideas nor thoughts could be explored by teachers and thus, it reduced the former's motivation. Besides, other scholars such as Noviana and Ardi (2015) claim that IRFs are not always effective since they challenge students' knowledge, what avoids their use by teachers. Walsh (2006; in Saswati, 2018: 32) also doubts about its effectiveness claiming that "*the pattern is a rigid structure to follow and it is applied well in 1960-1970ies in which the traditional classroom interaction is still found*".

On the contrary, other researchers such as Nikula (2007; in Saikko, 2007: 24) point out that "*there is nothing in the actual structure of the IRF pattern that would lead to teacher dominance in classroom interaction*". In fact, the IRF pattern can also be beneficial in the school context if it is adequately employed. Additionally, this pattern also helps teachers to manage the classroom, controlling the time devoted to each interaction (Campuzano, 2018). Therefore, and as a way to

combine the positive and beneficial aspects of both interactional models (IRF and CF), this study will apply both to the classroom observations under analysis. Figure 1 below shows how these two models are interrelated.

	INITIATION	RESPONSE	FEEDBACK	UPTAKE
IRF (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975)	✓	✓	✓	
3 moves in OCF (based on Lyster & Ranta, 1997)		✓ It should be an erroneous response.	✓	✓

Figure 1: Relation between IRF and the three moves of OCF.

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) development of error treatment sequences starts in the R of the IRF pattern, specifically when students' responses are erroneous (see Figure 2 below).

As it can be appreciated beneath, Lyster and Ranta's sequence begins with an erroneous utterance from the learner, which can be of different types. Nonetheless, this paper will only focus on formal errors – lexical, grammatical and phonological –. Afterwards, the teacher can provide Corrective Feedback if he/she aims to correct the student's response or overlook the erroneous utterance and thus, move to topic continuation. In the event that the teacher corrects the student's utterance, different types of feedback can be employed, as it will be detailed in the following lines. Nonetheless, teacher's feedback is not always noticed by the student, thus, this corrective feedback can either be followed by uptake or not, which involves topic continuation. On the off chance that the student becomes aware of the teacher's feedback and reacts to it, learner uptake is achieved. The student can either repair the utterance, or maintain it with the needs to be repaired. In the latter case, the teacher will need to provide feedback once again. However, if this does not happen, there would be topic continuation. Finally, if repair is provided, this can be followed by either topic continuation or by the teacher's suppliance of some repair-related reinforcement, which will be ultimately followed by topic continuation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

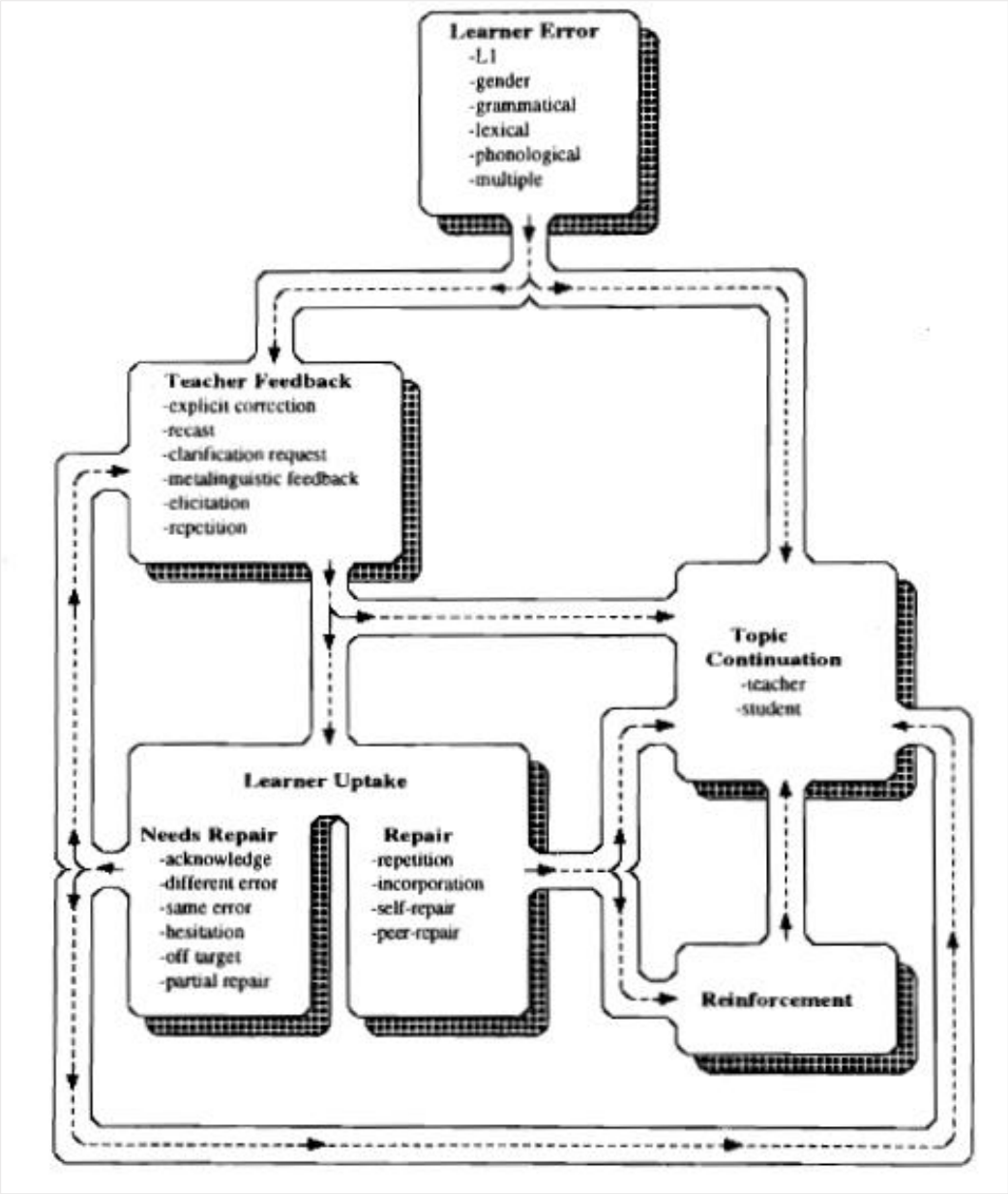


Figure 2: Error treatment sequence, taken from Lyster and Ranta, 1997.

Yet, throughout the following lines this paper will aim to thoroughly present the combination between the IRF pattern and Lyster and Ranta's (1997) 3 studied moves in their error treatment sequence, explaining in depth each of the previous presented categories. Each of the following subcategories will be devoted to one of the interactional patterns in which this study has been framed on – initiation, response, corrective feedback and uptake –. This division aims to help the reader understand the observation sheet designed for this study.

2.1. INITIATION

To begin with, classroom interaction is usually initiated by the teacher and very often through questions. Indeed, "*learning occurs as the result of questions*" since the teacher stimulates students' reasoning capacities (Tuan & Nhu, 2010: 32) and frequently initiates communication.

In this study, I will focus on the IRF, not only on CF, therefore different types of questions and thus, initiation moves will be considered. Mehan (1979; in Llinares et al., 2012) distinguished between two main types of questions: (a) display questions – "*those whose answer is known by the questioner*" (Llinares et al., 2012: 83) –, and (b) referential questions – which "*seek information unknown to the teacher*" (Llinares et al., 2012: 83) –. According to several studies display questions are more frequent than referential questions within the classroom setting (Long & Sato, 1983; Romero & Llinares, 2001; in Llinares et al., 2012: 84). Yet, "*referential questions tend to trigger more complex and longer answers from the student, since they are 'real' questions, formulated to demand unknown information*" (Brock, 1986; Long and Sato, 1983; in Llinares et al., 2012: 84). On the contrary, through display questions "*the teacher is interested in obtaining new information not on the subject matter but on what and how much the students know*" (Llinares et el., 2012: 84). Despite the fact that this type of questions is "*part of the 'naturalness' of any learning context*", teachers' overuse could limit students' answers (Llinares et al., 2012: 84).

It seems that providing students with a combination of both types of questions would be desirable. Tuan and Nhua (2010) maintain that an appropriate choice of question could boost students' participation, as well as enhance their learning and foster the production of more complex and advanced utterances. Indeed, according to the results of their study "*questions that stimulated most oral speech by students were simple, short and easy to understand*", regardless of its type (Tuan and Nhua, 2010: 34).

2.2. RESPONSE

Every teacher initiation should be followed by a response accomplished by the student. One of the seven major components studied by Part B of the COLT is called 'sustained speech' and concerns students' responses (Ellis, 2012). Sustained speech distinguishes between 3 types of

students' responses depending on its length and complexity – ultraminimal, minimal and sustained –. Each of the subcategories are described below by means of examples from the corpus.

- Ultra-minimal: considering as ultraminimal a monosyllabic or minimum phrase, such as "*yes*" or "*no*".
- Minimal: understanding as minimal a simple sentence, such as "*you can divide your money*".
- Sustained: interpreting sustained answers as subordinate and more complex sentences, such as "*because if you wear fashion clothes, you're more beautiful*".

Yet, students' responses to teachers' initiations can be correct or incorrect. Erroneous responses are often followed by Corrective Feedback.

2.3. CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six main types of feedback. Nonetheless, within this study two new feedback types have been incorporated and named as paraphrased recasts and translation prompting. In the same vein, translation will be considered an independent type of CF. Figure 3 beneath illustrates and classifies the different types of feedback from more implicit to more explicit.

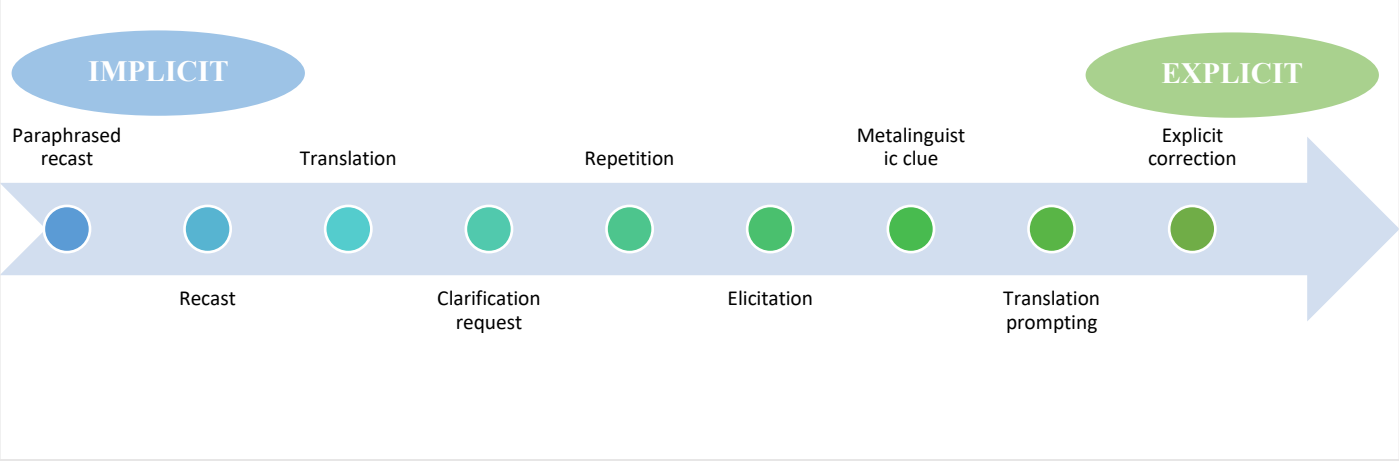


Figure 3: Continuum of the types of feedback in order of explicitness, adapted from Milla & Mayo (2014).

Both explicit correction and recasts have been grouped into a larger category called "reformulations" since both types of feedback directly offer the target form. On the contrary, the rest of the types of feedback, can be classified under the label "prompts" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; in Lyster and Mori, 2006) since they evoke students' self-repair (Milla & García-Mayo, 2021). In other words, "*by prompting, a teacher provides clues for learners to draw on their own resources to self-repair, whereas by providing explicit correction or recasting, a teacher both initiates and completes a repair within a single move*" (Lyster & Mori, 2006: 272).

CFs can also be classified depending on whether they are more or less direct (Sermsook et al., 2017). On the one hand, direct feedback includes reformulations (recast, paraphrased recast, translation, explicit correction), whereas indirect feedback focuses on prompts (clarification request, repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic clue and translation prompting). Table 1 below illustrates this classification.

DIRECT CFs	**INDIRECT CFs**
· Recast · Translation · Paraphrased recast · Explicit correction	· Clarification request · Repetition · Elicitation · Metalinguistic clue · Translation prompting

Table 1: Classification of CFs in direct or indirect.

It is necessary to mention that "*it may not be necessary or even possible for researchers to identify the single most effective CF strategy*" but rather teachers may need to coordinate "*a wide range of CF types benefiting the instructional context*" (Lyster, Saito and Sato, 2013; 21; in Llinares & Lyster, 2014: 3). Therefore, throughout the following lines the different types of feedback will be defined and exemplified with real instances gathered throughout the observation period, without claiming that one type is more effective than the rest, adopting Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy of Corrective Feedback types. Notice that all the examples presented throughout the following lines as a way to complement the definitions, have been taken from the corpus analysed within this study.

2.3.1. REFORMULATIONS

1. Explicit correction: "*refers to the provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 46).

Example (1)[2]:

T: People won't be able to stop producing trash. What do you think about this?
S: People can't stop contaminating.
T: **Polluting. Not contaminating. POLLUTE** [EXPLICIT CORRECTION].
S: Yes.

2. Recast: according to Lyster and Ranta (1997: 46) this type of corrective feedback involves "*the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error*". Indeed, Spada and Fröhlich (1995; in Lyster and Ranta, 1997: 46) refer to this type of feedback as 'paraphrase'. What is more, this type of CF could be further classified as implicit or explicit, depending whether it is more or less salient.

Example (2):

T: Have you ever picked up a bargain in the sales? What was it?
S: Yes, one trainers.
T: **A pair of trainers** [RECAST].

Lyster and Ranta (1997: 47) include *"translations in response to a student's use of the L1*" as recasts, since both serve the same function. However, Pavona and Lyster (2002; in Surakka, 2007) understand it as a distinct category, as it will be considered throughout this paper.

2. Students' error will appear underlined and teachers' Corrective Feedback will be presented in bold.

2.1. Translation: according to Pavona and Lyster (2002; in Surakka, 2007: 39) occurs "*when a teacher hears a student use her/his L1 (first language), and if the uses of L1 is not permitted, the teacher will translate the student's utterance*".

Example (2.1):

T: Does anyone need to give you money back?
S: My father 'me robó 5 euros'.
T: OK. Your father **stole you 5 euros** [TRANSLATION].

Recasts are regarded as the most popular feedback technique in a vast majority of studies, such as the one accomplished by Lyster and Ranta (1997) or Llinares and Lyster (2014). Lyster's study (2007; in Llinares & Lyster, 2014: 8) claimed that "*recasts serve to: (1) maintain the flow of communication; (2) keep students' attention focussed on content; and (3) enable learners to participate in interaction that requires linguistic abilities exceeding their current development level*", which make recasts extremely beneficial for learners. Indeed, Seedhouse (1997; in Sheen, 2004: 271) mentions that teachers do also prefer this type of feedback due to its "*non-threatening, mitigated, unobtrusive (and) implicit*" nature.

2.2. Paraphrased recast: this study will incorporate a distinct type of recast which resembles Mohan and Beckett's (2003: 423) functional recasts, which offer "*an alternative, more literate, precise way to express the meaning*". Paraphrased recasts will provide a distinct and sometimes more accurate version of the students' corrected utterance so that the rest of students can listen to other variants of the same utterance. Yet, their distinctive characteristics will be detailed in depth in the discussion section.

Example (2.2):

T: Have you ever found a bargain??
S: Ah, my father bought the football tickets for a lower price.
T: OK. Your father **was able to buy football tickets for a lower price. Cheaper than expected** [PARAPHRASED RECAST].

2.3.2. PROMPTS

3. Clarification request: Spada and Fröhlich (1995, p.25; in Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 47) clarify that this type of Corrective Feedback indicates "*to students whether that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required*".

Example (3):

T: Have you ever picked up a bargain in the sales? What was it?
[…][3]
S: Teacher, me too. A 'crucero' with Jose.
T: **Sorry?** [CLARIFICATION REQUEST]
S: A cruise with my family.
T: Thank you. Try to speak in English, please.

4. Metalinguistic feedback: "*contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 47). This type of feedback offers a linguistic explanation in order to detail the nature of the error, at the same time as pursuing the elicitation of the information from the student.

Example (4):

T: What was the last thing you bought?
S: I think… my mother invite me to dinner.
T: **Darling, you're talking about the past…** [METALINGUSITIC FEEDBACK]

4.1. Translation prompting: this new type of feedback has been separated from the categorisation within metalinguistic feedback due to its high frequency. Translation prompting incite the student to translate their L1 utterance into the L2 by using a clear-cut comment such as "In English!". Yet, its characteristics will be detailed in depth in the discussion section.

3. […] : some part of the exchange was eliminated due to lack of relevance or space constraints.

Example (4.1):

T: Do you lend money to someone?

S: 'mi padre me pilló 10€'.

T: **In English!** [TRANSLATION PROMPTING]

5. Elicitation: it includes at least three different techniques:

   (a) teachers can elicit the completion of a sentence;

   (b) teachers can ask question that elicit the correct answer; and

   (c) teachers can ask for reformulation of the student's utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

In Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, this type of feedback is considered the most successful for eliciting students' uptake.

Example (5)[4]:

T: What does your father love doing?

S: My father love cooking.

T: **My father…?** [ELICITATION]

6. Repetition: "*refers to the teachers' repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 48).

Example (6):

T: Someone else?

S: Yes, in Christmas I buy…

T: **I buy…?** [REPETITION]

S: I bought a graphic card for the computer.

4. As there was no instance of this type of Corrective Feedback in the students' production, this example is an invented one used for the teachers' questionnaire.

Lyster and Ranta (1997: 48) also mention a seventh type of feedback, called "multiple feedback" which refers to "*combination of more than one type of feedback in one teacher turn*", as it is exemplified below. Nonetheless, this type of feedback will not be regarded within this study due to space constraints.

Example (7):

T: What did you get in your last birthday?

S: My family give me a … 'una entrada para un concierto'.

T: Ah, OK. Your family **gave** you [RECAST] **a ticket for a concert** [TRANSLATION].

Lyster and Ranta's (1997: 54) findings "*indicate an overwhelming tendency for teachers to use recasts in spite of the latter's ineffectiveness at eliciting student-generated repair*". On the contrary, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests and repetition "*lead to student-generated repair more successfully and are thus able to initiate what the authors characterise as focus on form*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 54). Besides, as it has been proved throughout more recent studies based on the effectiveness of both recasts and prompts, which have proved to have distinct impact regarding uptake and repair depending on the type of corrected error. Prompts are more efficient for grammar errors, whereas recasts are more efficient for pronunciation and lexical ones (Bryfonski & Ma, 2020, Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Saito, 2013, in Milla & García-Mayo, 2021).

There is a clear dilemma in CF use: "*if teachers do not correct errors, opportunities for students to make links between form and function are reduced; if teachers do correct errors, they risk interrupting the flow of communication*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 41). Therefore, teachers do struggle not only with the most efficient type of feedback, but also with the ideal quantity which should be provided, since once the limit is surpassed "*it can become discouraging and destructive*" (Alqahtani & Al-enzi, 2011: 216). Despite the fact that some researchers claim that positive evidence is more than enough to enhance the acquisition of a second language (Krashen, 1982; Schwartz, 1993; in Sheen, 2004) and that negative evidence, such as Corrective Feedback, may harm the learner and thus, the process (Sheen, 2004), there are others, such as Long (1996; in Sheen, 2004) or Schmidt (1990; 1995; in Sheen, 2004) who developed the Interaction and the Noticing Hypothesis respectively, maintaining that corrective, or as they called them negative feedback, is an opportunity for learners to "*attend to linguistic form*" and to "*notice the gap between*

interlanguage forms and target Forms" (Sheen, 2004: 263). Furthermore, in a more recent study, Li (2010: 312) claims that Corrective Feedback is effective in second language acquisition, which is commonly attributed "*to the negative evidence it entails*".

2.4. UPTAKE

As it has been examined throughout several studies, the last element included within Figure 1 above is known as uptake, the student's reaction to Corrective Feedback. Therefore, this study will also take it into consideration. Lyster and Ranta (1997: 49) provide a definition for learner uptake, which is described as "*a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance*". In other words, uptake discloses the student's response to the teacher's feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Due to the disputes regarding the effectiveness of understanding learners' repair as a way to measure feedback, student's uptake has always been observed as a legitimate object of inquiry. However, Corrective Feedback does not always lead to learner's uptake – "*a range of possible responses made by students following CF*" (Llinares & Lyster, 2014: 2) –. Indeed, for students to provide uptake, noticing is needed (Milla & García-Mayo, 2021). Nonetheless, Chaudron (1997; in Sheen, 2004; 266) "*notes that uptake serves as an indicator of the effectiveness of CF*". In the same way, a more updated research accomplished by Mackey et al. (2000; in Sheen, 2004: 267) "*argue(s) convincingly that learner uptake serves as evidence that learners have understood the corrective nature of the interlocutor's move and that uptake may help learners to notice the gap between the target form and an interlanguage form*". Therefore, in her study, Sheen (2004) declared that when uptake is accomplished, language development occurs.

Yet, in the event that uptake is provided instead of topic continuation, there exist two different types of learner uptake: "*(a) uptake that results in "repair" of the error on which the feedback focused, and (b) uptake that results in an utterance that still needs repair (coded as "needs-repair")*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 49).

On the one hand, according to Lyster & Ranta's (1997: 49) model, repair "*refers to the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn and not to the sequence of*

turns resulting in the correct reformulation; nor does it refer to self-initiated repair" (see Example 8). What is more, within the category of 'repair' Lyster and Ranta (1997) analysed four different types: repetition – student's repetition of the teacher's correction –, incorporation – student's incorporation of the correction in a longer utterance –, self-repair and peer-repair, which will be scarcely approached within the present study due to space constraints. Nonetheless, it is also necessary to mention that it is not an easy task to determine "*whether all repairs are equally effective indicators that students have noticed the feedback*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 49). Indeed, "*a repair in which the student simply repeats what the teacher has said does not necessarily imply that the feedback has been understood as such*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 49). In fact, as it will be examined throughout this study, each type of Corrective Feedback leads to different types of "repair" or the lack of it.

Example (8):

T: Have you ever gone to buy something and found that they had already sld out?
S: Yes, when there are 'rebajas' (?)[5]
T: **Sales** [TRANSLATION]
S: *Yes, when there are sales things are sold out fast.*[6] [INCORPORATION]

On the other hand, under the heading "needs-repair", six different types are included within Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model: acknowledgement – simple 'yes' to the correction by the student –, same error, different error, off target, hesitation and partial repair. Nonetheless, as aforementioned, this study will not pay exhaustively attention to the category type, but rather to the presence or not of student's repair. Example 9 illustrates needs-repair.

5. (?) : The student asks for the translation of the utterance.

6. Students' uptake will appear in italics.

Example (9):

T: Do you know what festivity is coming soon?
S: Mmmmm, Semana Santa!
T: OK, but **now in English**! [TRANSLATION PROMPTING]
S: No idea.
T: In English 'Semana Santa' is **Easter**. [TRANSLATION]
S: *Ah, yes*. [ACKNOWLEDGEMENT]

Last but not least, in case uptake is not achieved, there would be topic continuation. Lyster and Ranta (1997) claimed that topic continuation can be initiated by either the same or a distinct student – "*in both cases, the teacher's intention goes unheeded*" (Phuong & Huan, 2018: 117) – or by the teacher him/herself – "*in which case the teacher has not provided an opportunity for uptake*" (Phuong & Huan, 2018: 117) –. Campillo (2004) describes is at the student not noticing of the CF. This study will interpret topic continuation as the teacher continuance within the interaction after the lack of noticing by the student. Yet, this study will classify topic continuation as no-uptake by the learner.

Example (10):

T: What about 'giving small gifts early on in the dating stages'. Where would you classify this statement?
S: I think is a green flag.
T: OK. **You think it is a green flag** [RECAST][7]

7. Hereafter, when nothing is included after the teachers' corrective feedback, it means that the student did not notice the correction and remained silence. Topic continuation took place.

3. OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main aim of this study is to examine the use of distinct interactional patterns by English specialists and content teachers in a preparation for APTIS extracurricular course taught in a semi-private high school called ANTANES School, located in the south of Madrid. These interactional patterns involve teachers' initiation, students' response, teachers' feedback and more precisely Corrective Feedback (CF) as well as students' reaction to it (i.e., uptake).

The following research questions were considered:

(1) Are there distinctions in the quantity and types of questions employed by English specialists and content teachers?
(2) Is the length of the learners' response affected by the type of question posted by the teacher?
(3) Are there differences in the amount and types of CF provided by English and content teachers?
(4) Do learners react differently to certain types of feedback in each class? What types of CF lead to more uptake in each context?
(5) What beliefs do English and content teachers hold regarding interactional patterns (questions and feedback)? Do their beliefs correspond to their classroom practices?

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1. CONTEXTS AND PARTICIPANTS

In order to carry out a thorough investigation, a total of 12 different lessons instructed to the same course (2nd ESO), divided into 3 different classes (A, B and C), were observed; that is, two sessions taught to each class by a content teacher and an English specialist. Table 2 below illustrates this fact.

	CONTENT TEACHER A	CONTENT TEACHER B	ENGLISH TEACHER A	ENGLISH TEACHER B
2nd A (25 students)	✓ ✓		✓	✓
2nd B (26 students)	✓	✓	✓	✓
2nd C (15 students)		✓ ✓	✓ ✓	

Table 2: Detailed distribution of observed sessions.

As it can be seen each class received two sessions per type of teacher – content teacher and English specialist – gaining a total of 4 sessions per class. The reason why up to four distinct teachers could teach English to the same course, was due to the fact that the observed sessions were included within an extracurricular subject which prepares students for the APTIS exam. This extracurricular course is optional (that is why the number of students varies depending on the group), taught at the same hour every day (from 13:00 to 14:00) and divided into skills taught by different instructors. Still, this study will focus on the speaking skill. According to Shin et al. (2022) this APTIS test system consists in a

> "*suite of five English language proficiency tests developed by the British Council. The tests' broad purpose is to examine the English language proficiency of English as a second or foreign language users (ESL/EFL) on the scale of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), (North, 2000); however, the selection of a variant (i.e., version) or skill component allows instructions to test targeted groups of language learners or different combinations of subskills*".

Indeed, these students are being prepared for the *Aptis for Teens* exam, which is an adaptation of the main variant suitable for students aged between 13-17 years old within secondary education (Shin, et al., 2022).

The reason why these particular sessions were observed is because they represent the ideal setting where distinct teachers, with different fields of expertise, teach the same matter to students, being this, the English language. Thereupon, four different teachers participated in this study; two of them are classified as English specialists whereas the other two are content teachers who teach their subjects – Music and Geography and History – in English. Nonetheless, in this extracurricular course both types of teachers, regardless of their subject matter, will teach students English in order to prepare them for this APTIS exam.

This investigation was accomplished through class observation and note-taking since recording was not allowed due to school regulations. A total amount of 103 exchanges were gathered, understanding an exchange as an episode which includes teachers' initiation, students' response, more often than not CF and seldomly uptake. This data was analysed using Spada and Fröhlich (1995) COLT Observation Scheme, as it will be explained in the data collection and analysis section below.

Under the assumption that context comparison is crucial "*for understanding the effect of different interactional patterns on successful second language acquisition*" (Llinares & Lyster, 2014: 12), Milla and García-Mayo (2021) remarked that Sheen (2004) was the first scholar who examined Corrective Feedback Episodes (CFEs) in distinct language contexts. This study will try to follow in her footsteps comparing and distinguishing two distinct but interrelated learning scenarios which have never been contrasted before: English taught by English specialists, also regarded as traditional English teachers, and by content teachers who teach some of their subject matters in English but also teach the English language within this APTIS extracurricular subject. Therefore, this contrasted analysis aims to assess the extent to which the teachers' profile has an impact on the type and quantity of the aforementioned interactional patterns – mainly questions, Corrective Feedback and subsequently on learner's uptake, if this occurs –. In the following lines a detailed description of each of the participants is included.

To begin with, two different content teachers (named as A & B, respectively) participated within this study, who are considered to be subject specialists with no considerable linguistic background. On the one hand, a female teacher who teaches Religion and Music, being the last one taught in English. This teacher has 20 years of experience as teacher in different national educational centres and 10 years of experience as a CLIL teacher in this centre. On the other hand, a male teacher who teaches Geography and History in English, with a total experience of 10 years as general teacher and 5 as a CLIL instructor. Nonetheless, it is necessary to mention that the latter has studied abroad and thus, appears to feel more comfortable with the language. However, despite the fact that they own a C1 level, they are not language experts; neither of them is a native nor an English specialist. Indeed, they both make use of the Spanish language in order to refer to students outside the class setting, since they feel more comfortable and natural with it.

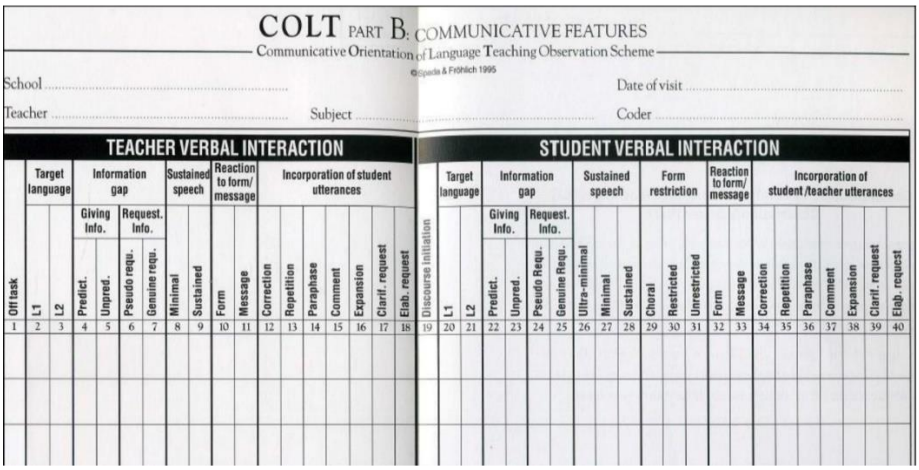
Likewise, two female English specialists (appointed as A & B, respectively) also participated within this study. Both of them studied the English Studies degree and thus, are regarded as language experts. What is more, they are both in charge of the English subject and use the language in and outside the class in order to communicate with students. One of the English specialists has 20 years of experience, whereas the other one has been teaching English for18 years. Both of them have studied and worked abroad and have a good command of the language. Therefore, it could be claimed that, in terms of language, they appear to be in a different position compared to their content peers.

4.2. METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION AND DATA ANALYSIS

In order to perform a comparative analysis of these two different and never before contrasted teacher profiles occurring under the same extracurricular course at secondary level, a classroom-observation methodology has been employed taking as a departure point Spada & Fröhlich's (1995) Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching scheme (COLT) with a special focus on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence. Therefore, throughout the following lines a detailed explanation of each of the instruments will be provided, coupled with the adapted tool employed to analyse the data of this study and the teachers' final questionnaire.

4.2.1. COLT (PART B)

To begin with, Spada and Fröhlich (1995) developed the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching scheme (COLT) whose Part B, adapted to the specific needs of this study, will be employed. Part B "*analyses teacher-learner interactions based on transcriptions*" and as clearly seen in Figure 4 below, it is divided into eight broad categories with 40 distinct sub-categories (Katagiri & Kawai, 2015: 24) where both teachers' and students' verbal interactions are contemplated. The main reason why COLT Part B analysis was adopted, was due to its focus "*on the verbal output and interaction of teacher and students*" (Gaynor, Dunn & Terdal, 1997; in San & Takaaki, 2020: 156) and its adaptability to the non-recorded nature of the study. Nonetheless, despite its attractive appearance as a system-based class analysis tool, its use is troublesome and entails certain limitations when non-recorded sessions are examined. Thus, an adaptation to it will be presented some lines below.



COLT PART B: COMMUNICATIVE FEATURES

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

© Spada & Fröhlich 1995

School ..... Date of visit .....

Teacher ..... Subject ..... Coder .....

TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION

	Off task	Target language		Information gap				Sustained speech		Reaction to form/ message		Incorporation of student utterances							
				Giving Info.		Request. Info.													
		L1	L2	Predict.	Unpred.	Pseudo requ.	Genuine requ.	Minimal	Sustained	Form	Message	Correction	Repetition	Paraphase	Comment	Expansion	Clarif. request	Elab. request	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19

STUDENT VERBAL INTERACTION

Discourse initiation	Target language		Information gap				Sustained speech			Form restriction			Reaction to form/ message		Incorporation of student /teacher utterances						
			Giving Info.		Request. Info.																
	L1	L2	Predict.	Unpred.	Pseudo Requ.	Genuine Requ.	Ultra-minimal	Minimal	Sustained	Choral	Restricted	Unrestricted	Form	Message	Correction	Repetition	Paraphase	Comment	Expansion	Clarif. request	Elab. request
19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40

Figure 4: COLT Scheme Part B, taken from Spada & Fröhlich (1995).

4.2.2. ADAPTATION OF LYSTER AND RANTA'S (1997) ERROR TREATMENT SEQUENCE

The previous coding scheme has also been adjusted considering Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence. Figure 5 below illustrates the adopted adaptations of the original error treatment sequence proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) – see Figure 1 – incorporated within the IRF pattern. Within this modified error treatment sequence, the teachers' initiation; the students'

response; the teachers' feedback (positive, negative and interactional) with particular emphasis on Corrective Feedback; followed by students' uptake or not, have been contemplated.

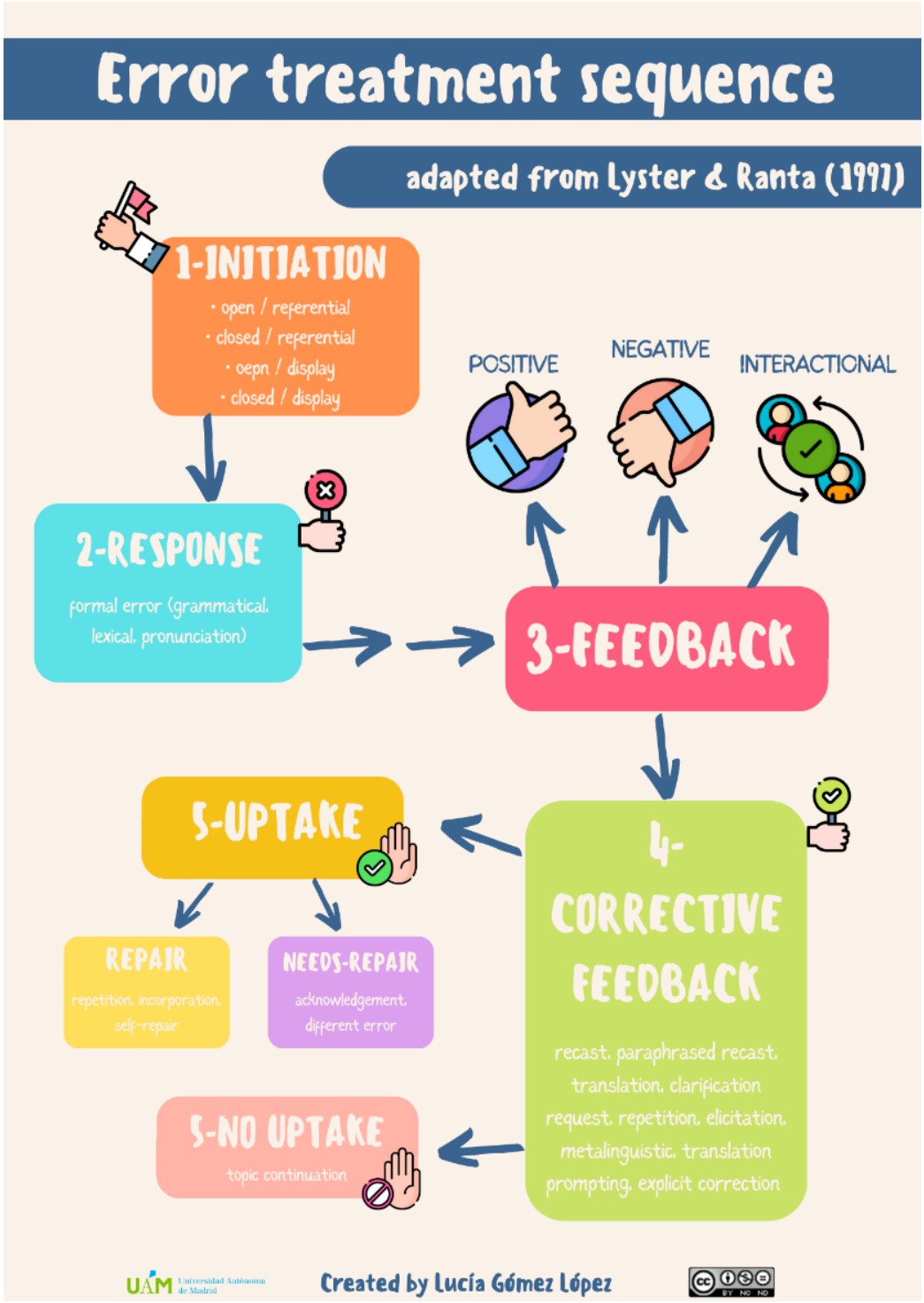


Figure 5: Adaptation of Lyster & Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence.

4.2.3. OBSERVATION SHEET

As previously mentioned, data was collected and analysed through an observation sheet framed on Part B of COLT – based on communicative features (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) – coupled with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) adaptation of the error treatment sequence, both adjusted to the specific needs of this research. The observation sheet extends the part of the original COLT framework related to teacher reaction incorporating the CF model by Lyster and Ranta (1997) within the IRF pattern. Figure 6 beneath illustrates the adapted and improved research tool employed to examine the corpus.

	English Teacher		Date of visit		N° of learners	
	Content Teacher • Subject: _____		Topic of the lesson + Material			
Language skill(s)						
English level (CEFR)			Class			

Discourse	TL (Target language)		Initiation (types of questions)				Response (Sustained speech)			Feedback										Incorporation of students/teacher utterances		
										PEDAGOGIC		INTERACTIONAL	CORRECTIVE / EVALUATIVE							NO UP TAKE	UPTAKE	
															PROMPTS						REPAIR	NEEDS-REPAIR
• Real examples of students and teacher verbal interaction. • Teacher-learner interaction.	L1	L2	Open	Closed	Display	Referential	Ultra-minimal	Minimal	Sustained	Positive	Negative		Recast	Translation	Clarification request	Repetition	Elicitation	Metalinguistic	Explicit correction			

Figure 6: Adaptation to COLT Scheme Part B incorporating Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence.

This observation sheet presents details on each session at the beginning of it, where the type of teacher, the language skill as well as the students' level according the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is specified. The studied language skill will be common to all sessions: speaking. The same happens with the students' level, which has been classified as B1 in all the three distinct examined classes since according to the school that is the level they are supposed to achieve in that course. Yet, students' proficiency level varies depending on the learner. It is therefore comprehended between A2 and B1 in each of the classes which are not organised by English proficiency levels. What is more, the date of visit, the number of students, the class-group, together with the topic of the lesson and some detail on the latter are also indicated. Therefore, it could be claimed that COLT Part B has been enlarged and made more specific in

order to favour the clear-cut needs of my study. Expanding the COLT scheme gives the reader a more detailed insight into the session. Considering that lessons were not recorded and that some parts of the interaction lack connection with what precedes or proceeds, an enlarged description of the session, specifying the topic of the lesson, could provide the reader with the required background information to understand the classroom interactions. Furthermore, information regarding the type of teacher, the class and the number of students was also necessary in order to contextualise each of the sessions.

Real examples of students' and teacher's verbal exchanges are then provided for further analysis. Indeed, according to Spada's and Fröhlich's (1995) COLT Observation Scheme, these students' discourse utterances will then be classified according to the language used (either L1 or L2). Likewise, following the IRF pattern mingled with the 3 moves of the OCF, teachers' initiation, students' response, teachers' feedback and students' uptake or not, are also analysed.

To begin with, the teacher's initiates the discourse throughout distinct question-types (open/close, display/referential); after which the student responds acquiring one of the following responses studied by COLT Part B and itemised beneath:

- Ultra-minimal: considering as ultraminimal a monosyllabic or minimum phrase, such as "*yes*" or "*no*".
- Minimal: understanding as minimal a simple sentence, such as "*you can divide your money*"[8].
- Sustained: interpreting sustained answers as complex and more complex sentences, such as "*because if you wear fashion clothes, you're more beautiful*".

8. These examples have been taken from the corpus.

Any of the above responses may include mistakes or errors which are either corrected or overlooked by the teacher. When the teacher corrects or further comments on the (erroneous) utterance, feedback is employed. This type of feedback has been classified into three main categories: pedagogic, including positive and negative feedback; interactional; and Corrective Feedback. Nonetheless, considering that this study has mainly focused on formal errors (grammatical, lexical, about pronunciation), erroneous utterances will receive more attention and so will happen with the Corrective Feedback provided by the teacher. Indeed, this corrective or evaluative feedback is further classified into Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categories, previously explained and exemplified in the theoretical background section. Up to this section the IRF pattern has been scrutinised and thoroughly analysed.

Finally, the incorporation of the teacher's correction into students' utterances – uptake – has also been analysed and thus, the third OCF move studied by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and later on detailed by Milla and García-Mayo (2021) has also been subject of study: when there is no incorporation by the student there is no uptake – this has been interpreted as 'not found' and painted in grey –, whereas when the student incorporates the teachers' utterance, there is uptake, which could be repaired, and thus, corrected; or not, namely needs-repair.

Notwithstanding, all the collected data has been analysed according to a precise legend and colour code that has enabled a detailed and trustworthy analysis of all the elements within each exchange. Notice how the legend and colour code is shown in Figure 7 below, which has been employed to clarify the data found in the corpus. An elected battery of the observed and examined instances is incorporated into Appendix 1.

Figure 7 is divided into two sections: legend and colour code. The legend specifies the function of each of the characters and symbols identified throughout the data analysis. The colour code, on the contrary, deals with a range of colour, which matches that employed in Figure 5, and associates each of the interactional patterns examined within this study with a colour.

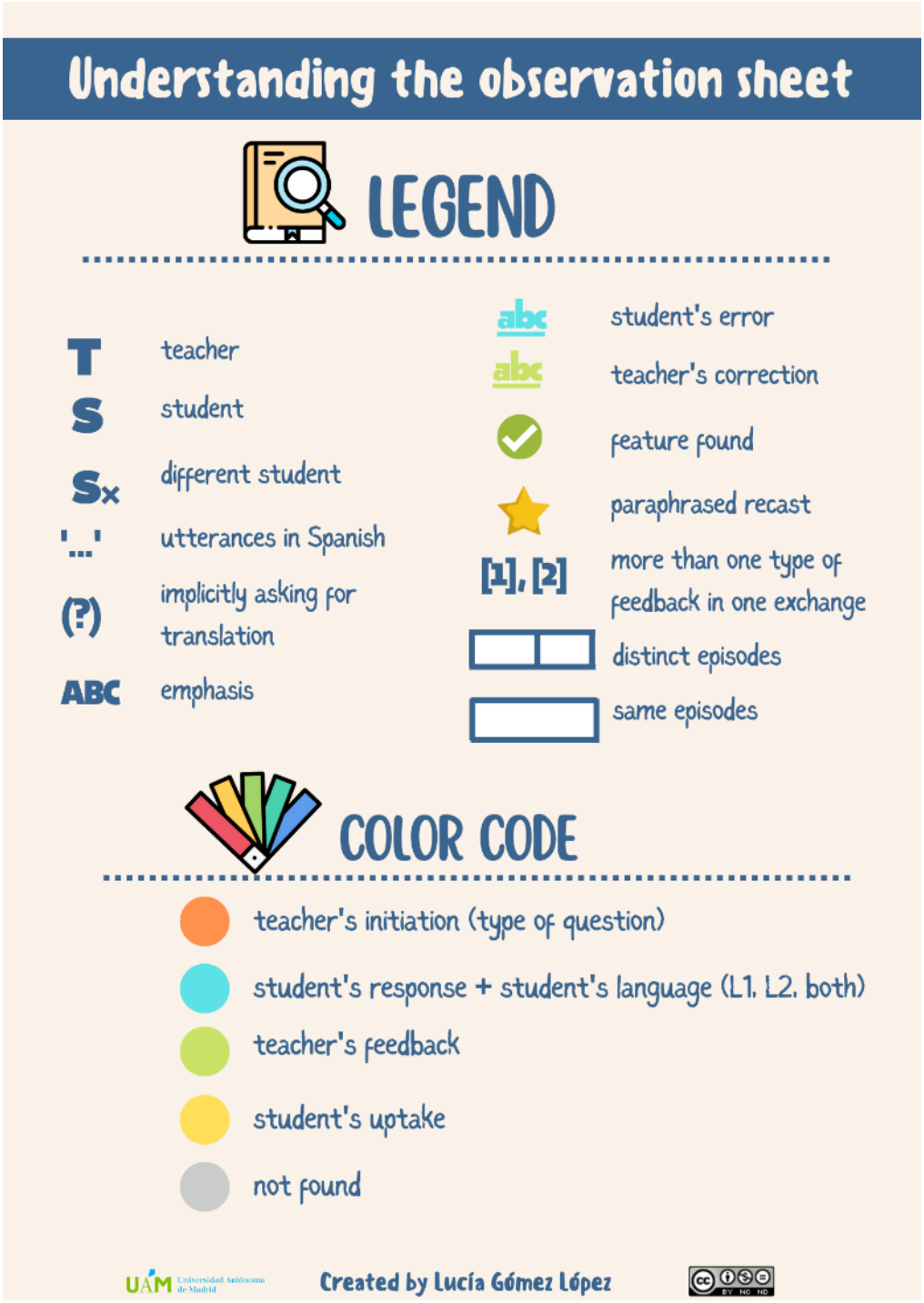


Figure 7: Legend and colour code for the observation.

4.2.4. TEACHER'S FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

A questionnaire framed on questions and feedback was also created and further distributed to teachers once the observation process had finished. In order to provide equal assistance to each

teacher and solve their doubts similarly, the questionnaires were done together in a round table, on the last day of my internship. Throughout this questionnaire information regarding teachers' beliefs on feedback and questions was gathered in order to compare them with their real practices. These beliefs were expected to provide a clear and trustworthy picture of what happened in these sessions and possible explanations to teachers' classroom behaviours. This questionnaire has been added to Appendix 2.

As pointed out above, a questionnaire was distributed to the four teachers once the observation period finished – see Appendix 2 –. This inquiry was originally created through Google Form and distributed in print to teachers who were assembled to complete it, thus promoting a level playing field among teachers. Concerning its structure, this survey was divided into three main sections:

- Types of questions.
- Corrective Feedback.
- Brief insight into positive feedback.

In the first two sections teachers were presented a hypothetical class situation where they should select not only the type of question or Corrective Feedback they would use as a teacher, but also, the one they considered to be the most effective. At the end of these two first sections, they had to explain more in detail the reasons why they thought in that way. Thanks to the assembly-like approach, teachers received the same explanation of the task and an equal clarification of each of the presented terms.

Regarding the last section, dealing with positive feedback, teachers were asked about the frequency in which they used positive feedback in a scale which goes from very often to rarely. Teachers were also asked if they considered positive feedback to be effective and if so, they needed to specify their reasons. Positive feedback was included in this questionnaire instead of negative or interactional feedback, due to its high incidence in contrast to the aforementioned and the possibility of expanding the study on the basis of this type of evidence. Therefore, it could be claimed that this questionnaire will be of great significance for the sake of comparing teachers' beliefs with their actual practices, and thus, in order to give answer to the last research question.

5. RESULTS

Starting from the hypothesis that English specialists would focus more on error correction and also, provide more varied types of questions and Corrective Feedback – given the fact that they have learned to address these interactional patterns in their postgraduate studies –, whereas content teachers would foster communication while overlooking errors more frequently, the findings displayed within this study will examine the truthfulness of this assumption. Therefore, throughout this section of the project the results attained after a thorough analysis will be interpreted and discussed on the basis of their beliefs gathered from their written questionnaires.

To begin with, it is significant to recall that this study will not focus on non-erroneous or functional erroneous utterances, and thus, those instances where no formal error was found, were deleted from the sample and consequently, they will not be considered within this analysis. Hence, this is the main reason why there is not a balanced length between the scrutinised sessions – see Table 3 –. That said, Table 3 below provides a full summary of the entire database, including the total number of teacher's initiations; students' responses, differentiating between the target language (L1 or L2); teachers' feedback, specifying the one that is strictly corrective; students' uptake; and no uptake. As it can be noticed beneath, this data shows the total amount (N) of instances found, classified within the distinct relevant categories. What is more, this database is also illustrated in Figure 8 beneath apart from being deeply and individually examined throughout the following lines of this section.

103 TOTAL EXCHANGES	**TOTAL TEACHERS' INITIATION (N)**	**TOTAL STUDENTS' RESPONSE (N)**			**TOTAL TEACHERS' FEEDBACK (N)**	**TOTAL TEACHERS' CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (N)**	**TOTAL STUDENTS' UPTAKE (N)**		**TOTAL STUDENTS' NO UPTAKE (N)**
ENGLISH SPECIALISTS' SESSIONS	39	43			43	35	15		17
		L1	**L2**	**Both[9]**			**RP[10]**	**N-RP[11]**	
		6	28	9			8	7	
CONTENT TEACHERS' SESSIONS	57	61			60	45	14		23
		L1	**L2**	**Both**			**RP**	**N-RP**	
		5	50	6			3	11	

Table 3: Observed instances of teachers' initiation, students' response, teachers' feedback and students' (no) uptake.

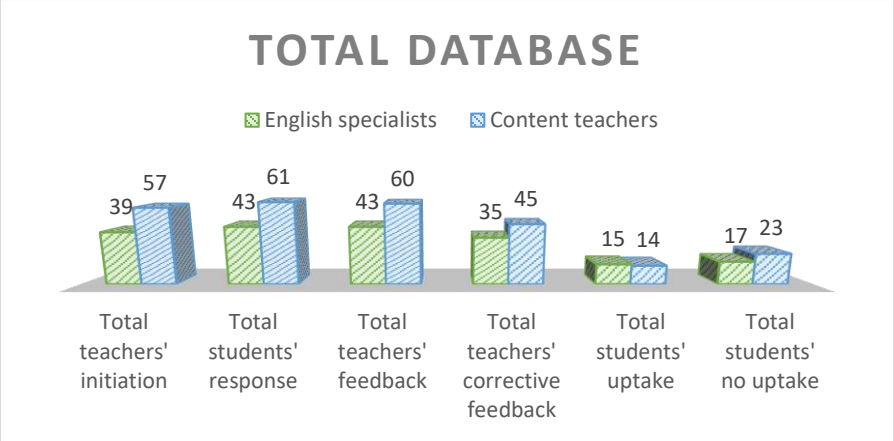


Figure 8: Total initiation, response, feedback, corrective feedback, uptake and no uptake.

After a first insight into the database obtained within this study, it could be claimed that a more notorious number of instances were collected from those sessions taught by content teachers, which apparently stand out in everything except for the total amount of students' uptake. Yet, the difference is minimal (14 content teachers and 15 English specialists). Throughout the following lines each of the previous features will be analysed in detail comparing and contrasting the results obtained between these two teachers' profiles: English specialists (henceforth represented by the green colour) and content teachers (hereafter depicted by the blue colour).

5.1. INITIATION

Following the IRF and OCF pattern approached within the literature and illustrated in Figure 1, the first aspect analysed is teachers' initiations through the use of questions; being these open/closed and display/referential. Indeed, as it can clearly be seen beneath, both English specialists and content teachers employ both open (46% and 54% respectively) and closed (54% and 46% respectively) questions practically indistinctively. Nonetheless, language experts appear to stand out using more closed or 'yes-no' questions rather than open ones, what limits students' infinite array of answers. Furthermore, teachers' questions are in virtually all cases referential ones

9. **Both**: stands for use of the L1 and L2 in the same utterance.

10. **RP**: stands for repair.

11. **N-RP**: stands for needs-repair.

– 97% performed by English specialists and 93% by content teachers –, which benefit and boost the practice of the speaking skill. However, it is significant to mention that display questions are more commonly adopted by content teachers (7%) rather than English specialists (3%), perhaps as they tend to be more regularly employed in their content-oriented subjects.

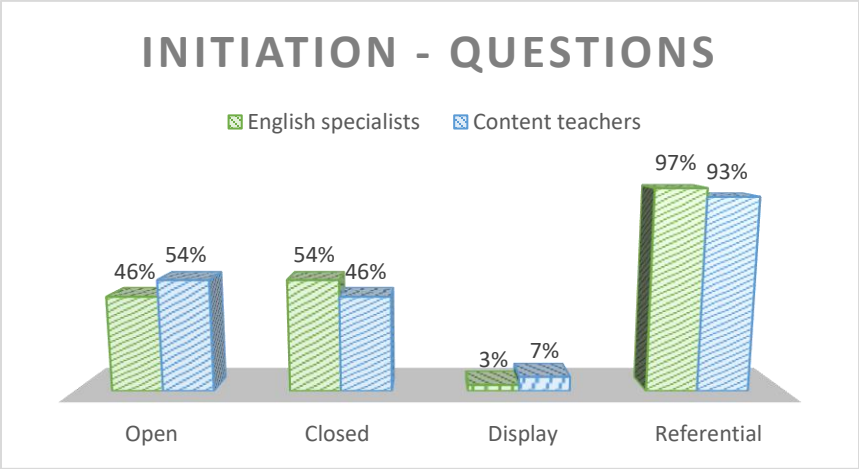
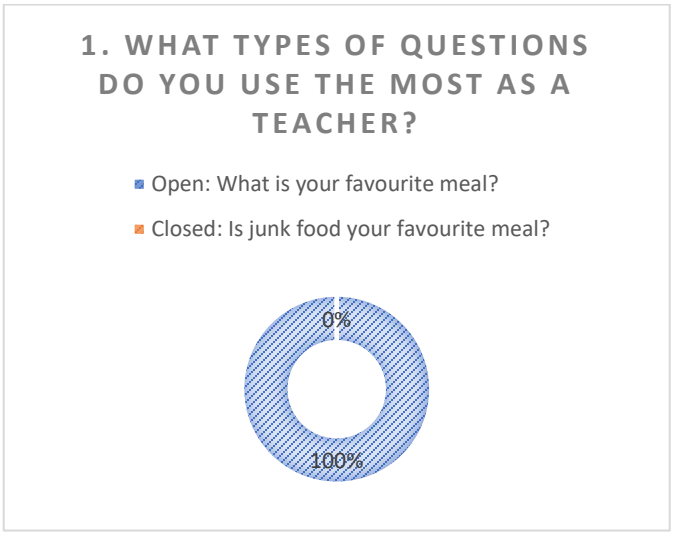
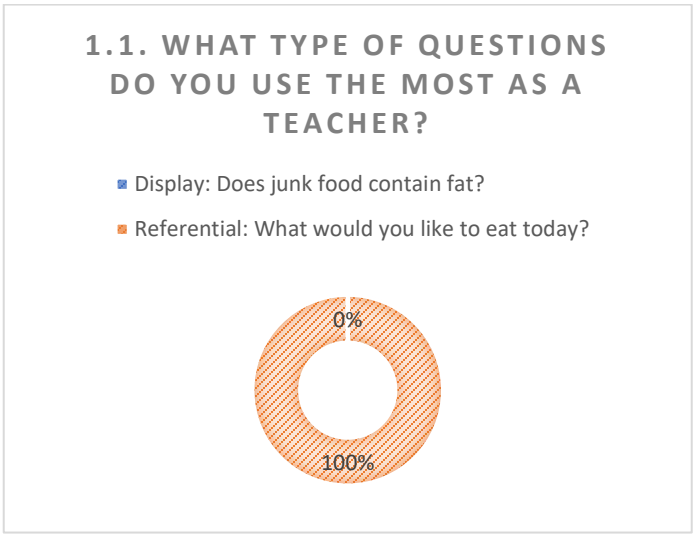


Figure 9: Teachers' initiation through the use of questions.

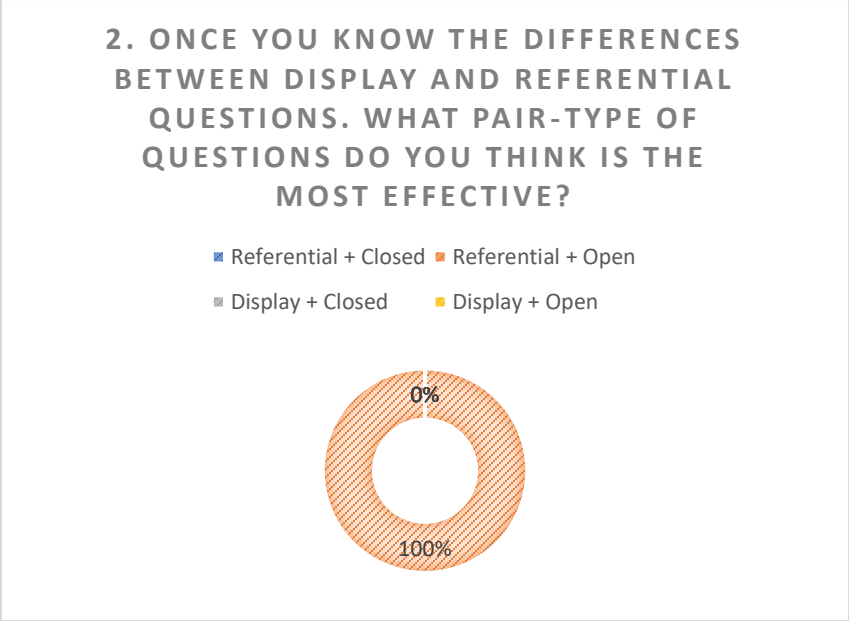
Yet, their actual practices partly match their beliefs. In the final questionnaire both groups of teachers claimed that the type of question they employed most as teachers are open-referential (see Graphs 1 & 2), further classifying this type of questions as the most effective ones, as it can be clearly seen in Graph 3.



Graph 1: Types of questions most frequently used as teachers (open/closed).



Graph 2: Types of questions most frequently used by teachers (display/referential).



Graph 3: Pair-type question classified as the most effective.

Referential questions are the preferred option and most used by both types of teachers – see Figure 9 –. Yet, there is not a clear inclination towards open questions, since open and closed are used practically indistinctively. Example 11 and 12 (taken from the corpus) depict the most common question choice of each type of teacher: Example 11 below illustrates a closed-referential question employed by an English specialist whereas Example 12 an open-referential question used by a content teacher.

Example (11):

T: In 20 years' time… we will be wearing masks. Do you agree or disagree? [CLOSED + REFERENTIAL QUESTION]
S: Depende.
T: It depends on what?
S: On the diseases and the fashion.
T: Excellent!

Example (12):

T: What did you get in your last birthday? [OPEN + REFERENTIAL QUESTION]
S: My family give me a … 'una entrada para un concierto'.
T: Ah, OK. Your family gave you a ticket for a concert.
S: Yes, for Bad Bunny.

The reasons why referential + open questions were classified as the most effective pair-type of questions (see Graph 3) were mainly because they provide students the chance of being engaged

within communication without any kind of constrained limitation. In other words, according to teachers' beliefs students are able to share their opinions freely and to personalise their outputs. What is more, this combination of questions also appears to "*add more naturalness to the sessions*", as declared by one teacher.

5.2. RESPONSE

As it can be noticed in Figure 10 below, students appear to use more minimal responses (56%) in those lessons taught by English specialists, followed by ultra-minimal (28%) and sustained (16%), which are in short supply. Therefore, it could be maintained that in lessons taught by language experts students adjust their answers to simple sentences with no more than one verb in most of the cases. Example 13 illustrates this fact.

Example (13):

T: In 20 years' time… the COVID-19 won't have disappeared. Do you agree or disagree? [CLOSED REFERENTIAL QUESTION]

S: I think like a gripe (?). [MINIMAL RESPONSE]

T: OK. Like a flue.

S: Yes, but it won't disappear. [MINIMAL RESPONSE]

Indeed, a connection could be established between the majority of closed questions posted by language experts and students' minimal answers (as illustrated in Example 13). Hence, it appears that a high use of closed questions could not only limit the novelty of students' answers, but also restrict their length. Something similar appears to happen in those sessions taught by content teachers, where minimal responses (46%) also emerged as the most frequent type of students' response. However, in this last case, students adopt sustained responses (31%) more frequently than ultra-minimal (23%) ones. Thus, the use of more open questions by content teachers could lead to more complex sentences conceived by students. Example 14 beneath depicts this fact.

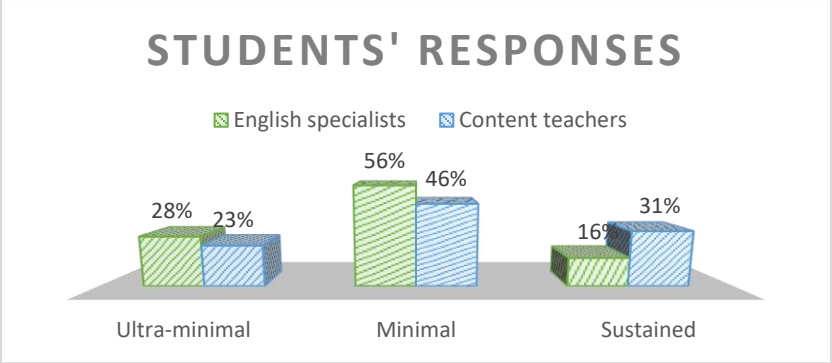


Figure 10: Students' responses.

Example (14):

T: OK, guys. What can you see in this image? [OPEN REFERENTIAL QUESTION]

S: There is two girls who are singing. [SUSTAINED RESPONSE]

T: Nice. There are two girls who are singing. What else?

S: They are in the kitchen and they are having fun together. [SUSTAINED RESPONSE]

Students' responses varied depending on the Target Language (TL) employed. Within this database three different situations where found; students used their L1 (in this case, Spanish), students used the L2 (English) or they mixed both within the same utterance. Yet, the latter will not be regarded in detail due to space constraints. Surprisingly, students employed the L2 more frequently with content teachers (82%) rather than the L1 (8%), taking into account that students were more used to using the L1 with these teachers outside the classroom. On the contrary, students appear to resort more regularly to their L1 in sessions taught by English teachers (14%) since they commonly asked for the definition of certain advanced words or participated in class debates which end up being Spanish-oriented. Still, the employment of the L2 is the most recurrent in this situation too (65%), followed by a mix of both Target Languages (21%), a feature found within class debates or when students struggle with the L2.

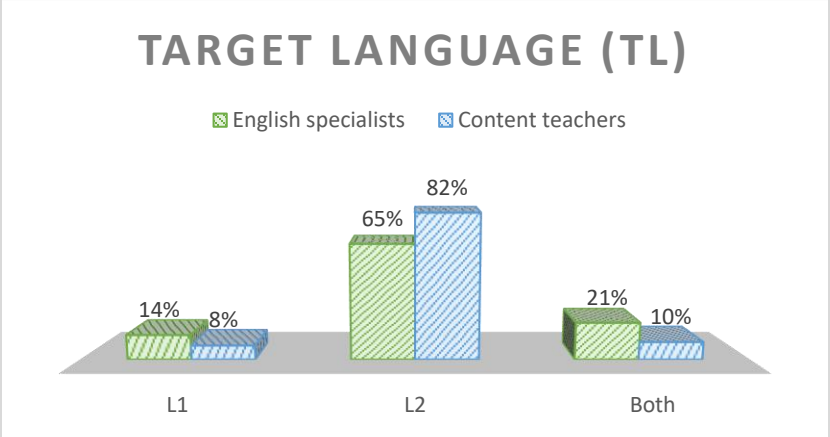


Figure 11: Students' target language.

5.3. FEEDBACK

Likewise, Figure 12 beneath depicts the huge contrast between the frequency of Corrective Feedback and other types of feedback which were also considered, but paid minor attention, within this study: positive feedback, negative feedback and interactional feedback. It is significant to mention that Corrective Feedback is slightly more commonly employed by English specialists (81%) rather than content teachers (75%). Yet, the latter also correct a lot of errors considering that they are content teachers. This leads to think that both types of teachers are concerned with error correction to a quasi-equal extent. What is more, as it will later on be discussed, language experts also employ a more varied and diverse amount of feedback types than content teachers, who frequently rely on just some of them. Notwithstanding, it is also necessary to remark that content teachers make use of positive feedback more frequently than English specialists (17% and 12% respectively), what clearly shows that content teachers value more openly students' participation and are more concerned with boosting students' confidence and motivation. Negative feedback has not been found in any of the analysed instances and interactional feedback has been found in several occasions in a quasi-similar percentage between language specialists and content teachers (7% and 8% respectively). Yet, these last two types of feedback will not be regarded in depth due to space constrains.

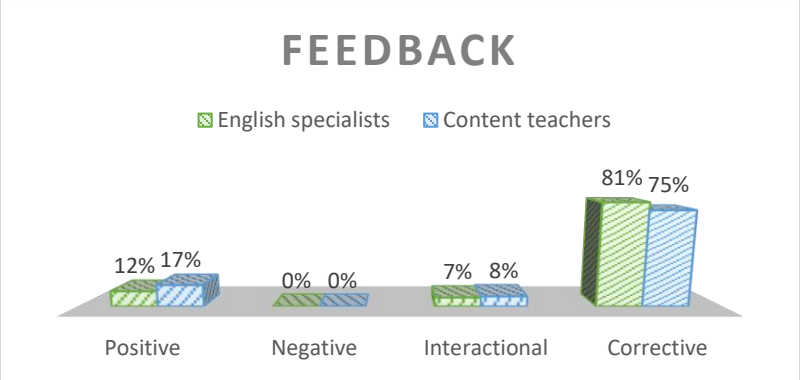
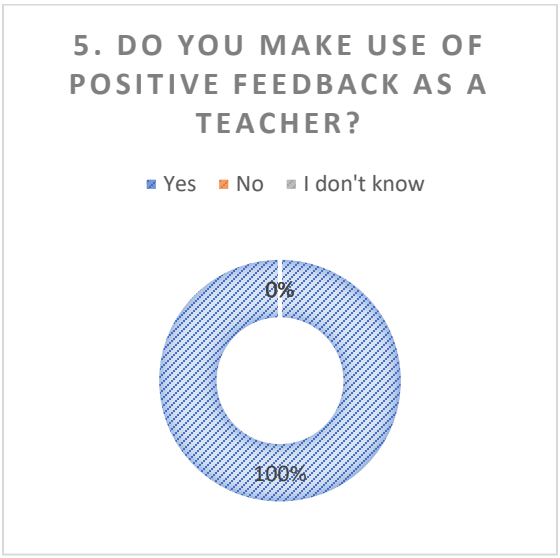
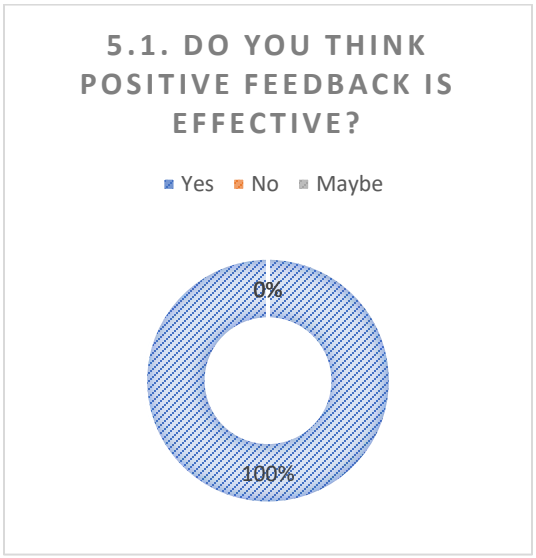


Figure 12: Types of feedback.

According to the written questionnaire, teachers appear to have very positive attitudes towards positive feedback. Indeed, as illustrated in Graph 4 below, 100% of the teachers declare that they make use of it since all of them (100%) consider it to be very effective, as depicted in Graph 5. Indeed, the main reason why teachers consider positive feedback efficient is because it "*motivates and encourages learners throughout their learning processes*", as claimed by a teacher. What is more, teachers also claim that students' success should also be borne in mind since they will foster students' self-confidence. Thus, the use of this type of feedback should be enhanced in the EFL setting.



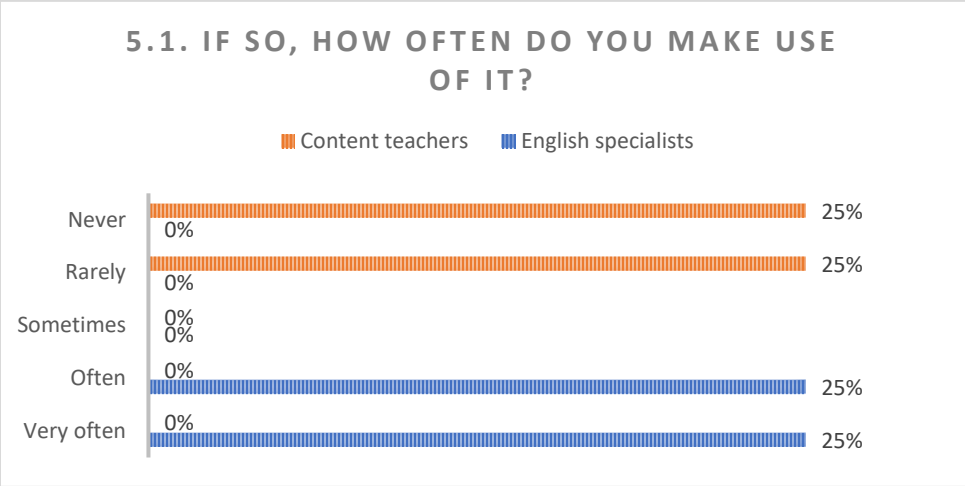
Graph 4: Use of positive feedback.



Graph 5: Effectiveness of positive feedback.

Yet, as illustrated by Graph 6 beneath, English teachers claim to use positive feedback often or very often giving it a 1 and 2 respectively in the value scale. On the contrary, content teachers

consider they rarely use it, grading it as 4 or even 5. Therefore, it could be claimed that these results do not match their actual practices, since English teachers employ less positive feedback than content teachers (11% and 17% respectively). Nonetheless, in any of the cases positive feedback surpass the 20% of its employment, what makes it unremarkable.



Graph 6: Use of the positive feedback.

5.3.1. CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Focusing now on Corrective Feedback, several interesting data has been attained. On the one hand, it is vital to point out that English specialists appear to rely on a varied range of CF types. Indeed, except elicitation, the rest of the types of CF have been employed at least once by English specialists. Content teachers, on the contrary, appear to trust four main feedback-types: recasts (40%), which far exceed, followed by translation (22%), paraphrased recasts (16%), translation prompting (13%) and finally metalinguistic feedback (7%). Yet, this clear preference portrayed by content teachers, is not as clearly embodied by English specialists who appear to balance their use of CFs relying on more than one. In this way, the CFs the latter use the most in order of frequency are: translations (31%), recasts and paraphrased recasts (20% both), translation prompting (14%), explicit correction (6%) and finally clarification requests, repetitions and metalinguistic feedback (3% in each of them). Examples of all these types of feedback were introduced in the theoretical background section. Figure 13 illustrates all the CF types employed by English specialists and content teachers.

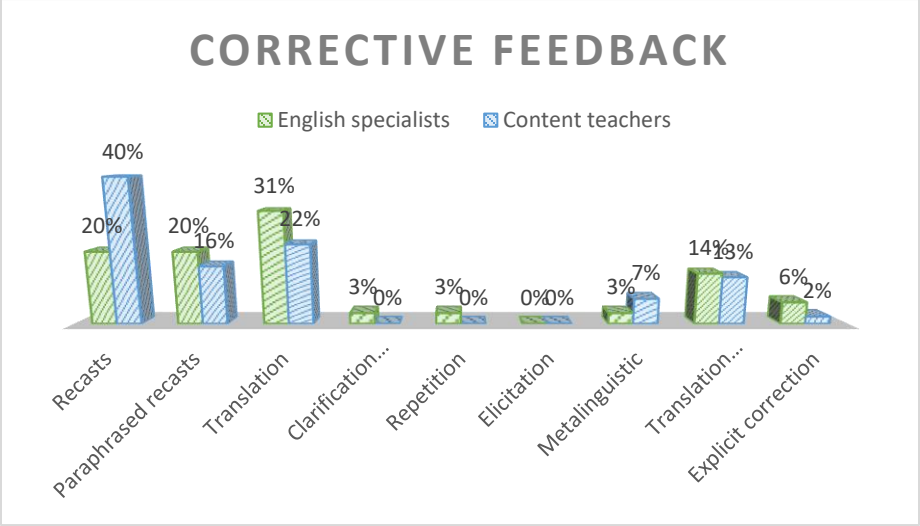


Figure 13: Corrective Feedback (CF).

Therefore, it could be claimed that while content teachers rely more on recasts and use them as a recurrent way of correcting students' errors, English specialists tend to directly translate students' utterances so as to fasten their speech when translation prompting is not effective. However, the use of recasts by English specialists is also noticeable. Therefore, it could be claimed that while content teachers believe in the widespread effectiveness of recasts, English specialists try to test the validity of other not so frequent types of Corrective Feedback, such as translations. What is more, despite the fact that English specialists are language experts and, thus, frequently make use of paraphrased recasts to provide students with alternative ways of saying the same utterance, content teachers also employ this type of recast. Paraphrased recasts aim to provide students with alternatives to the learner's non-erroneous utterance. It entails teachers' involvement since they should be able to paraphrase the student's utterance so that the rest of the classmates can listen to distinct possibilities. The fact that content teachers make use of it betrays their engagement in these sessions away from their subject matter. Example 15 and 16 depict the usage of paraphrased recasts by a language expert and a content teacher respectively.

Example (15):

T: How about slashing out. Do you splash out?

S: No, but my mother spends a lot of money.

T: **Oh, your mother spends loads of money**. [PARAPHRASED RECAST]

S: Exactly. On clothes.

Example (16):

T: Do you think clothes matter?

S: Yes, of course!

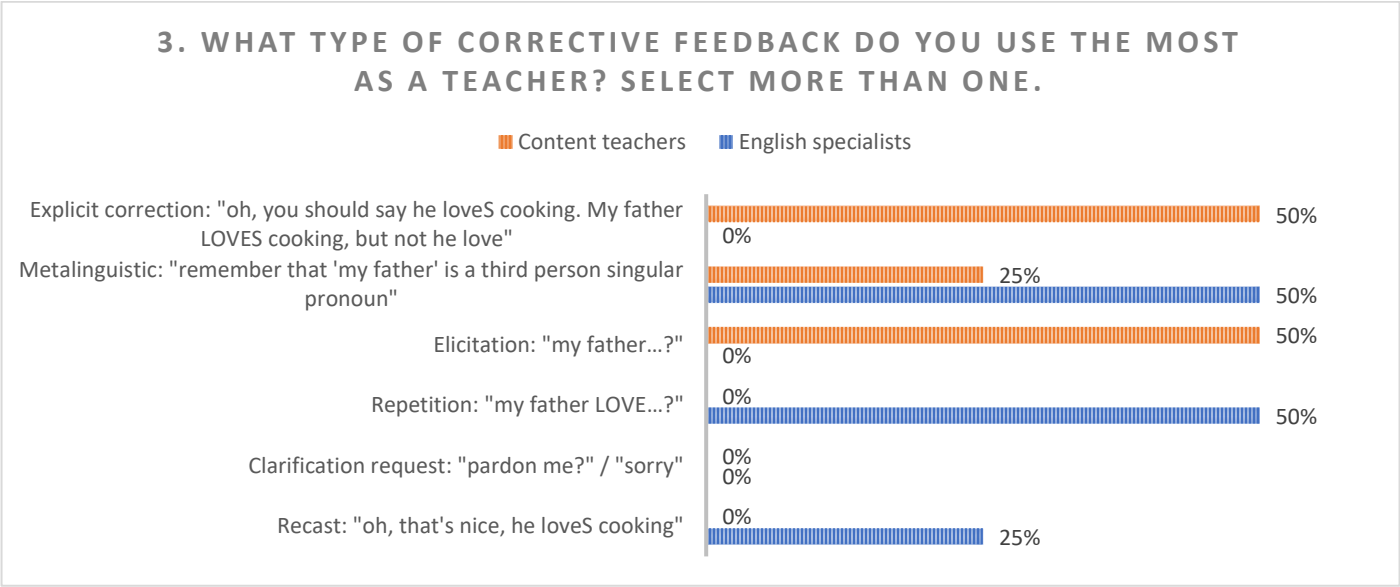
T: Why are you so sure?

S: Because our clothes tell things.

T: **What do you mean? Perhaps that clothes speak for us.** [PARAPHRASED RECAST]

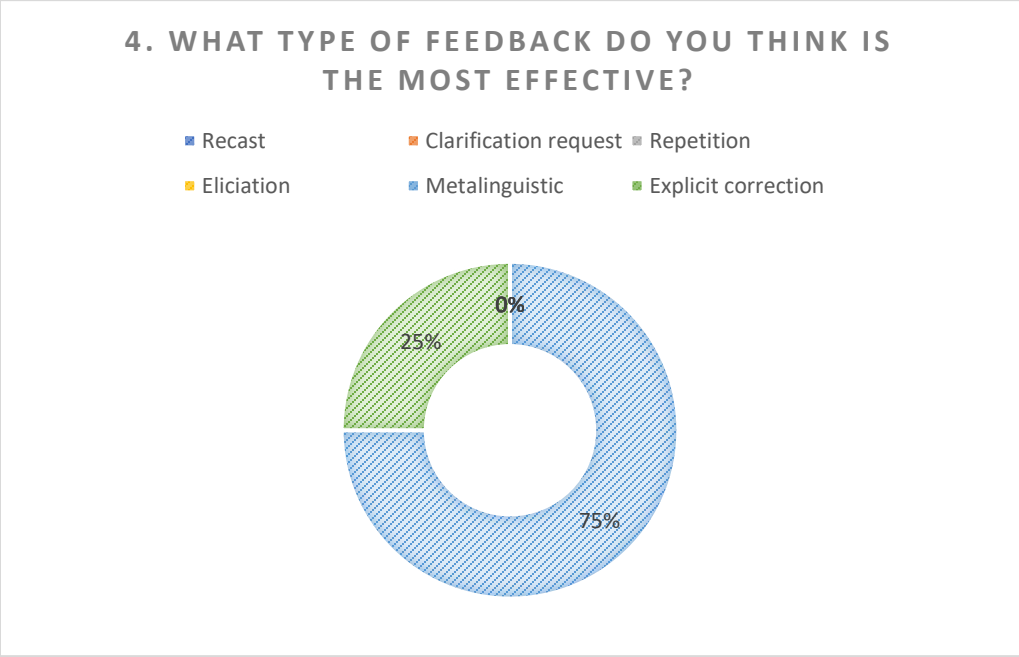
S: Yes.

Regarding teachers' beliefs shared throughout the questionnaire, it is remarkable to mention that the type of feedback claimed to be the most employed is metalinguistic (50% by content teachers and 25% by English specialists) followed by repetition (50% by English specialists), elicitation (50% by content teachers) and explicit correction (50% by content teachers), whereas recasts appear to be only employed by one English teacher (25%) (See Graph 7 below). Yet, teachers' beliefs do not match their actual practices, as it was shown in Figure 13 above.



Graph 7: Type of CF most used by teachers.

What is more, Graph 8 below illustrates how teachers do not doubt in the questionnaire regarding the most efficient type of feedback which is considered to be metalinguistic (75% - chosen by 3 teachers), in contrast to explicit correction (25% - chosen by 1 teacher). The reasons why metalinguistic feedback is considered to be the most efficient type of feedback according to content teachers and one English specialist are mainly because they prompt students' own correction reasoning on it, what will prevent them from committing the same error in further occasions. Explicit correction is considered to be the most effective type of CF according to an English teacher since the expert makes the student "*aware of the mistake and avoids its future repetition by reformulating the students' erroneous utterance*", as she declared.



Graph 8: Type of CF most effective according to teachers.

5.4. UPTAKE

Corrective Feedback can lead to uptake or no uptake, leading to topic continuation, as it was explained in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence. Figure 14 beneath depicts how uptake is more frequently found in lessons taught by English specialists (47%) than in content teacher sessions in which topic continuation appears to be more common (62%). Yet, no uptake

surpasses uptake in both teachers' contrasted profiles. Obtaining students' uptake appear not to be an easy task.

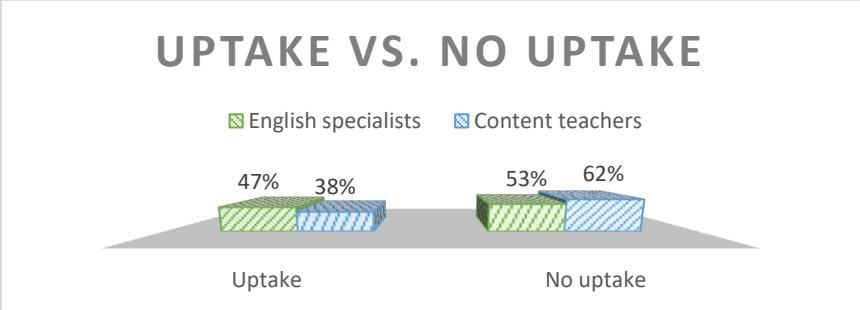


Figure 14: Uptake vs. No uptake.

What is more, it is also significant to mention that, despite the fact that 38% of uptake is found within content teachers' sessions, the great majority of it is further classified within needs-repair (79%), as it is illustrated in Figure 15 below. Within needs-repair, acknowledgement (73%) – a simple 'yes' or 'eso' by the student – is the most common type of needs-repair, followed by a distinct error (27%) within the following utterance (see Figure 17). Examples 17 and 18 depict these types of needs-repair respectively.

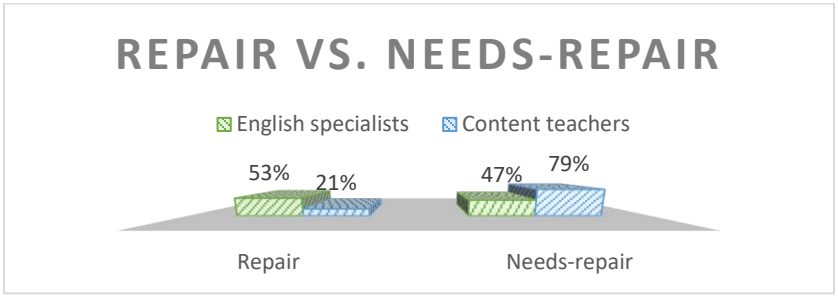


Figure 15: Uptake: Repair vs. Needs-Repair.

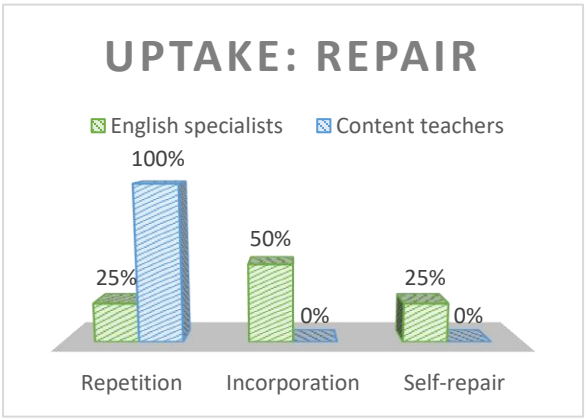


Figure 16: Repair.

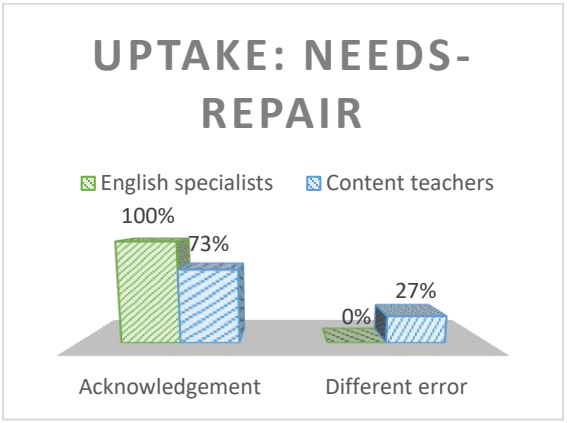


Figure 17: Needs-repair.

Example (17):

T: Do you feel that our clothes determine who we are?

S: Yes, if you aren't /esmart/ you aren't elegant.

T: Do you mean /'smɑːt/?

S: *Yes*. [ACKNOWLEDGEMENT]

Example (18):

T: Why do you prefer to be alone?

S: Because I don't like to have people 'molestando' (?)

T: Mmm, disturbing you?

S: *They are heavy*. [DIFFERENT ERROR]

T: No, in English they say annoying, not heavy. Actually, the word heavy is just for things that are difficult to move because of their weight.

On the contrary, within content teachers' sessions repair is only achieved in a 21% of the total instances (see Figure 15) and in this case, students merely repeat the correct utterance (100%), as depicted in Figure 16. Example 19 below illustrates an instance of this type of repair, named repetition.

Example (19):

T: What has happened there?

S: They don't can do it.

T: They can't do it.

S: *'Eso', they can't* [REPETITION]

Over and above, in those sessions taught by English specialists the opposite occurs (see Figure 15). Repair is a little more common in these lessons (53%) in comparison to needs-repair (47%). Additionally, students do not only repeat the correct utterance (25%) but mainly incorporate it (50%) in their following discourses, as well as sometimes even repair the erroneous utterance by themselves (25%), as illustrated in Figure 16. Examples 20 and 21 depict these last two types of repair. Within needs-repair (see Figure 17), students do simply acknowledge the teachers' correction (100%), which only shows that the student has noticed that there is an error but does not mean they have understood it. The same happens as in Example 19.

Example (20):

T: Where is it important to budget?

S: 'en economía'.

T: in economy.

S: *Is economy difficult?* [INCORPORATION]

T: I don't think so.

Example (21):

T: Have you ever picked up a bargain in the sales? What was it?

[…]

T: Someone else?

S: Yes, in Christmas I buy…

T: I buy …?

S: *I bought a graphic card for the computer*. [SELF-REPAIR]

Last but not least, it would be interesting to analyse which type of feedback leads to uptake or no uptake, and in the former case, to what type. Hence, Table 4 summarises the results obtained, and Figures 18 and 19 illustrate through diagrams the collected results from each group of teachers.

		UPTAKE		**NO UPTAKE**
		Repair	Needs-repair	
ENGLISH SPECIALISTS	Recast		29%	71%
	Paraphrased recast		14%	86%
	Translation	46%	18%	36%
	Clarification request	100%		
	Repetition	100%		
	Metalinguistic	100%		
	Translation prompting		20%	80%
	Explicit correction		100%	
CONTENT TEACHERS	Recast	17%	17%	66%
	Paraphrased recast		29%	71%
	Translation		50%	50%
	Metalinguistic		67%	33%
	Translation prompting		17%	83%
	Explicit correction		100%	

Table 4: (No)-uptake following teachers' feedback.

As it can be evidently noticed, translation, which was the most recurrent type of Corrective Feedback employed by language experts, appears to be proceeded by more uptake (repair 46% and needs-repair 18%) than no uptake (36%). As it can be seen in Figure 18 below, this CF frequently

especially involves repair by the student (46%), what reveals that the error is at least detected by the learner. Example 22 beneath depicts a translation provided by an English specialist followed by students' repair.

Example (22):

T: Have you ever picked up a bargain in the sales? What was it?
[…]
T: What about you?
S: Me, a 'crucero', no sé como se dice.
T: **Cruise**. [TRANSLATION]
S: *I went on a cruise with my family*. [REPAIR]

The same occurs with clarification requests, repetitions and metalinguistic feedback, which are always accompanied by students' repair (100% each). Example 23 below, which follows the interaction presented in Example 22 above, illustrates how clarification requests are followed by the learners' repair in English specialists' sessions.

Example (23):

S2: Teacher, me too. A 'crucero' with Jose.
T: **Sorry?** [CLARIFICATION REQUEST]
S: *A cruise with my family*. [REPAIR]
T: Thank you. Try to speak in English., please.

On the contrary, recasts are less likely to be proceeded by students' repair, and thus, they mainly lead to either needs-repair (29%) or more frequently to no uptake (71%), as illustrated in Example 24 below. Therefore, despite its popularity its effectiveness accomplishing students' repair is questionable, as seen in Lyster and Ranta (1997).

Example (24):

T: Where are you going this Easter?
[…]
T: And you? Are you doing anything special?
S: Mmm, I think I stay in Leganés.
T: **Oh, that's nice. You're staying in Leganés, then. I think I will do the same**. [RECAST]
S: *That's very boring*. [NO UPTAKE]
T: I know darling, but this is how life works.

Last but not least, the new types of CF incorporated within this study – paraphrased recast and translation prompting – are foremost accompanied by no uptake (86% and 80% respectively). In case uptake is proceeding these CFs, it would be needs repair (14% paraphrased recasts and 20% translation prompting). Hence, both CFs appear to go unnoticed by the learner. Examples 25 and 26 illustrate how paraphrased recasts and translation prompting are mainly followed by no uptake in English specialists' sessions.

Example (25):

T: Do you have a weekly or monthly pay?
S: I don't have.
T: **They don't give you any cash, then**. [PRAPHRASED RECAST]
S: * no answer *[12] [NO UPTAKE]

Example (26):

T: Do you think Cádiz will disappear because of the rise of the 'sea level'?
S1: 'Llevan un año diciendo que hacen algo y no hacen nada'.
S2: 'Sí, como en Venecia'.
T: **In English, please!** [TRANSLATION PROMPTING]
S: * no answer * [NO UPTAKE]

12. *** no answer *** has been employed to make clear that the learn did not answer the teacher's provision of feedback. In the observation sheet nothing is added after the teacher's CF, but in this case where uptake needs to be explicitly clarified, * no answer * has been used to help the reader see the lack of uptake.

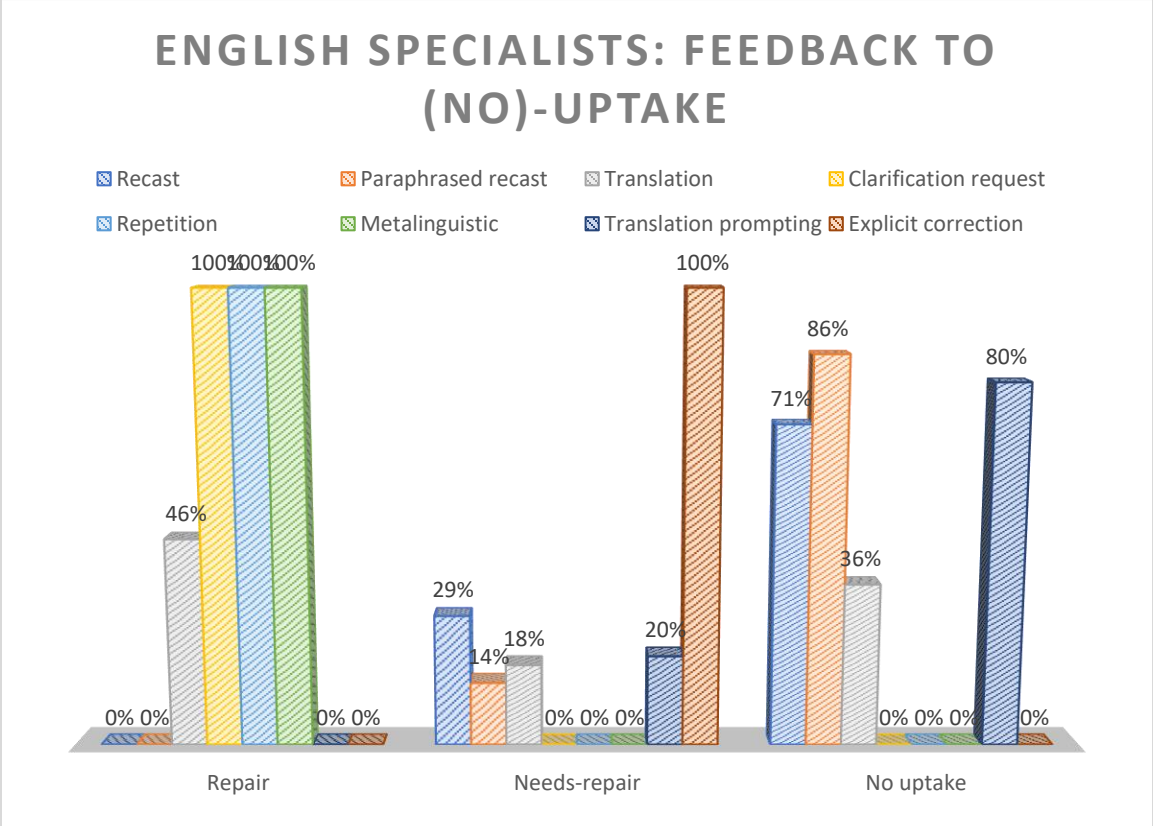


Figure 18: (No)-Uptake following English specialists' feedback.

As pointed out above, content teachers used a reduced variety of Corrective Feedback types. As it was discussed before, this group of teachers frequently rely on recasts when correcting their students' utterances. Nonetheless, this type of Corrective Feedback commonly leads to no-uptake (66% opposite to 17% of repair and 17% of needs-repair). In other words, recasts are likely to go unnoticed by students within these teachers' group, too. Therefore, its efficiency in achieving students' awareness is ambiguous since it becomes difficult to test if students have truly noticed the teachers' correction. Example 27 illustrates how a recast provided by a content teacher is followed by no uptake.

Example (27):

T: What about you? Mention other things you can see.

S: They probably are happy.

T: **Great. They are probably happy. Good point!** [RECAST]

S: * no answer * [NO UPTAKE]

What is more, none of the rest of the CFs are followed by repair. Only some of them, such as explicit correction (100%), metalinguistic (67%), translation (50%), paraphrased recast (29%) and translation prompting (17%) bring with them needs-repair. On the other hand, the greatest percentage in each type of Corrective Feedback is found in the no uptake section: translation prompting (83%), paraphrased recast (71%), translation (50%) and metalinguistic (33%). As a matter of fact, this makes clear that the CF types employed by content teachers are not effective since they are frequently overlooked by students. Example 28 and 29 show how paraphrased recasts and translation prompting provided by content teachers are followed by no uptake, respectively.

Example (28):

T: What about this other photograph? What can you see now?

S: I can see a boy watching his favourite football team.

T: **Fantastic! This guy appears to be watching his favourite football team**. [PRAPHRASED RECAST]

S: * no answer * [NO UPTAKE]

Example (29):

T: Do you think that is your boyfriend wants to know your location could be considered toxic?

S: Of course. Estamos locos!

T: **In English!** [TRANSLATION PROMPTING]

S: * no answer * [NO UPTAKE]

Therefore, the most successful technique utilised by both groups of teachers as a resource to elicit students' uptake appears to be explicit correction (100% in both groups) or translation (64% in language teachers [46% repair + 18% needs-repair], Figure 18, and 50% in content teachers, Figure 19), followed by other CFs that prompt the students' uptake, such as clarification request, repetition or metalinguistic feedback, being these the CFs that mainly lead to students' self-repair. Nevertheless, the latter mentioned CF types were only employed by language experts. On the contrary, recast together with the paraphrased recast and translation prompting are the least likely to be followed by students' uptake in both types of sessions and thus, they stand above the rest in the no uptake section in both Figures.

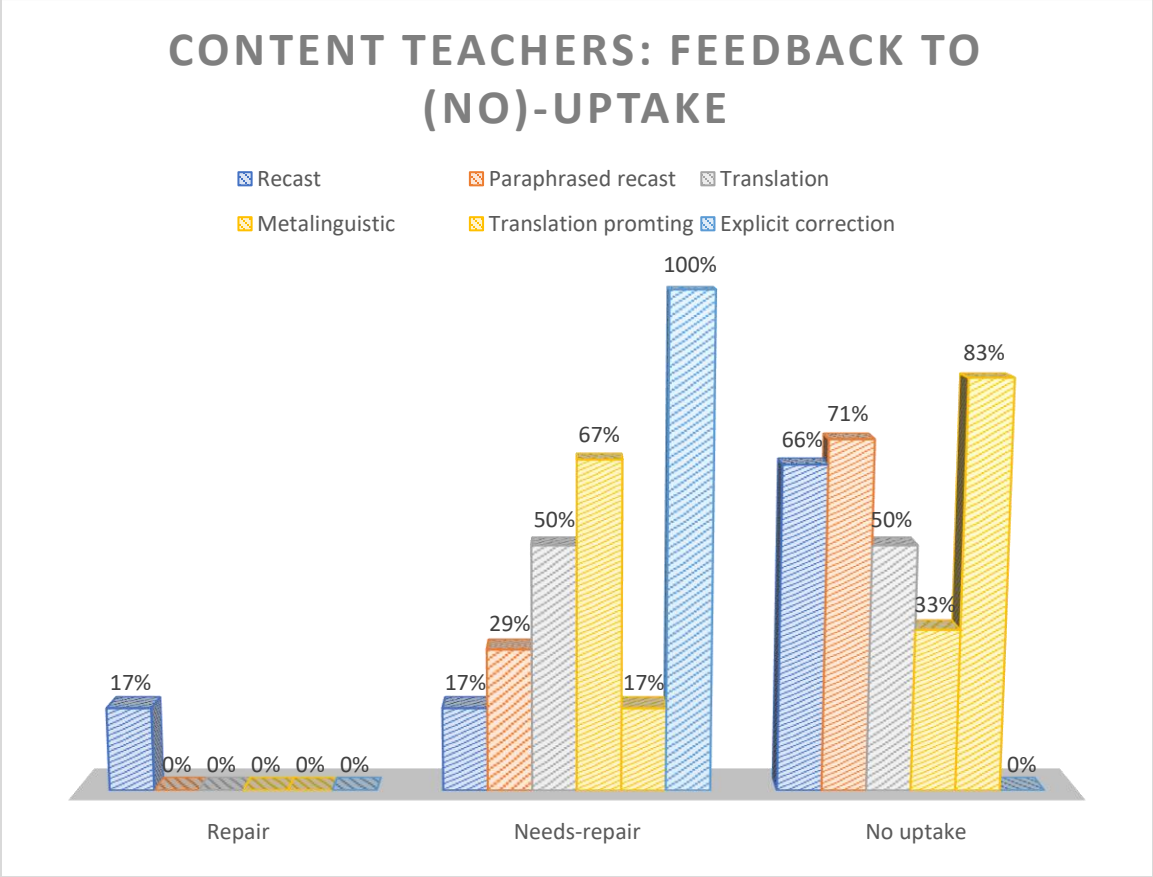


Figure 19: (No)-Uptake following content teachers' feedback.

6. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study has been fivefold: first, to present the differences in quantity and types of questions employed by English specialists and content teachers; second, to study to what extent the length of students' responses to those questions is affected; third, to account for the amount and types of CFs provided by each type of teacher; fourth, to present the distinct reactions by learners to each type of feedback, coupled with a detailed justification of the type of CF that leads to more uptake in each teacher-related context; and fifth, to attain a thorough comparison between the teachers' beliefs concerning these interactional patterns (questions and feedback) and their actual classroom practices. Thus, throughout the following lines a thorough discussion of each of the research questions at a time will be provided.

(1) Are there distinctions in the quantity and types of questions employed by English specialists and content teachers?

(2) Is the length of the learners' response affected by the type of question posted by the teacher?

Lynch (1991; in Al-Zahrani & Al-Bargi, 2017: 135) maintained that "*using questioning behaviour is one of the techniques teachers usually employ to promote and create classroom interaction*". This study has examined the existing differences in quantity and types of questions between English specialists and content teachers and how distinct question types affect the length of students' responses.

As shown in Table 3, content teachers ask more questions (57) than English specialists (39) in the same time period. Taking into account that content teachers could be used to the usage of questions in content sessions where they have to make sure that students understand meaning, they appear to be more involved with prompting classroom interaction in this study. On the contrary English teachers' use of questions is lower. The reason why this could happen could be linked to the fact that English teachers are seen as language experts and, thus, as a kind of authority who focuses on form throughout their sessions and is not contradicted, whereas content teachers are more equal to students in regards to the L2 use (none of them is a language expert) and thus, equal classroom discussions around meaning were frequently promoted, as depicted in the examples presented above.

This study has focused on four different types of questions: open/closed, display/referential. English specialists relied more on closed questions (54%), whereas content teachers used open questions slightly more frequently (54%), as it was illustrated in Figure 9. Despite the little difference, content teachers appear to accept more extended and non-expected answers, whereas English specialists tend to restrict students' answers to a mere 'yes' or 'no'. Still, both types of teachers' use of referential questions (97% by English specialists and 93% by content teachers, see Figure 9) goes far beyond the usage of display questions. Notwithstanding, these results appear to contradict those presented by Long and Sato (1983; Romero & Llinares, 2001; in Llinares at al., 2012) who claimed that display questions were more frequent than referential ones in the classroom setting. Referential questions "*serve the purpose of acquiring information*" (Çakır & Cengiz: 61) which is unknown by the teacher and thus, they perfectly fit with the skill tested throughout this study: speaking. Yet, it could be claimed that even though both types of teachers employ referential questions, which are successful in creating classroom debate and providing students with the chance of offering more transcended answers, differences appear regarding the openness of those questions. Content teachers give students more opportunities to participate in class, whereas language experts frequently limit learners' participation by means of more closed questions.

Regarding students' responses, as pointed out by Al-Zahrani and Al-Bargi, (2017:138) "*through questions, teachers encourage students' talk and facilitate verbal interaction in the classroom, whether students' production is a single word, a sentence or longer utterances in conversational patterns*". Throughout this study, these responses have been classified as ultra-minimal, minimal and sustained, respectively. Students frequently resort to minimal responses (56% in English specialists' sessions and 46% in content teachers' sessions), as illustrated in Figure 10, which comprehend simple responses with no more than one verb. Yet, sustained responses – complex responses with more than one verb – are more commonly found in those sessions taught by content teachers (31%) whereas ultra-minimal responses – simple responses with no verb – are the second most frequent type used by learners in English specialists' sessions.

As stated by Behnam and Pouriran (2009; Maftoon & Rezaie, 2013; in Çakır & Cengiz: 61) "*closed ended questions do not reflect genuine communication and that they only encourage short, restricted responses while open ended questions can encourage larger and syntactically more complex answers and promote for more interaction and meaningful negotiation*". Hence, the use

of simpler, more direct and closer questions by English teachers could be beneficial for fastening class interaction, but they limit students' answers. More open questions, such as the ones used by content teachers could prompt more sustained and complex answers, which encourage classroom interaction.

All in all, differences arose regarding quantity and types of questions employed by each type of teachers. These distinctions affect differently classroom interaction and students' consequent responses, being the length of the latter affected by the teachers' selection of questions.

(3) Are there differences in the amount and types of CF provided by English and content teachers?

Drawing from the premise that Corrective Feedback is an essential tool for English teachers to enhance learning, prevent error fossilization as well as "*master knowledge and proficiency in English*" (Alqahtani & Al-enzi, 2011: 215) there exists differences among teachers not only in the extent of CF but also in the types employed. Language experts have always been supposed to address grammar errors more frequently. In fact, Milla and García-Mayo (2021: 165) considered those differences among teachers within their study, whose findings revealed *"that the type of error had an impact on the OCF types used*".

This study has shown that there exist differences not only in the quantity but also regarding the types of Corrective Feedback used by different teachers. Despite the fact that both groups of teachers provide a high quantity of corrective feedback (see Figure 12 above) and are concerned with students' accuracy as well as involved in the avoidance of error fossilization, English specialists slightly stand out, offering 81% of CFs in contrast to the 75% supplied by content teachers. Yet, content teachers also correct a large number of errors considering that they are not language teachers. A more striking difference is that English specialists, in contrast to content teachers, rely on a wider variety of CFs, employing the whole spectrum of CFs – except for elicitation – at least once amid the observation period (see Figure 13). The main reason why language experts consider a wider range of CFs could be either due to their teacher's style or because they have learned to address CFs in their postgraduate studies. On another note, content teachers' most frequent type of feedback is recasts (40%; in Figure 13), what makes this type of feedback the doubtless preferred one for this group of teachers.

This recurrent type of feedback transfers certain benefits to the classroom, which appear to be well-known by contents teachers. According to Lyster and Mori (2016: 273) recasts "*provide supportive, scaffolded help, which serves to move lessons ahead*", which perfectly fit with the communicative aim of this speaking-oriented sessions. What is more, thanks to its positive-evidence appearance, content teachers who are not language experts can correct students' mistakes in a less noticeable manner, what reduces learners' anxiety and avoids paying overt attention to errors. Indeed, content teachers appear to be aware of the fact that "*the less anxiety students have, the more they will participate in communicating activities using target language. And the more the target language is used, the more fluency and accuracy would be obtained*" (San & Takaaki, 2020: 161).

Nonetheless, as it happens in Milla & García-Mayo's (2021) study, these recasts are in the majority of the cases implicit and less salient than those offered by English specialists, what prevents students from recognising and correcting the error through the means of uptake. Examples 30 and 31 depict a more and a less implicit recast offered by a content and English teacher, respectively. As it will be discussed some lines below and as stated by Li (2010), implicit feedback is less effective over a short term, when compared to explicit feedback. In other words, "*the more clear and explicit feedback the students receive, the more effective second language learning*" (San & Takaaki, 2020: 160).

Example (30):

T: So guys, are you doing anything special during Easter?

[...]

T: But it is also necessary to rest a little bit at least. Don't you think so?

S: Yes, I will meet with my friends also.

T: Fantastic! [PRAISE / POSITIVE FEEDBACK] **You'll meet your friends too!** [RECAST]

S: * no answer * [NO UPTAKE]

Example (31):

T: What about you, darling? Where would you like to go?

S: I don't know, I love to visit the sea.

T: **Me too. I also love visiting the sea**. [RECAST]

S: * no answer * [NO UPTAKE]

The reason why content teachers' recasts are more implicit, could be because they tend to combine this CF type with praises or positive feedback, as illustrated in Example 30. As it was previously found by Pauli (2010; in Voerman et al., 2012), in a wide range of exchanges Corrective Feedback is accompanied by praise elements, such as "good", "that's it", to name but a few. This was also found in Llinares-Garcia's (2005) study. Yet, this type of feedback frequently appears combined with a recast, as depicted in Example 30 and 32. This combination could have the intention of focusing on the message trying to mitigate the negative aspect of the CF. Still, its employment could have the effect that the CF is totally unnoticed by the learner, as it can be seen in Example 32 beneath where this fact is enhanced since the recast is preceded and proceeded by praises. Hence, the teacher's correction is less likely to be noticed. This type of feedback was also regarded as reinforcement by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and despite the fact that it frequently appears in exchanges accomplished by both types of teachers, regardless of their areas of expertise, content teachers appear to resort to it more often.

Example (32):

T: What about you, X? Mention other things you can see.

S: They probably are happy.

T: Great. [PRAISE/POSITIVE FEEDBACK] **They are probably happy.** [RECAST] Good point! [PRAISE / POSITIVE FEEDBACK]

Example 32 above, illustrates a combination of praises and Corrective Feedback, in this case, recast, employed by a content teacher. This structure is commonly found within the corpus. Yet, in this case the recast is preceded and proceeded by positive evidence which makes it totally implicit. When a recast is surrounded by positive evaluation, the teacher's correction is less likely to be noticed by the student. By means of positive feedback, as it has been categorised in the observation sheet, the teacher is setting the stage for the correction trying to avoid the student hesitation,

lessening the effect of the negative comment between praises. Thus, it could be claimed that the use of praises contradicts the correction's aim: mending the students' utterance, which is unnoticed by the learner.

Were this study compared to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) or even a more recent one accomplished by Milla and García-Mayo (2021), it could be remarkable to mention that elicitations were the most frequent type of Corrective Feedback in the EFL setting, which are non-existent in this study. Yet, the most usual type of Corrective Feedback employed by English specialists in this study is, without any doubt, translation (31%) followed by recasts (20%) and paraphrased recasts (20%).

Therefore, it is significant to highlight that teachers within this study appear to prefer reformulating the erroneous utterance for the students, rather than prompting the learner to recognise and self-correct his/her error. Through the employment of reformulations, the hard work is already done by the teacher who has accommodated the erroneous utterance in a corrected one. In this case, the student only needs to notice the difference between both. Yet, Ibarrola (2009: 39) studied the effectiveness of reformulations in contrast to prompts and she came to the conclusion that the former is "*more effective on error correction*" while the latter "*appears to be less effective but more valid*". In other words, reformulations are effective since they provide a trustworthy and rigorous correction of the erroneous utterance accomplished by the teacher, whereas prompts turn the student into an active participant who needs to self-correct his/her inaccurate utterance, which despite its positive impact on the learner, is hardly ever achieved.

What is more, throughout this observation analysis two additional types of feedback have been encountered. On the one hand 'paraphrased recasts' as they have been named and on the other hand, a distinct version of metalinguistic feedback, which has been categorised as 'translation prompting', separate from the former given its high frequency – 14% by English specialists and 13% by content teachers –. Despite the fact that these two types of CF were introduced in the theoretical background section, they will be examined in depth in the following lines.

First, although 'paraphrased recasts' appear to resemble Mohan and Beckett's (2003) functional recast, the former has nothing to do with the latter. Functional recasts offer "*an alternative, more literate, precise way to express the meaning*" (Mohan & Beckett, 2003: 423). In other words, this type of recasts edits and improves the learners' corrected discourse to a more

academic and literate one. According to Mohan and Beckett (2003: 431) functional recasts involve a cooperative process where the teacher works as an editor who "*recasts to improve and repair S(student)'s causal explanation*". Yet, the new variety of recasts found and investigated within this study – named 'paraphrased recasts' – bears no relation to the academic discourse setting above presented since the learners contemplated within this study are framed in a non-academic English language teaching context.

Paraphrased recasts also focus on non-erroneous utterances articulated by the learner, but in this case, they provide a distinct and sometimes more accurate version of them, accomplished by the teacher, so that the rest of the students are able to listen to other variants of the same utterance which sound better, bearing no relation to the academic discourse. This type of feedback is the second most used CF by English specialists (20%; see Figure 13) due to its language editing nature. Hence, paraphrased recasts are not concerned with providing complexity to utterances, but rather alternatives of the same students' corrected articulation. However, despite the fact that they are commonly employed by both groups of teachers (20% by English specialists and 16% by content teachers; see Figure 13) this type of feedback does not lead to students' uptake and when it does, it is always needs-repair (see Table 4), as it will later on be discussed. An example of this type of feedback followed by students no uptake is provided below.

Example (33):

T: Do you prefer to go out or to stay at home?
S: I prefer to be alone.
T: **OK. You prefer to be on your own.** [PARAPHRASED RECAST]
S: * no answer * [NO UPTAKE]

As it can be illustrated in Example 33 above the teacher initiates the exchange with a closed referential question posted to the student, which is answered by him/her correctly. However, the teacher decides to accept the non-erroneous utterance with an "OK" and provide a paraphrased version of it, which appears to offer another expression to the one uttered by the student. In this way, the rest of the students listen to a different variant of the same sentence and thus, gain more vocabulary. Yet, despite the teacher's effort to provide a different alternative, this type of feedback is hardly ever followed by learners' uptake, as it is depicted with this example (* no answer *).

Thus, it is not clear whether students noticed and became aware of this new type of corrective feedback.

Second, taking into account that teachers considered inappropriate the use of the L1 within their English-oriented sessions, it was common to find situations where the teacher had to prompt the use of the L2, and thus, resort to translation prompting (14% among English specialists and 13% among content teachers; in Figure 13). Therefore, the use of feedback that was concerned with students' translation prompting has been separated from another possible categorisation within metalinguistic feedback, giving it the name of 'translation prompting'. As aforementioned, this type of feedback prompts student translation of their L1 utterances in the L2 and despite the fact that they could be regarded as a type of metalinguistic feedback where the teacher prompts the student to correct the mistaken utterance by using a clear-cut comment, without providing the correct utterance, it was treated as a separate type of feedback given its high frequency. In the majority of the studied cases, this type of feedback was introduced with the sentence "In English!". As in the previous type of feedback, translation prompting seldom led to the students' noticing and thus, they were hardly ever followed by students' uptake (80% of no uptake by language experts and 83% by content teachers: see Table 4). Example 34 below illustrates this type of feedback and how it goes unnoticed by the learner.

Example (34):

T: Do you think that if your boyfriend wants to know your location could be considered toxic?
S: Of course. ¡Estamos locos!
T: **In English!** [TRANSLATION PROMPTING]
S: * no answer * [NO UPTAKE]

As Example 34 depicts the teacher initiates the exchange with a closed-referential question, which leads to the student's assertion coupled with a simple minimal comment using the L1. This final commentary accomplished in Spanish is seen negatively by the teacher who prompts its translation into English, and thus, demands the use of the L2. Yet, the 'translation prompting' has no effect on the student who decides to remain silence.

All in all, it could be finally concluded that there exist differences in the amount and types of Corrective Feedback employed by each group of teachers. Yet, as mentioned by San and Takaaki (2020: 160) "*the effectiveness of corrective feedback in the acquisition of L2 depends on motivation of the students, the amount of correction offered by the teachers, how well the students notice their errors and understand the correct forms*".

(4) Do learners react differently to certain types of feedback in each class? What type of CF lead to more uptake in each context?

Noticing is crucial in order to make Corrective Feedback effective, as previously maintained by San and Takaaki (2020). Thus, as it was mentioned in the theoretical background of this study, there exist three different ways in which students can react to teachers' feedback. On the one hand, whenever students notice and react towards feedback, there is uptake, which can be further divided into repair (there is reformulated correction) or needs-repair (there is not reformulated correction). On the other hand, in the event that the student does not notice the correction and thus, does not react to it, there is no uptake. As previously analysed (see Figure 14), uptake was more commonly found within English specialists' sessions (47%) rather than in those taught by content teachers (38%). However, the vast majority of the latter's uptake was due to a high percentage of students' needs-repair (79%) – either acknowledgement or different error –, in contrast to a higher amount of repair achieved by English specialists (53%), where students do even incorporate or self-repair their utterances (see Figure 15, 16 & 17). Therefore, it could be claimed that language experts obtain a more quality uptake than the one acquired by content teachers which is inferior and less efficient.

Besides, not only is the uptake or absence of it influenced by the type of teacher but also by the Corrective Feedback type. As it was previously presented in Table 4, each type of CF employed by each group of teachers leads to a different type of uptake or no uptake. In this sense, in the English specialists' sessions clarification request, repetition and metalinguistic feedback led to a 100% of repair; on the contrary, explicit correction led to 100% of needs-repair. However, translation, which as aforementioned was the most common type of CF employed by English teachers also achieved a great amount of uptake by students, precisely repair (46%). Regarding no uptake, paraphrased recast stands out (86%) followed by translation prompting (80%), which, as aforementioned, are hardly ever followed by students' uptake of any kind. These results show that

despite the effectiveness of reformulations on error correction (Ibarrola, 2009), prompts appear to succeed in obtaining learners' uptake, and more precisely repair.

These results have nothing in common with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, where elicitation was the most effective type of CF for the sake of eliciting students' uptake. In this study, elicitation has not been contemplated since no example of this CF was found throughout the corpus. Therefore, no trustworthy comparison can be accomplished among studies.

In contrast, as aforementioned, content teachers showed less variety in the types of CFs employed. What is more, their results regarding uptake or the absence of it are completely distinct from the ones previously discussed among language experts. Unlike English specialists' recasts, content teachers' recasts are the only CF type that led to some repair by students (17%), leading the rest of the CF types to either needs-repair or no uptake (see Table 4). The reason why recasts employed by content teachers are sometimes followed by the learner's repair, could be due to its high and constant employment, in contrast to other CF types, as previously discussed. Hence, recasts appear to have distinct efficiency depending on the teachers' profile. Within needs-repair explicit correction stands out (100%) followed by metalinguistic feedback (67%), what clearly shows that the more elaborated the correction is, the more difficult for students to notice and repair it. Regarding no uptake, something similar to what happened with English specialists occurs with content teachers but the other way around. In this case, translation prompting stands out (83%) followed paraphrased recasts (71%), firmly demonstrating that teachers' efforts trying to provide alternatives and prompting students' translation of their utterances in the L1, are good for nothing in both settings. Indeed, as Gladday (2012: 35) claimed "*corrective feedback could be ineffective if there is a mismatch between the teacher's intention and the learners' interpretation*", what appears to happen in those cases where the teacher corrects the student and the latter does not notice the correction or find it worthless to produce uptake.

All things considered, it is fair to highlight that learners do react differently depending on not only the teacher but also the type of CF provided. In this way, despite the fact that in sessions taught by content teachers more feedback is found, the quality and complexity of it is far exceeded by the one obtained in sessions implemented by language experts. Yet, uptake is not as commonly found as teachers would like, since as previously mentioned merely half of the CFs provided by teachers is followed by students' uptake. According to Dressler et al. (2019), in order to make feedback able

to prompt students' uptake some favourable conditions are necessary, such as a non-aggressive and positive atmosphere or sufficient time, to name but a few. Dressler et al. (2019) also point out that students' acceptability coupled with their validation requirements, do also perform a crucial role. Therefore, "*training in taking up feedback is connected to course design and training in giving feedback*" (Dressler et al., 2019: 2).

(5) What beliefs do English and content teachers hold regarding interactional patterns (questions and feedback)? Do their beliefs correspond to their classroom practices?

Different approaches to teaching by different teachers may also alter their beliefs concerning the previously discussed interactional patterns. Therefore, throughout this study a questionnaire that resembled a written interview was also provided to teachers at the end of the observation period, as aforementioned, in order to know their beliefs regarding questions as well as feedback and contrast them with their actual classroom practices. Indeed, as Milla and García-Mayo (2021: 114) point out, what teachers believe "*guides their behaviour in the classroom and, consequently, affects the language learning process*". Thus, through the following lines teachers' beliefs coupled with their materialisation into the classroom corrective practices will be discussed.

Despite the fact that teachers' beliefs coincide regarding the most useful combination of questions: open + referential (see Graph 3), only content teachers adjust to that combination in the majority of the cases. As abovementioned, content teachers employ 54% of open questions (see Figure 9) and 93% of referential questions, whereas English specialists rely more on closed questions (54%) and referential ones (97%), despite claiming that open questions where the ones they employed the most (see Graph 1). Hence, it could be claimed that English specialists' beliefs partly match their actual classroom practices whereas content teachers' beliefs concerning questions adjust to their class attitudes.

Milla and García-Mayo (2021: 114) claimed that "*teachers' beliefs about CF might guide their corrective behaviour and influence the amount of correction, the CF types used and the error types addressed*". Yet, it is not the case in this study. Teachers' beliefs about their practices did not correspond to their actual practices. Except for an English teacher who confesses to use recasts, the other teachers believed that their classroom practices are riddled with repetitions, metalinguistic feedback, elicitations and explicit corrections (see Graph 7), when in fact this CFs are either

unnoticeable or inexistent in any of the settings, as it happens with elicitations. Content teachers agree with the use of explicit correction; however, their actual practice is surpassed by the corrective practice accomplished by English teachers (see Figure 13). Regarding elicitation, also selected as the most frequent CF employed by both content teachers, no instance was found in the corpus by neither of the teachers. On the other hand, both language experts advocate for metalinguistic feedback and repetitions in their classroom practices. However, each of them is only present in one instance of the corpus.

Thus, despite the fact that providing feedback is considered to be beneficial for L2 learning and teachers are aware of its use in order to correct students' erroneous utterances, it could be claimed that their beliefs do not have anything to do with their actual practices. Therefore, this study has clearly demonstrated that, as it was examined by previous research (e.g., Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Yang, 2019; in Milla & García-Mayo, 2021: 115) "*teachers' corrective behaviours do not follow their reported beliefs*". According to Bao (2019; in Milla & García-Mayo, 2021) this mismatch could be attributed to different explanations. Chavez (2006; in Milla & García-Mayo, 2021) found that teachers' individual or innate characteristics – such as their backgrounds and personalities, among others – played a crucial role, indeed, he concluded that they mediated *"between beliefs and teaching practices*" (Chavez, 2006; in Milla & García-Mayo, 2021: 116). Furthermore, Basturkmen (2012; Borg, 2003; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019; in Milla & García-Mayo, 2021) focused on how distinct teaching contexts could affect the variety of CFs employed. These are just some examples of how teachers reported beliefs are frequently incongruous with their actual corrective practices.

To conclude, it could be finally declared that as Surakka (2017: 4) stated it would be significant "*to improve teachers' knowledge of their own actions, and thus, teachers should be aware of the corrective feedback techniques they can use*".

7. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF MY STUDY & FURTHER RESEARCH

The fundamental aim of Corrective Feedback is to enhance students' mastery of a target language. According to Reigel (2005, 14; in Gladday, 2012: 37) "*the improvement that comes with corrective feedback is learning*". Yet, Corrective Feedback is only beneficial for boosting learning in the event that it is properly employed. Therefore, it is not only the quantity of that feedback, but also its variety. As abovementioned, not all teachers are equally aware of the wide array of existent CFs.

Both English specialists and content teachers have proved to provide a high quantity of Corrective Feedback (81% and 75%, respectively: see Figure 12). Yet, differences arose in its variety. English teachers make use of a wider array of CFs in contrast to that employed by content teachers, who mainly rely on recasts. Thus, content teachers should be trained on the range of existent CF types in order to make a more effective practice. In turn, English teachers, even though they are more aware of the CFs array, use questions that do not facilitate students' engagement in long responses. Hence, English teachers would also need training on how to boost classroom interaction by means of adequate interactional patterns, more precisely on questions.

Teacher training on interactional strategies and more precisely on Corrective Feedback could help to improve their teaching practices as well as foster classroom interaction. This study has shown that content teachers present limitations regarding CF provision. Thus, training teaching along these interactional patterns could be beneficial for both teachers and students. What is more, reflective practices could also be helpful since teachers' beliefs do not commonly match their actual classroom practices, as this study demonstrated. Therefore, offering teachers the chance to accomplish a conscious practice could have substantial benefits, such as promoting a more active interaction with more error noticing. In this way teachers could learn about the wide variety of CF types, which were presented within this study, as well as reflect on whether their beliefs towards this interactional pattern match their actual practices, which as this study has demonstrated, it is not always the case.

Askew (2000; in Alqahtani & Al-enzi, 2011) developed three different teaching models – Receptive-transmission, Constructive and Co-constructive – which understand the role of feedback

distinctly and pigeonhole each type of teacher into one group depending on certain clear-cut characteristics. The following chart clearly summarises each of the models, making a point on the role of the teacher, the goals of teaching and their approach towards feedback.

MODEL OF TEACHING	ROLE OF TEACHER AND GOALS OF TEACHING	FEEDBACK DISCOURSE
RECEPTIVE-TRANSMISSION	· Expert. · To impart new knowledge, concepts and skills.	· Traditional discourse in which 'expert' gives information to others to help them improve. · Primary goal to evaluate. · Feedback is a gift.
CONSTRUCTIVE	· Expert. · To facilitate discovery of new knowledge, concepts, skills. · To help make connections, discover meaning, gain new insights.	· Expand discourse in which 'expert' enables other to gain new understandings, make sense of experiences and make connections by the use of open questions and shared insight. · Primary goal to describe and discuss. · Feedback as a two-way process (ping pong).
CO-CONSTRUCTIVE	· More equal power dynamic. · Teacher is viewed and views himself or herself as a learner. · To facilitate discovery of new knowledge, concepts and skills. · To help make connections, discover meaning and gain new insights. · To practice self-reflection and facilitate a reflexive process in others about learning through a collaborative dialogue.	· Expanded discourse involving a reciprocal process of talking about learning. · Primary goal to illuminate learning for all. · Feedback is a dialogue, formed by loops connecting the participants.

Table 5: Models of teaching, views of learning and related discourses on feedback, adapted from Askew & Lodge (2000).

Each approach entails certain characteristics which may well be beneficial in distinct situations. Yet, this study suggests that in order to embody a favourable stance towards Corrective Feedback teachers should abandon a receptive-transmission model of teaching – which encourages competitiveness and can make the teacher focus on stereotypes and prejudices – in favour of a

blend between the constructive and the co-constructive approach towards teaching. Askew (2000; in Alqahtani & Al-enzi, 2011: 218) understands the constructive approach as a model of teaching that "*admits that students have different intelligence levels, and different talents*" and thus, it helps students providing a two-way communication where feedback aims to improve students' knowledge of the subject, moving "*away from evaluative judgements*" (Askew & Lodge, 2000: 8). Conversely, the main goal of the co-constructive approach is to provide "*a more equal power dynamic relationship between teacher and learner*" (Askew, 2000; in Alqahtani & Al-enzi, 2011: 219) giving the student an active and reflective role in the learning process.

This study has helped to classify English teachers within the first model – receptive-transmission – not only because they are language experts, but also because they are very concerned with providing feedback to students' errors (81% in Figure 12) and also ask less questions to students (39 in Table 3) which are mainly closed (54% in Figure 9) which limit students responses (56% minimal and 28% ultra-minimal, in Figure 10). Content teachers, on the contrary could be classified within the second model – constructive – due to their distinct approach to interaction. Content teachers are also concerned with providing Corrective Feedback (75% in Figure 12); however, they also ask more questions (57 in Table 3) which are more open questions (54% in Figure 9) and which led to more elaborated responses (46% minimal and 31% sustained, in Figure 10). Hence, content teachers appear to be more concerned with classroom interaction since they abandon their eventual 'expert' role in favour of a more unbound interaction. In short, English specialists are more aware of the variety of CFs to make sure language errors are addressed, but less concerned with classroom interaction, while content teachers foster interaction but are not aware of the array of CF types.

The main aim of blending these two models (Receptive-Transmision and Constructive) would be to obtain more interaction through more active participation at the same time there is error noticing. Lyster (2007, in Morgan, 2013: 11) proposed the Counterbalanced Approach by which "*students in a language-focused classroom context would benefit from being pushed to shift their attention towards content/meaning, away from the classroom's natural language orientation, in order to achieve a balance between language and content*". With this, content teacher effective practices are mingled with those accomplished by English teachers in order to foster a fruitful

interaction. Lyster's (2007) approach appears to advocate for some cooperative work or classroom observation periods between content and language teachers.

This study has aimed to prove that none of the models is ideal in isolation, but rather when they are combined. Thus, if these last two teaching models (Receptive-Transmision and Constructive) are blended, Corrective Feedback will be understood as a positive tool that could involve, empower and engage students within their learning processes and make them responsible of their own learning, while leaving the traditional authoritative, hierarchical and dominating role of the teacher behind. Therefore, adopting a mixture of the last two teaching models will be beneficial for promoting classroom interaction.

In order to test these final implications, future research could be done regarding different teaching attitudes towards Corrective Feedback and their impact on classroom diversity, which has not been accounted in this study. Indeed, future studies could offer additional insights into the employment of CFs to deal with distinct types of classroom diversity, providing more thorough guidance for involved teachers who want to improve their students' learning process through the means of Corrective Feedback.

Teachers, regardless of their areas of expertise, confront distinct types of diversity within the same class. Still, English teachers' most recurrent and notorious class of diversity has to do with students' dissimilar proficiency levels. It is the duty of the teacher to control and analyse the diverse competence levels that arose within the same class. Once this is achieved, Corrective Feedback is a suitable tool for the sake of dealing with this precise type of diversity. Indeed, as Sermsook et al. (2017: 46) reveal, "*some factors, such as types of students, students' language proficiency level and types of errors have to be taken into account when feedback is given*". The same will happen with students with different learning capacities, styles and preferences. Thereupon, Sermsook et al. (2017) are in favour of adapting feedback to class diversity. In other words, teachers should learn about the benefits of each CF type in order to make the best use of them, as it was discussed some lines above.

For instance, Sermsook et al. (2017) analysed the differences between providing direct and indirect feedback – similar to reformulations and prompts, respectively – to students, and how they could deal with diverse proficiency levels within the EFL setting.

On the one hand, research proposed that more direct strategies of CF – those in which the teacher directly provides the student with the correct form – "*should be employed to assist lower proficiency or beginner EFL students to overcome the difficulties of uncomplicated grammatical rules*" (Sermsook et al., 2017: 45). Srichanyachon. (2012; in Sermsook et al., 2017) also considered direct explicit feedback beneficial for beginner learners since they are directly supplied with the correct form of the erroneous utterance. Besides, she highlighted that this type of feedback "*may help foster students' long-term language acquisition*" (Sermsook et al., 2017: 45) apart from boosting their motivation if this type of feedback is properly employed.

Sermsook et al. (2007) also considered more indirect CFs. In this case the teacher avoids providing explicit correction, by only locating the error and giving the student the chance to detect it and amend it by him/herself. In this case, this kind of feedback appears to be more beneficial with high language proficiency learners or with those that present a high command of the language, since only those with a higher level will notice the error and be able to fix it. For instance, Erlam et al. (2013; in Sermsook et al., 2017: 46) indicated that "*indirect feedback enables students to self-repair their grammatical errors*" after perceiving the mistake. Thus, in contrast to the previously presented type of CF, this class "*enhances students' learning autonomy*" (Sermsook et al., 2017: 46).

Thus, future research on how to help teachers adjust their correction practices according to their students' proficiency levels, learning capacities, styles and preferences, would be crucial in order to attend to classroom diversity. An accurate and conscious adjustment of the CFs provided could also prompt students' uptake which, as this study has shown, is not very frequent in the EFL setting (47% in the class with English specialists and 38% in the class with content teachers, see Figure 14).

All in all, further research is necessary concerning how distinct CFs could deal with classroom diversity: proficiency levels, learning capacities, styles and preferences. What is more, it could also be interesting to observe if the teacher is aware of the benefits of these types of Corrective Feedback.

8. CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

The present study has examined the affinities between two main models – Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) IRF pattern, and Lyster and Ranta (1997) error treatment sequence – in order to retain the most fruitful part of each model and develop a more updated working tool. Combining these two approaches has been beneficial in order to elaborate a new retrofitted tool that aims to analyse classroom conversational episodes in 2nd ESO courses with an average B1 level, according to the CEFR. This observation tool, which also adapts Spada and Fröhlich (1995) COLT scheme, measures the following areas: the initiation accomplished by the teacher; the students' erroneous response to it and the target language employed by him/her; the teacher correction of that mistaken utterance through the means of Corrective Feedback; the response to that feedback accomplished by the student (i.e. uptake) if it appears.

This instrument has investigated the connections and distinctions between content teachers and English specialists who are in the same setting, since both teach the English language in an extracurricular course that prepares students for the APTIS exam. Differences were found between these two teacher's profiles. In regards to initiation and response, English specialists provide slightly more closed and restricted questions to students, what limits the latter's answers. On the contrary, content teachers supply more open and unrestrained questions and thus, students provide longer and more sustained answers. Yet, the use of referential questions far exceeds that of displays in both cases. Regarding Corrective Feedback, language experts appear to be more aware of the vast range of CF types. By contrast, content teachers rely on recasts and barely employ other types of feedback. Yet, uptake did not commonly follow teachers' corrective feedback. In order to provide a more thorough analysis of the corpus, the results were also contrasted with teachers' beliefs regarding their employment of CFs. Throughout this detailed examination two new types of Corrective Feedback were found and appointed: paraphrased recasts and translation prompting.

The outgrowths could respond the five research questions included within this study. Firstly, each group of teachers provide a distinct amount and types of questions, except for referential which exceed by far in both cases. Secondly, teachers' initiation has an impact on the length of students' responses. Thirdly, there exist differences in the amount and types of CFs employed by content teachers and English specialists, as aforementioned. Fourthly, students react differently to those CFs in each class. Thus, more uptake was found in those sessions taught by language experts.

What is more, reformulations hardly ever lead to students' uptake, whereas prompts are commonly followed by students' uptake. Finally, teachers' beliefs, regardless of their subject matter, do not correspond with their actual classroom practices. Nonetheless, the questionnaire results show teachers' willingness to be trained on the subject for the sake of providing a beneficial use of CFs. Thus, the last section of the paper presents some pedagogical implications of CFs, making a point on how future research could overcome distinct types of diversity in the English class.

In spite of these thorough findings, some fundamental shortcomings regarding this study need to be acknowledged. To begin with, the first limitation is the data analysed. This research has only studied three classes of a 2nd ESO course in a particular high school. What is more, students participating in this study have a specific English level concentrated on the B1, according to the CEFR and thus, no distinct proficiency levels where considered. Therefore, it could be interesting to consider other levels and even transcend studying learners' concerns and demands of CFs, as well as study in depth other types of feedback. All in all, these findings are interesting but they cannot be generalised.

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10. APPENDICES

10.1. APPENDIX 1: SAMPLES OF ANALYSED EXCHANGES

Colegio Educare Antanes School — Lucía Gómez López – OBSERVATION SHEET — Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

OBSERVATION 2 OBSERVATION SHEET: BASED ON COLT PART B: COMMUNICATIVE FEATURES

Based on Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995)

	English Teacher	Date of visit	15/03/22	Nº of learners	15
☑	Content Teacher • Subject: Geography / History (B)	Topic of the lesson + Material	· Students discuss and are asked about the DIY practice.		
Language skill(s)	Speaking				
English level (CEFR)	B1	Class	2ºC		

Discourse	TL (Target language)		Initiation (types of questions)				Response (Sustained speech)			Feedback											Incorporation of students/teacher utterances		
										PEDAGOGIC		INTERACTIONAL	CORRECTIVE / EVALUATIVE								NO UPTAKE	UPTAKE	
• Real examples of students and teacher verbal interaction. • Teacher-learner interaction.	L1	L2	Open	Closed	Display	Referential	Ultra-minimal	Minimal	Sustained	Positive	Negative		Recast	Translation	PROMPTS: Clarification request	PROMPTS: Repetition	PROMPTS: Elicitation	PROMPTS: Metalinguistic	PROMPTS: Explicit correction			REPAIR	NEEDS-REPAIR
T: what did I say? S: 'que tenemos que hacerlo individual'.	☑		☑		☑				☑														
T: ahá, and what else? S: and in silence. T: Fantastic!		☑	☑		☑		☑			☑													
T: Do you buy things in Ikea? S: 'hace mucho'. T: Please, in English! [1] A long time ago. [2]	☑			☑		☑	☑							2 ☑				1 ☑			☑		

Colegio Educare Antanes School — Lucía Gómez López – OBSERVATION SHEET — Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

OBSERVATION 3 OBSERVATION SHEET: BASED ON COLT PART B: COMMUNICATIVE FEATURES

Based on Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995)

☑	English Teacher (A)	Date of visit	16/03/22	Nº of learners	26
	Content Teacher • Subject: _____	Topic of the lesson + Material	· Class discussion after watching a video about money.		
Language skill(s)	Speaking				
English level (CEFR)	B1	Class	2ºB		

Discourse	TL (Target language)		Initiation (types of questions)				Response (Sustained speech)			Feedback											Incorporation of students/teacher utterances		
										PEDAGOGIC		INTERACTIONAL	CORRECTIVE / EVALUATIVE								NO UPTAKE	UPTAKE	
• Real examples of students and teacher verbal interaction. • Teacher-learner interaction.	L1	L2	Open	Closed	Display	Referential	Ultra-minimal	Minimal	Sustained	Positive	Negative		Recast	Translation	PROMPTS: Clarification request	PROMPTS: Repetition	PROMPTS: Elicitation	PROMPTS: Metalinguistic	PROMPTS: Explicit correction			REPAIR	NEEDS-REPAIR
T: Where is it important to budget? S: 'en economia'. T: in economy. S: is economy difficult? T: I don't think so.	☑		☑			☑	☑							☑								☑ (incorporation)	
T: You need to know your incomes. What are 'incomes'? S: no idea. T: 'ingresos'.		☑	☑		☑		☑							☑							☑		

Antanes School — Lucía Gómez López – OBSERVATION SHEET — Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

OBSERVATION 5 OBSERVATION SHEET: BASED ON COLT PART B: COMMUNICATIVE FEATURES

Based on Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995)

☑	English Teacher (A)	Date of visit	18/03/22	Nº of learners	15
	Content Teacher • Subject: _____	Topic of the lesson + Material	· Students talk about money in class (as it happened with 2ºB in a previous session). There's a class topic and debate about this issue.		
	Language skill(s): Speaking				
	English level (CEFR): B1	Class	2ºC		

Discourse	TL (Target language)		Initiation (types of questions)				Response (Sustained speech)			Feedback												Incorporation of students/teacher utterances		
										PEDAGOGIC		INTERACTIONAL	CORRECTIVE / EVALUATIVE									NO UPTAKE	UPTAKE	
• Real examples of students and teacher verbal interaction. • Teacher-learner interaction.	L1	L2	Open	Closed	Display	Referential	Ultra-minimal	Minimal	Sustained	Positive	Negative		Recast	Translation	PROMPTS: Clarification request	PROMPTS: Repetition	PROMPTS: Elicitation	PROMPTS: Metalinguistic	PROMPTS: Explicit correction				REPAIR	NEEDS-REPAIR
T: What do you spend your money on? S: On something I like. T: OK. On things you fancy.		☑	☑			☑		☑					☆									☑		
T: How much do you get? S: 5 euros.		☑	☑			☑	☑																	
T: Do you lend money to someone? S: 'mi padre me pilló 10€'. T: In English! S: * no answer *	☑			☑		☑		☑										☑				☑		

Antanes School — Lucía Gómez López – OBSERVATION SHEET — Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

OBSERVATION 6 OBSERVATION SHEET: BASED ON COLT PART B: COMMUNICATIVE FEATURES

Based on Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995)

	English Teacher	Date of visit	21/03/22	Nº of learners	25
☑	Content Teacher • Subject: Religion / Music (A)	Topic of the lesson + Material	· Students talk about toxic relationships through a BuzzFeed test, in which they have to classify several statements on whether they are considered green flag, red flag or toxic relationship.		
	Language skill(s): Speaking				
	English level (CEFR): B1	Class	2ºA		

Discourse	TL (Target language)		Initiation (types of questions)				Response (Sustained speech)			Feedback												Incorporation of students/teacher utterances		
										PEDAGOGIC		INTERACTIONAL	CORRECTIVE / EVALUATIVE									NO UPTAKE	UPTAKE	
• Real examples of students and teacher verbal interaction. • Teacher-learner interaction.	L1	L2	Open	Closed	Display	Referential	Ultra-minimal	Minimal	Sustained	Positive	Negative		Recast	Translation	PROMPTS: Clarification request	PROMPTS: Repetition	PROMPTS: Elicitation	PROMPTS: Metalinguistic	PROMPTS: Explicit correction				REPAIR	NEEDS-REPAIR
T: What about 'giving small gifts early on in the dating stages'. Where would you classify this statement? S: I think is a green flag. T: OK. You think IT is a green flag.		☑	☑			☑			☑				☑									☑		

10.2. APPENDIX 2: TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

TYPES OF QUESTIONS & CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

I have designed this anonymous and confidential formular as one of the instruments for my TFM. This questionnaire aims to determine your beliefs and concerns regarding error feedback.

As you will see, it is divided into three distinct but interrelated sections (specified below), each of them deals with a different issue analysed within my master's thesis.

1. Types of questions.
2. Corrective feedback.
3. Positive feedback.

I would be grateful if you answer all the questions. It won't take more than a couple of minutes.

Thank you so much for your collaboration!💔

*Obligatorio

All your answers will be treated confidentially.

1. Name: *

2. Subjects taught: *

3. Years of teaching experience: *

TYPES OF QUESTIONS

Read the given situation and answer the questions.

- Questions 1 and 1.1 refer to your teaching practice.
- Question 2 refers to the practice you think is the most effective.

The students are in a class debate. They should speak in English about a topic you have selected previously: food. Nonetheless, students do not participate as much as you expected. Thus, you will need to ask them questions in order to increase and foster class participation.

4. 1. What types of questions do you use the most as a teacher? *

Marca solo un óvalo.

- ◯ Open: What is your favourite meal?
- ◯ Closed: Is junk food your favourite meal?

5. 1.1. What type of questions do you use the most as a teacher? *

Marca solo un óvalo.

- ◯ Display: Does junk food contain fat?
- ◯ Referential: What would you like to eat today?

These are the differences between DISPLAY and REFERENTIAL questions.

6. 2. Once you know the differences between display and referential questions. What pair-type of questions do you think is the most effective? *

Marca solo un óvalo.

- Referential + Closed
- Referential + Open
- Display + Closed
- Display + Open

7. 2.1. Why do you think so? *

CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Read the situation and answer the questions.

· Question 3 referS to your teaching practice.
· Question 4 refers to the practice you think is the most effective.

On the basis of the previous situation. Once you have fostered students' participation within the class debate, you realise that a student makes a mistake. He says "my father LOVE cooking". He forgets the '-s'. Consequently, you decide to correct him.

8. 3. What type of corrective feedback do you use the most as a teacher? Select more than one. *

Selecciona todos los que correspondan.

- [ ] Recast: "oh, that's nice, he loveS cooking"
- [ ] Clarification request: "pardon me?" / "sorry?"
- [ ] Repetition: "my father LOVE...?"
- [ ] Elicitation: "my father...?"
- [ ] Metalinguistic: "remember that 'my father' is a third person singular pronoun"
- [ ] Explicit correction: "oh, you should say he loveS cooking. My father loves cooking but NOT he love"

9. 4. What type of feedback do you think is the most effective? *

Marca solo un óvalo.

- ◯ Recast
- ◯ Clarification request
- ◯ Repetition
- ◯ Elicitation
- ◯ Metalinguistic
- ◯ Explicit correction

10. 4.1. Why do you think so? *

POSITIVE FEEDBACK

This type of feedback stands for praising learners for doing a good job. Some examples of positive feedback would be: "great", "excellent", "well done"...

11. 5. Do you make use of positive feedback as a teacher? *

Marca solo un óvalo.

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ I don't know

12. 5.1. If so, how often do you make use of it?

Marca solo un óvalo.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very often	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Rarely

13. 5.1. Do you think positive feedback is effective? *

Marca solo un óvalo.

- Yes
- No
- Maybe

14. 5.2. If so, why do you think so?