

**Corrective feedback, error types, and learner uptake:
The role of individual differences**

by

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STUDENT DECLARATION FORM

I declare that while registered as a candidate for the research degree, I have not been a registered candidate or enrolled student for another award of the University or any other academic or professional institution.

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Abstract

This study investigates Greek-Cypriot English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' perceptions towards error production, and their attitudes towards Corrective Feedback (CF). Moreover, students' attitudes are explored in relation to other individual differences, in order to demonstrate whether concepts such as age, gender, motivation, and personality traits, influence students' attitudes. In addition, the study describes error-treatment interaction patterns in Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms, and interprets students' reactions to CF in terms of immediate uptake. Furthermore, the relationship between students' attitudes, other individual differences, and the production of uptake is explored, and the reasons for the success of CF are interpreted. The study adopts a mixed methods research approach through the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data, in the form of questionnaires and naturalistic classroom data. Findings revealed Greek-Cypriot EFL students' awareness about error production, and their positive attitudes towards CF. Outcomes also indicated that students' individual differences explained variances in their attitudes towards error-related issues. Additionally, the study found the distributions of error, CF, and uptake types, and the relations between errors and CF, as well as between CF and uptake, in naturalistic Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms. What is more, the study identified emerged CF techniques, characteristics, and combinations of CF types that could help students' immediate reactions to CF. Lastly, the study showed a relation between students' attitudes, other individual differences, and the production and quality of uptake, as well as features of CF that could affect students' immediate uptake, irrespective of students' attitudes towards the relevant CF techniques.

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List of Abbreviations

- CG = Cypriot Greek
- CF = Corrective Feedback
- CLIL = Content and Language Integrated Learning
- EFL = English as a Foreign Language
- ENL = English as a Native Language
- ESL = English as a Second Language
- FFI = Form-Focused Instruction
- FL = Foreign Language
- FTA = Face Threatening Act
- IELTS = International English Language Testing System
- L1 = First language
- L2 = Second language
- NNS = Non-Native Speaker
- NS = Native Speaker
- S = Student
- SLA = Second Language Acquisition
- SMG = Standard Modern Greek
- T = Teacher
- ZPD = Zone of Proximal Development

Glossary

Acknowledgment is needs-repair uptake which refers to a student's 'yes' that is taken to mean 'yes that is what I meant to say', in response to the teacher's CF.

Addition recast is a reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance that supplies a missing grammatical element.

Corrective Feedback (CF) episode represents a three turn exchange between a student and a teacher. The episode's first turn is typically a student's erroneous utterance, followed by the teacher's CF, followed by a learner uptake.

Clarification request is a CF technique which indicates that a student's utterance is incomprehensible, inaccurate, or both. The aim is for the student to repeat, or to reformulate the original erroneous utterance.

Clause recast is a reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance that contains at least two phrasal constituents, including a finite verb.

Declarative recast represents a student's erroneous utterance that is reformulated in a statement.

Deletion recast is a reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance that removes a linguistic element.

Different error is needs-repair uptake that represents a student's utterance that does not correct or repeat the initial error, but it includes a new one.

Elicitation is a CF technique that aims for the direct elicitation of the correct form from the student through an intentional blank, an open-ended question, or a request for the reformulation of the original erroneous utterance.

Error correction refers to the use of CF techniques by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in response to students' erroneous utterances.

Error production refers to EFL students' erroneous utterances that are produced in the target language.

Explicit correction is a CF technique that refers to the provision of the correct form following a student's erroneous utterance.

Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation is a CF technique that refers to the provision of target forms accompanied by metalanguage that explains the erroneous form.

Grammatical errors refer to erroneous uses of lexical items that belong to closed classes such as determiners, prepositions, and pronouns. Additionally, grammatical errors refer to grammatical gender, tense, verb morphology, subject/verb agreement, pluralisation, negation, question formation, relativization, and word order.

Hesitation is needs-repair uptake that refers to a student's uncertainty of what to respond to a teacher's CF.

Interrogative recast represents a student's erroneous statement that is reformulated in an interrogative form.

Incorporation is repair uptake that refers to a student's repetition of a teacher's corrected form, which is then incorporated into a longer utterance.

Incorporated recast consists of the target-like reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance, and it involves additional semantic content.

Isolated recast involves the reformulation of only the non-target-like part of a student's erroneous utterance, without adding new information.

Lexical errors encompass inaccurate, imprecise, or inappropriate choice of open class lexis i.e. nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives. Moreover, lexical errors refer to non-target derivations of these open class words, involving improper use of prefixes and suffixes.

Long CF episode is a CF episode that comprises more than three turns.

Long combination episode refers to a CF episode that comprises more than three turns, and the teacher's CF turns consist of a combination of prompts and reformulations.

Long prompt episode refers to a CF episode that comprises more than three turns, and the teacher's CF turns consist of only prompts.

Long reformulation episode refers to a CF episode that comprises more than three turns, and the teacher's CF turns consist of only reformulations.

Long phrase recast is a reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance that consists of more than two words, including one content word, but excluding a finite verb.

Metalinguistic feedback is a CF technique that refers to metalinguistic explanation in the form of comments, information, or questions pointing to the well-formedness of a student's utterance.

Metalinguistic feedback in L1 is a CF technique that shares the characteristics of metalinguistic feedback, but it is conveyed in students and teachers' shared L1.

Modified output represents needs-repair uptake that encompasses a student's effort to modify his/her initial erroneous utterance, namely different error, and partial error.

Multiple change recast is a reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance that consists of more than one change.

Needs-repair is uptake that involves a student's utterance that is still erroneous.

Non-reduced recast is a reformulation that contains the student's entire erroneous utterance.

One change recast is a reformulation that changes only one linguistic item in the student's erroneous utterance.

Partial repair is needs-repair uptake that refers to a student's utterance that contains partial correction of the initial error following the teacher's CF.

Peer-repair is repair uptake that represents peer-correction, provided by a student other than the one who produced the error, in response to the teacher's CF.

Phonological errors refer to decoding errors that students produce while reading aloud, and mispronunciations relating to additions or omissions of obligatory elements, due to particularities of the Cypriot-Greek (CG) system, due to the influence of Greek/CG lexis, improper stressed syllables in monosyllabic or polysyllabic words, and mispronunciations relating to the quality of vowel and consonant sounds.

Prompts push learners to self-repair, and they do not provide target reformulations of students' non-target output. Prompts include clarification request, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and repetition.

Recast is a CF technique that refers to a reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance minus the error.

Recast with L1 is a CF technique that refers to a reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance minus the error, accompanied by the L1 translation of the reformulation.

Reduced recast is a reformulation that is shorter than the learner's erroneous utterance.

Reformulations supply students with target reformulations of their non-target output. Reformulations include explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, recast, recast with L1, translation, and translation in L1.

Reordering recast is a reformulation that changes the order of the elements of a student's erroneous utterance.

Repair is uptake that involves a student's utterance that corrects his/her original erroneous utterance.

Repetition is a CF type that refers to the teacher's repetition of the erroneous part of a student's utterance in isolation, typically with a change in intonation to highlight the error.

Repetition is repair uptake that refers to a student's repetition of the teacher's reformulation.

Self-repair is repair uptake which refers to a student's self-correction in response to the teacher's CF that does not provide the correct form.

Same error is needs-repair uptake that represents a repetition of a student's initial error as a response to the teacher's CF.

Substitution recast is a reformulation of a student's utterance that replaces one element with another element.

Translation is a CF technique in the form of a target-like reformulation of an erroneous utterance. It is provided in response to a student's unsolicited use of L1.

Translation in L1 is a CF technique that refers to the teacher's use of L1 to translate an erroneous word, phrase, or utterance, and/ or to translate, or define the expected correct word, phrase, or utterance.

Uptake is a student's immediate utterance following the teacher's provision of CF.

Unmodified output represents needs-repair uptake which does not incorporate a student's effort to modify his/her initial non-target form(s), namely acknowledgment, hesitation, off target, and same error.

Unsolicited use of L1 refers to a students' use of the L1, when the L2 was expected and would have been appropriate.

Word/short phrase recast is a reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance that consists of one only one word, or a short phrase with one content word.

Multiple change recast is a reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance that consists of more than one change.

1. Introduction

1.1 Personal context

Interactional Corrective Feedback (CF) has been a language learning ‘product’ that has interested me ever since I conducted my first research attempt as an undergraduate student. Greek-Cypriot English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners appear not to have plenty of opportunities to use the language in their everyday lives. While a Greek-Cypriot EFL learner can be exposed to English input through the media, as for example, when listening to English music, or when watching English speaking films and series, producing English output does not seem to be so easily achieved without having an interlocutor. Students’ output productions within classroom environments rely on interaction opportunities that they receive from their teachers during their lessons. When given the opportunity to produce output, it is likely that learners will produce errors, and I believe that ‘negative evidence’, information about what is missing or is ungrammatical, in the form of feedback on errors, can benefit learners in various ways. In addition to my interest in CF, I went on to conduct research studies as part of my postgraduate education, where I developed an interest in learner attitudes. I believe that learning about students’ perspectives on language learning can help shape teachers’ practices positively. Therefore, combining research on CF and attitudes appeared stimulating to me, and that is how the idea for this study was initially born. I developed a research idea that was not only exciting for me, but would also fill a gap in oral CF related research in two ways: a new context, and new variables.

Firstly, I wanted to study learners’ oral productions to discover error-treatment interaction patterns in Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms, because this is the context I work in, and the one I had learnt English myself. The *bidialectal* setting of Cyprus qualifies as a new context in oral CF literature. Greek-Cypriot learners are able to speak two dialects of the same language, the local vernacular ‘Low’ Cypriot Greek (CG) and the superposed ‘High’ Standard Modern Greek (SMG) (Tsiplakou, Papapavlou, Pavlou, & Katsoyannou, 2006; Tsiplakou, 2009; Yiakoumetti, 2006; Arvaniti, 2010; Yule, 2010; Grohmann, 2011; Rowe & Grohmann, 2013, 2014). In Cyprus, students learn literacy in SMG, but they grow up using CG at home and in most interaction settings before they begin school. Secondly, I

was interested in students' perceptions towards error production, and their attitudes towards CF, therefore I combined them. While I was developing this idea, other biological and socio-psychological individual differences caught my attention, primarily because I considered them important, but also due to the lack of attention in previous CF studies. Hence, I implemented those as part of the new variables, and my research objectives became clearer: I wanted to investigate Greek-Cypriot EFL learners' attitudes towards error-related issues, and the potential impact of other individual differences such as age, gender, motivation, and personality traits, on their attitudes. Moreover, I wanted to study the success of CF in terms of uptake, and to understand the reasons for successful or unsuccessful CF. Finally, I wanted to explore the relationships, if any, between students' attitudes, other individual differences, and the success of CF.

1.2 Background of the study

The role of interaction in learning is supported from a cognitive-interactionist perspective (Piaget, 1974) which posits that optimum L2 acquisition occurs when internal (cognitive) factors and external (environmental) factors interact. While the importance of positive evidence, namely comprehensible input, has been widely discussed and researched (e.g. Krashen, 1985, 2013; Gass, 1997; VanPatten & Williams, 2007; Gass & Mackey, 2013), it would seem to make sense to explore the role of the converse, namely negative evidence, in the form of students' output. One of the main cognitive theories of CF is Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis which evolved from Hatch's (1978) work on the importance of interaction as an actual site of L2 learning, and from Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis which claims that comprehensible input is necessary for Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Interaction Hypothesis acknowledges the necessity of L2 input, but also highlights the importance of negotiated interaction for L2 learning.

Swain's (1985, 1993, 2000, 2005) Output Hypothesis is another cognitive theoretical perspective which emphasizes the importance of output in learning, as it helps learners to notice a problem by feedback pushing them to process language more deeply, with more mental processing, than input alone requires. Long's updated Interaction Hypothesis (2007) highlights the importance of negative evidence obtained during negotiation work, through the provision of CF which aids learners to pay attention and to notice specific forms. In addition, Schmidt's (1990, 1993, 1995, 2001) Noticing Hypothesis claims that

learners must be consciously aware of the linguistic input in order for it to become intake, and it highlights that feedback, one of the outcomes of interaction, draws learners' attention to the 'gap' between their interlanguage and the target language. Hence, learners are more attentive towards the input that follows, and this is believed to be essential for SLA. Accordingly, the core components of an interactionist approach are: interactionally modified input, learners' attention being drawn to their interlanguage and to L2 formal features, and opportunities to produce output, and receive feedback (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2012), which come together in what Long (1991) termed "focus on form".

Interaction research is currently at a point where it asks questions which are fundamentally different from those asked previously. Questions have moved from the status of 'whether', to the status of 'how' interaction impacts L2 learning processes. Interaction related studies have been carried out in different contexts, in a range of settings, with different data elicitation methods and measurements of efficiency. The broad picture contains studies that focus on learners' oral productions and perceptions of oral feedback, and the effectiveness of feedback is verified in terms of indicators such as uptake, noticing, and learning (Mackey, 2007; Mackey, Abbuhl, & Gass, 2012; Gass & Mackey, 2012). These studies were both based in classroom settings, and/or laboratory settings, and they were both experimental and/or descriptive in nature. Several meta-analyses provided strong support for the beneficial effects of CF (Russell & Spada, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Brown, 2016). However, due to differences in terms of context, classroom and laboratory studies have led to different learning outcomes (Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013). The high ecological validity that naturalistic classroom data offers, and its relevancy to the current study, are the reasons I will focus on observational studies of CF and uptake.

Different CF types have emerged from descriptive studies investigating naturally occurring CF. From Chaudron's (1977) early extensive negative feedback list, to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) influential study which modified the list, CF types have been the focus of numerous classroom studies, reporting their distribution across a range of instructional contexts. For example, the picture includes English as a Second Language (ESL), EFL, English immersion, French immersion, and Japanese immersion settings across different

countries, with children and/or adult participants. Relationships examined in these studies included those between CF and error types, and/or learner uptake. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Mackey & Philip, 1998; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Morris, 2002; Havranek, 2002; Lochtman, 2002; Loewen 2004; Sheen, 2004; Tsang, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Kim & Han, 2007; Lee, 2007; McCarthy, 2008; Yoshida, 2008; Yang, 2009; Vicente-Rasomalla, 2009; Simard & Jean, 2011; Llinares & Lyster, 2014). The fact that uptake, modified output, and repair, could possibly indicate that the corrective purpose of feedback has been noticed, suggests that they are possible facilitators of learning (Swain, 1995; Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Mackey et al., 2000; Lyster & Mori, 2002; Révész, 2002; Egi, 2010). However, it is acknowledged that uptake does not necessarily indicate noticing of target language, and that students' noticing of target language could take place after receiving CF, even when it is not evident in their uptake responses (Mackey & Philip, 1998).

From all feedback types, recast received the most attention, with studies focusing on its characteristics associated with uptake success (Doughty & Vela, 1998; Lyster, 1998; Leeman, 2000; Philip, 2003; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Loewen, 2004; Sheen, 2006; Asari, 2017). Additionally, oral CF research provided a generally quantitative descriptive picture of CF success. The *bidialectal* Greek-Cypriot EFL context is absent from CF research, and only a handful of studies reported characteristics of feedback types, other than recast, associated with uptake, modified output, or repair.

The success of CF was also associated with potential moderator variables such as proficiency level, age, analytical ability, aptitude, phonological memory, working memory, and attention control (e.g. Oliver, 2000, 2002; Han, 2002; Mackey, Adams, Stafford, & Winke, 2002; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Robinson, 2007; Trofimovitch et al., 2007; Mackey et al., 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Oliver et al., 2008; Révész, 2012b). Less attention however has been given to other individual difference concepts such as motivation variables and personality traits, with Ellis and Sheen (2006) inviting research concerning the impact of these concepts on the perception of recasts. Moreover, very few studies questioned the relationship between anxiety and error correction (DeKeyser, 1993; Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Sheen, 2008, 2011), with

Sheen (2011) calling for more studies to investigate the relationship between anxiety and micro-processes of language learning. In addition, whether gender, motivation, or personality traits such as extroversion and introversion affect the success of CF in naturalistic settings remains an open question.

Furthermore, within the context of language teaching, the subject of attitudes in relation to the domain of error correction in ESL/EFL research has not been under investigation to a great extent (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Chenoweth et al., 1983; Oladejo, 1993; McCargar, 1993; Bang, 1999; Schulz, 2001; Katayama, 2006, 2007; Kavaliauskiene & Anusiene, 2012; Azar & Molavi, 2013), and in the context of Cyprus it is non-existent. Moreover, in the few studies which have dealt with attitudes, learners' attitudes towards CF types have been found to be related to students' proficiency level, and age (Brown, 2009; Kaivanpanahet et al., 2012; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016), but the influence of individual difference concepts, such as gender, motivation, and personality traits on students' attitudes remains to be explored. In addition, there is limited empirical research on the influence of students' attitudes on the effectiveness of CF (Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Sheen, 2006). The influence of students' attitudes on CF success in terms of uptake remains to be explored, as well as the impact of other learner factors such as motivation, and personality traits.

1.3 Purpose of the study

In the present study, my goal is to address the above defined deficiencies in the literature. Firstly, my purpose is to fill a gap in the CF literature by investigating Greek-Cypriot EFL learners' perceptions towards error production, and their attitudes towards CF. Moreover, I aim to discover whether individual difference concepts such as age, gender, motivation, and personality traits, affect students' attitudes. In addition, I intend to describe Greek-Cypriot error-treatment interaction patterns, and to test and interpret students' immediate reactions to CF in terms of uptake. Lastly, I aim to explore the relationship between Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes, other individual differences, and the production of uptake after CF, as well as the reasons that CF might be successful or unsuccessful.

1.4 Significance of the study

The present study adds to the descriptive literature of CF. Firstly, it investigates Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes towards error production and CF. Secondly, it identifies error-treatment interaction patterns in the Greek-Cypriot EFL setting, which qualifies as a new context for oral CF related research. Moreover, the implementation of both quantitative and qualitative analysis offers a new understanding on the success of CF in naturalistic settings. In addition, the new variables that are studied in relation to CF success, and the relation between the impacts of individual differences on students' attitudes add to the literature in the field.

The study can also help improve teaching practices. EFL teachers could benefit from the present investigation for the following reasons: Firstly, discovering Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes towards error-related issues could help teachers in Cyprus to have knowledge over the extent of using CF. Secondly, identifying CF types and understanding which of their characteristics could influence their success in immediate uptake, could help EFL teachers in Cyprus and in other similar settings to implement these in their teaching practices. Third, indicating whether attitudes and other learner factors affect the success of CF can serve as input for language teachers, who could adjust their practices towards a methodological repertoire based on their students' needs.

1.5 Research Questions

In this study I aim to answer the following Research Questions:

Research Question 1:

What are the Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes towards error production and CF, and what is the relationship between students' attitudes and other individual differences, namely age, gender, motivation, and personality traits?

Research Question 2:

What are the distributions and the relations between error, CF, and uptake types, and why are certain CF types more successful than others in terms of uptake, in Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms?

Research Question 3:

What is the relationship between Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes, other individual differences, and the production of uptake after CF, and why is CF successful or unsuccessful?

1.6 Overview of thesis

In this introductory Chapter, I explain how the topic for this study originated, and I present a brief background to the study. In Chapter 2, I provide a detailed overview of the relevant literature, and I identify the gaps that I address in this study. Firstly, to set the scene of the study, I begin with a presentation of the linguistic situation in Cyprus, and I also refer to the role of English language, and English language learning in Cyprus. Secondly, I present the theoretical rationale for the study, and third, I present relevant terminology. Next, I review previous empirical research on relations between CF and uptake, and between CF, attitudes, and other individual differences. Finally, based on the identified deficiencies in the literature, I state the purpose of this study along with the Research Questions.

In Chapter 3, I detail the methodology for answering the Research Questions. I illustrate how I take an anti-dualistic stance, by synthesising both subjective and objective epistemological viewpoints, and by using both deductive and inductive reasoning to inquiry, based on practicality. Furthermore, I explain how pragmatism serves as the philosophical partner of this mixed methods study. Moreover, I present the research strategy, the research designs that apply to the different research inquiries under study, as well as how I implement quantitative and/or qualitative methods.

In Chapter 4, I answer Research Question 1, which examines students' attitudes towards error production and CF. Firstly, I present learners' attitudes for the sample as a whole. Secondly, I indicate the impact of individual differences: age, gender, motivation, and personality traits, on students' attitudes towards the error-related issues. Third, I discuss the outcomes in light of relevant empirical and theoretical literature. Finally, I summarise the quantitative findings of the Chapter.

In Chapter 5, I answer Research Question 2, which examines error treatment interactional patterns in naturalistic Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms. I present quantitative findings about distributions of error, CF and, uptake types, as well as relations between them. Then, I discuss the findings in the light of relevant theoretical and empirical literature. Moreover, I follow-up with qualitative analysis in order to understand the success of CF, where I present and discuss emergent themes. In the end, I summarise both the quantitative and the qualitative findings of the Chapter.

In Chapter 6, I answer Research Question 3, which investigates the influence of learners' attitudes and other individual differences on the success of CF, in terms of uptake. I mix relevant quantitative and qualitative data, and I present and discuss the findings simultaneously. Firstly, I indicate the impact of individual differences that are related to specific CF types, on the success of those techniques. Secondly, I indicate the relationship between single students' attitudes towards CF types, and the success of those techniques. I also illustrate specific characteristics of feedback types that affect the quality of uptake production, regardless of students' attitudes. Once more, in the end, I summarise the findings of the Chapter.

Finally, in Chapter 7, I summarise the answers of the Research Questions that are addressed in this study. Furthermore, I provide the implications as arising from the findings. In addition, I identify the limitations of the study. Lastly, I give recommendations for future research.

1.7 Summary

The aim of this introductory Chapter was to set the scene for this study. Firstly, I explained how the idea for the conduction of this research was initially developed. Moreover, I provided brief theoretical and empirical backgrounds, in order to highlight the gaps in the literature that I wish to address in the following Chapters. I also identified the purpose and the significance of the study. In addition, the Research Questions arising from those deficiencies were introduced. Finally, I provided an overview of the thesis, by outlining the contents of each of the following Chapters, starting with Chapter 2 which is the literature review.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The current study investigates Greek-Cypriot English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' perceptions towards error production and their attitudes towards Corrective Feedback (CF). Moreover, the study takes into consideration whether individual differences such as age, gender, motivation, and personality traits explain students' attitudes. Furthermore, the study aims to describe error treatment sequences in Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms. Additionally, the role of attitudes and other individual difference concepts, namely age, motivation, and personality traits, are investigated in an attempt to discover their potential relation to the success of CF, in terms of uptake. This Chapter provides the relevant background context of the study, and identifies gaps in the current literature that the present study wishes to address. To set the scene of the study, the Chapter begins with a presentation of the linguistic and social situation in Cyprus, leading towards the role of the English language, and English language learning in Cyprus. Next, the Chapter addresses the theoretical and empirical background of CF, followed by a discussion of individual difference concepts, and their relation to CF.

2.2 Linguistic situation in Cyprus: a *bidialectal* setting

After the independence of the Republic of Cyprus in 1960, Greek and Turkish were recognised as official languages. However, there was never any functional bilingualism and Greek-Cypriots cannot be characterised as bilinguals (Charalambous & Rampton, 2012). The presence of two different languages resulted in the emergence of two distinct communities, rather than the establishment of a bilingual nation (Karyolemou, 2003, 2005). Education remained 'strictly communal' and monolingual with respective motherlands, Greece and Turkey. Therefore, people did not develop bilingual communicative abilities (Karyolemou, 2003). The majority of Greek-Cypriots have never been communicatively competent in Turkish (Ozerk, 2001; Karyolemou, 2003; Karoulla-Vrikki, 2004, 2006).

Moreover, Cyprus appears to display ‘diglossia’ in the Fergusonian sense (Ferguson, 1959; Fishman, 1967). Diglossia is a language situation in which two distinct codes show clear functional separation (Wardhaugh, 2010). Papapavlou (1996) described Cyprus as a diglossic community where Greek-Cypriots use Cypriot Greek (CG) for their daily interactions with friends and family, and Standard Modern Greek (SMG) for formal situations. Similarly, Moschonas (1996) claimed that CG and SMG find themselves in complementary distribution within the Greek-Cypriot community, as they maintain a functional differentiation in their usage across written and spoken domains.

Speakers who move back and forth across a border area of a dialect continuum, using different varieties with some ease, may be described as *bidialectal*, because they are able to speak two dialects (Yule, 2010). A bidialectal setting can be defined as one where the varieties in contact are the standard, and a genetically related dialect of the same language (Yiakoumeti, 2006). As illustrated in Figure 2.1, the linguistic setting of Cyprus can be characterised as bidialectal due to the use of the local vernacular ‘Low’ CG and the superposed ‘High’ SMG (Tsiplakou et al., 2006; Tsiplakou, 2009; Arvaniti, 2010; Grohmann, 2011; Rowe & Grohmann, 2013; Grohmann, 2014). SMG is not naturally acquired, as it is learned through the educational system. CG is the variety that is acquired naturally and whatever its status, it is the mother tongue of Greek-Cypriots, with SMG also being highly widespread in their everyday life (Keyne, 2007; Grohmann, 2011).

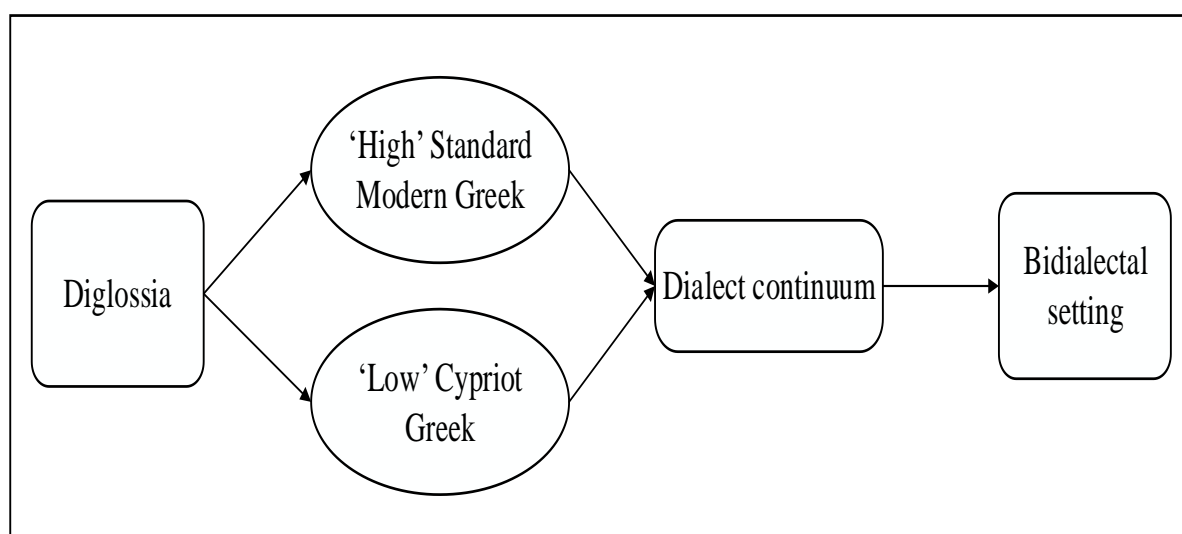


Figure 2. 1: Visual representation of the Greek-Cypriot *bidialectal* setting

In Cyprus, students learn literacy in a variety of Greek (SMG) that is different from the variety of Greek (CG) that they grow up using at home and in most interaction settings before they begin school. In informal settings they speak in CG, thus they have a dialectal mother tongue. However, they learn to read and write in SMG, which is the variety that the educational system treats as their mother tongue, and it is the variety that is used in formal settings. Nonetheless, due to the relatedness between the two varieties, the ‘school’ mother tongue cannot be considered a foreign language, even though the bidialectal learners need to learn new language elements (Yiakoumeti, 2006; Pittas & Nunes, 2014). Children who live in bidialectal settings live with two forms of the same language and must learn to be bidialectal (Pittas & Nunes, 2014). Children are exposed to both CG and SMG and some switching and mixing is inevitable, and it is likely that the colloquial variety (CG) interferes with the literacy learning (SMG) (Papapavlou & Pavlou, 2005; Fotiou, 2008; Grohmann, 2011, Pittas & Nunes, 2014).

To sum up, the official languages of the Republic of Cyprus are Greek and Turkish. However, as Crystal (2003) states, the declaration of a language as official does not necessarily reflect to a special status in daily life, and undoubtedly, the linguistic situation in Cyprus does not reflect its ‘official status’, because Greek-Cypriots do not use Turkish. Moreover, Cyprus can be characterised as bidialectal due to the use of CG and SMG which are varieties of a genetically related language (Yule, 2010). In the following section, I describe the status of English in Cyprus.

2.3 English in Cyprus

In this section, I describe the status of English in Cyprus. I explain the position of Cyprus within the domain of ‘World Englishes’, and why I consider it an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting. Additionally, I refer to the role of English language learning in Cyprus, and why I consider it an EFL setting.

Given the status of English as an international language, one could adopt a view of the English language as being within the domain of World Englishes, where change, variation and multiplicity are addressed and acknowledged (Friedrich, 2000). Kachru (1992) adopts a World Englishes perspective to the spread of English, and explains how the countries

where English is used can be grouped together based on the type of spread and function attributed to the language. As Kachru's (1985) three-circle model states,

“the current sociolinguistic profile of English may be viewed in terms of three concentric circles . . . The Inner Circle refers to the traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English. The Outer Circle represents the institutionalised non-native varieties (ESL) in the regions that have passed through extended periods of colonisation . . . The Expanding Circle includes the regions where the performance varieties of the language are used essentially in EFL contexts” (pp. 366-367).

The model represents the spread of English as three concentric circles and presents an alternative to the English as a native language (ENL)/English as a second language (ESL)/English as a foreign language (EFL) classification. In the inner circle countries English is used as the native language, in the outer circle countries English is used as a second language, and in the expanding circle countries English is used as a foreign language (Kachru, 1985).

Kachru's model is probably the most widely cited and applied model in Global Englishes distinctions. However, it has been criticised for its focus on historical events rather than on sociolinguistic uses of English which might result in a non-realistic account of English today. Moreover, it has been criticised for its lack of emphasis on the changing role of English in expanding territories. Furthermore, it has been disapproved for its problematic EFL paradigm which appears not to refer to the use of EFL both within, and across the circles. Regarding colonial territories, the model appears not to recognise British colonial authority in countries that are not found in the outer circle, nor does it refer to heavy colonial influences across regions in countries (Rose & Galloway, 2015). For this, as Bruthiaux's states (2003) “much is to be gained by focusing less on where speakers of English come from and more on what they do – or don't do – with the language” (p. 161).

Taking into view the criticisms, but also the fact that Kachru's model is considered to be “the standard framework of World Englishes studies” (Yano, 2001, p. 21), the model's terminology is used in this thesis for the purposes of situating English in Cyprus.

Accordingly, Cyprus has moved from the outer circle to the expanding circle, due to the fact that it was a British colony. There has been disagreement over the few attempts in characterising the status of English in Cyprus. Some claim for an ESL status (McArthur, 2001; Strevens, 1992), while others claim that English in Cyprus moved from complex to simplex ESL (Davy & Pavlou, 2010). However, considering that English is the ‘lingua franca’ of Cyprus inherited from the British colonial era (Doob 1986; Terkourafi, 2007; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2012), a foreign status of English is presupposed in Cyprus (McArthur, 1998; Tsiplakou, 2009).

English language teaching in Cyprus represents an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) status, in view of the fact that the language is not taught in a native country (Lake, 2018). English has a prominent role for education in Cyprus, since it is a compulsory subject from the first grade of primary school. In addition, parents tend to extend their children’s education in English, by registering them at EFL private afternoon institutions. The majority of Greek-Cypriots attend these afternoon schools in order to prepare for international examinations, such as the Cambridge English Qualifications (e.g. A2 Key, B2 First, etc.). The general ambition of learners appears to be achieving a good performance at the highest levels of these examinations (e.g. C2 Proficiency) and at multilevel tests (e.g. IELTS). Students need these qualifications when they wish to study at English speaking universities in Cyprus or abroad.

To conclude, in this section I described the status of English in Cyprus. I explained that Cyprus is one of the countries in the expanding circle in terms of Kachru’s (1992) three-circle model for the use of English. Moreover, I explained that the English language is valued in Cyprus compared to other foreign languages, since it is a compulsory subject from the first grade of primary school, and most Greek-Cypriots extend their education during the afternoons. In the following section, I review the literature in relation to CF.

2.4 CF research: Theoretical rationale

In this section, I set out the theoretical rationale for oral CF research. In particular, I refer to the differences between positive and negative evidence, and I detail specific theories of language learning which value CF.

Negative evidence, negative feedback, and corrective feedback are terms that are often used interchangeably in the fields of language teaching, second language acquisition (SLA), and psychology (Gass, 1997). In the current study, the term corrective feedback (CF) is adopted to refer to this “complex phenomenon with several functions” (Chaudron, 1988, p. 152), or as Ellis (2006) puts it more simply, to refer to “responses to learner utterances containing an error” (p. 28). Oral CF occurs in response to learners’ oral productions, immediately during interaction (Loewen, 2012). It is considered to be a simple yet complex phenomenon, which continuously attracts researchers’ interests, as suggestions about its essential role in L2 classrooms, and about its effects in L2 development continue to grow (Lyster et al., 2013).

CF is theoretically supported from an information processing view of SLA, concerned with L2 input, intake, mental representations, and output (Loewen, 2012). CF is particularly valued by interactionist approaches (Long, 1996; Gass, 1997; Gass & Mackey, 2007). In addition, other theoretical perspectives within a range of cognitive to social orientation, such as the skill acquisition theory (DeKeyser, 2007; Ranta & Lyster, 2007; Lyster & Sato, 2013), and the sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; Sato & Ballinger, 2012) value CF and suggest that it may even be necessary for learners’ L2 development.

A cognitive-interactionist perspective is associated with the work of Piaget (e.g. 1974) and posits that optimum L2 acquisition occurs when internal (cognitive) factors and external (environmental) factors interact. Within this framework, language learning is viewed as an individual cognitive effort, while internal cognition is assumed to be the locus of learning. A cognitive-interactionist perspective attributes a role to both positive and negative evidence (Long, 1996; Gass, 1997). When learners are exposed to L2 comprehensible input in the form of grammatical utterances, they are exposed to positive evidence. Comprehensible input is essential for L2 learning, because without input of some sort, acquisition of a second language cannot happen (Krashen, 1982, 1983, 1985, 2013; Gass, 1997; VanPatten & Williams, 2007; Gass & Mackey, 2013). However, learners may require negative evidence, information about what is missing or is ungrammatical, in the form of either feedback on error, or explicit instruction (Long, 1981, 1996; White, 2003; Panova & Lyster, 2002, Mackey, 2007; Gass & Mackey, 2007).

The importance attached to the role of positive and negative evidence in SLA differs across disciplines and scholars. The grammar instruction as well as the error correction debate in SLA research and theory is framed around a meaning-focused versus form-focused instruction (Loewen, et al., 2009).

Following a nativist idea that L1 and L2 acquisition are similar, Krashen's (1978, 1981, 1985) Input Hypothesis claimed that comprehensible input alone is sufficient for L2 learning and there is no need for negative evidence. According to Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis,

“humans acquire language in only one way – by understanding messages, or by receiving ‘comprehensible input’... We move from i , our current level, to $i + 1$, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing $i + 1$ ”
(p. 2).

For Krashen, comprehension was the primary site for language learning, and he appeared to view production as a reflection of what was learned from comprehension. Supporters of meaning-focused instruction claim that language instruction which pays attention to linguistic forms is unnecessary, as it is beneficial only in marginal ways and it may even have a negative impact on language acquisition. They also claim that CF is ineffective (Krashen, 1981; Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1996).

Amongst the various suggestions on how to make input comprehensible was lowering Krashen's (1985) so-called affective filter: “the mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition” (p. 81). High affective filter would translate into for example, high levels of anxiety and negative feelings associated with language learning. Interesting and/or relevant to the learner input could help lower the affective filter. Moreover, learner autonomy should be promoted, and the learning process should be personalised, because this would likely increase their motivation (Krashen, 1980, 1985, 2013; Gass & Mackey, 2013). Another way to lower the affective filter is to allow students to work in pairs, because it can help make input more comprehensible (Ur, 1996; Hedge, 2000). Nonetheless, while Krashen believed that

comprehensible input alone is sufficient for L2 learning, other researchers suggested otherwise.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s an important line of research, the early interaction research was propelled by Hatch (1978), and Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975). They were among the first researchers who talked about the role of conversational interaction in second language development. Hatch (1978) proposed that “language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations, out of learning how to communicate” (p. 63). For Hatch and her colleagues, the opportunity for learners to gain access to comprehensible input, and to produce linguistic output was feasible via conversational interaction. Interaction was viewed as more than just a means to observe what had already been learned, it was regarded as an actual site for L2 learning. Long (1981) also suggested that “participation in conversation with native speakers, made possible through modification interaction, is the necessary and sufficient condition for SLA” (p. 275).

Motivated by Krashen’s (1978, 1981) work, and synthesizing the above mentioned early arguments about comprehensible input, modified output, and the role of conversation, Long’s (1980, 1981, 1983) original Interaction Hypothesis attributes a role not only to positive evidence, but it also highlights the importance of negative evidence. It refers to the necessity of input for acquiring a language, but it also emphasises the importance of modified interaction for input to be made comprehensible. When learners are engaged in negotiation for meaning with their interlocutors, the nature of input might change, as the speakers make appropriate input modifications while working together to reach mutual comprehension. These conversational modifications are viewed as the root of comprehensible input and L2 development.

Further to Long’s (1983) original Interaction Hypothesis, research in Swedish and Canadian immersion programmes raised counterevidence to the effectiveness of purely meaning-focused instruction (Swain, 1985) suggesting that although learners were exposed to large amounts of comprehensible input, their productions still consisted of ungrammatical and inaccurate utterances. This was attributed to the fact that these

learners lacked opportunities to notice and practice linguistic forms, suggesting that some type of form-focused instruction seems beneficial.

Form-focused instruction (FFI) is an umbrella term for “any planned or incidental instruction activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic forms (Ellis, 2001, p.1). In focus on forms, language instruction takes place through discrete elements (e.g. lexis, grammar rules, notions, and functions), and the language features should be taught systematically. In focus on form, instruction pays attention to linguistic structures within a communicative context. It may involve negotiation of meaning, and planned or incidental target of problematic linguistic items, through feedback or other pedagogical interventions, during a meaning focused activity (Long, 1991; 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998; Ellis, 2001). Whichever type of FFI might seem to be the most effective for different researchers, or teachers, the consensus is that FFI seems beneficial and necessary for language learners (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, et al., 2001; Russell & Spada, 2006; Loewen, 2005; Spada & Lightbown, 2008).

Swain’s (1985, 1993) findings led her to focus on the importance of output for language learning and towards the proposal of the Output Hypothesis which suggests that output is more than a reflection of learning and that it is a crucial part of the L2 learning process. As Swain (1993) states,

“learners need to be pushed to make use of their resources; they need to have their linguistic abilities stretched to their fullest; they need to reflect on their output and consider ways of modifying it to enhance comprehensibility, appropriateness and accuracy” (pp. 160-161).

The Output Hypothesis emphasizes the importance of output in learning, as it helps learners to notice a problem, by feedback, pushing them to process language more deeply, with more mental process, than input alone requires. To produce an L2, the learners need to do something; they need to create linguistic form and meaning and discover what they can and cannot do. In order to produce language, learners move from the semantic to the complete grammatical processing needed for language production, therefore output appears to have a significant role on language development. Modified or ‘pushed’ output

is essentially an interactional process that can result from feedback, and it requires learners to modify their utterances and to try different forms in order to be understood. This can help learners to develop L2 metalinguistic knowledge. Contrary to Krashen's (1981) claims, Swain suggests that output is not just a reflection of learning, but a crucial part of the L2 learning process (Swain, 1985, 1995, 2000, 2005).

The role of comprehensible input and its insufficiency for SLA has also been approached by scholars of a different theoretical perspective. As it has been claimed, when learners are unable to discover through exposure how their interlanguage differs from the target language because L2 input alone might not signal dissimilarities between cross-linguistically different phenomena, negative evidence provided in formal language instruction might play a role in parameter resetting (Bley-Vroman, 1986; White, 1991, 2003; Archibald, 1996; Saville-Troike, 2012).

Mackey (2006) states that SLA researchers believe that interactional feedback facilitates L2 acquisition. They relate CF to L2 development, due to the fact that CF can prompt learners to notice L2 forms. It is also believed that the amount of attention that a learner pays to a linguistic form may influence whether L2 input and interaction produce L2 intake, namely language that is sufficiently processed, so that it can be incorporated into a learners' developing L2 system (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Extending the Interaction Hypothesis on the basis of emphasising the role of attention in language learning, and drawing on psychological learning theories, Schmidt's (1990, 1993, 1995, 2001) Noticing Hypothesis suggests that learners must be consciously aware of the linguistic input in order for it to become intake. If learners notice the differences between their interlanguage and the target language, then this is a first step towards bridging the gap between the two. This is because noticing represents a lower level of awareness which is considered to be necessary for language learning, compared to a higher level of awareness which is associated with understanding, and although facilitative, it is not considered to be necessary. CF appears to aid learners to deal with the matching, or the comparison between their productions and the target form.

Comprehensible input, modified output, and the role of conversation are synthesised in Long's (1996, 2007) revised Interaction Hypothesis where more emphasis is given to the importance of negative evidence obtained during negotiation work, through the provision of CF which aids learners in paying attention and in noticing specific forms. In Long's (1996) words:

“It is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during *negotiation for meaning*. Negative feedback obtained in negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts” (p. 414).

Long (1996) suggests that feedback obtained during conversational interaction promotes interlanguage development, because interaction “connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways”. Consequently, during negotiation for meaning, learners work to achieve mutual comprehension. Feedback and modifications to input or output are all involved in negotiation. Adding to Long's claims, Gass (1997) and Pica (1994) put forward suggestions that interaction provides learners opportunities to connect L2 form and meaning.

The Interaction Hypothesis has more recently developed from a hypothesis to an approach, since “it is now commonly accepted within the SLA literature that there is a robust connection between interaction and learning” (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 176). According to the Interactionist Approach, the interactional “work” that takes place during communication breakdowns between learners and more proficient interlocutors is beneficial for learners' L2 development (Mackey & Gass, 2012, p. 9). Conversational interaction is an important source of benefits for language learners, with feedback, one of the outcomes of interaction, drawing learners' attention to the ‘gap’ (Schmidt, 1990, 2001) of their utterances in relation to the target language, as it informs them about the success of their utterances (Mackey, 2007). Implicit or explicit CF types can provide modified input, and also help draw learners' attention towards linguistic features that might be difficult for them. By becoming aware of a gap, learners are more attentive

towards the input that follows, and this is believed to be essential for L2 acquisition (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2012). In short, the core components of an interactionist approach are interactionally modified input, learner's attention being drawn to his/her interlanguage and to L2 formal features, opportunities to produce output, and opportunities to receive feedback (Mackey & Gass, 2012).

The importance of social interaction as already established in the Interaction Hypothesis and the Output Hypothesis, is considered to have a fundamental role for cognitive functions in sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978). According to sociocultural theory, successful learning occurs at two levels, when there is a shift from the inter-mental level (interaction) to the intra-mental level (individual's mental structures). Moreover, learning is thought to occur during interaction, in each individual's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which refers to the potential of a learner to perform at a higher level due to support by an interlocutor. This supportive dialogue is termed scaffolding, and CF lies in its propensity to aid the learner to move from the other-regulation process where collaborative talk with a teacher aids him/her to perform tasks, to the self-regulation process where s/he can perform a task independently (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). The success of CF is based on dialogue and collaboration between the learner and the teacher, where the teachers need to discover the learner's ZPD and support him/her accordingly. This suggests that the success of CF types can vary from one individual to another, thus teachers should continuously assess learners' ZPD and the kind of assistance that they need (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Poehner & Lantolf, 2005; Poehner, 2008).

To conclude, the significance ascribed to the role of positive evidence namely comprehensible input, and of negative evidence namely information about what is ungrammatical, varies across scholars. As a consequence, the importance attached to meaning-focused versus form-focused instruction differs accordingly. Supporters of meaning-focused instruction view L2 acquisition like L1 acquisition, unconscious and implicit, thus they support as discussed above that comprehensible input alone is sufficient for L2 learning. Attention to linguistic forms and CF are considered to be ineffective and unnecessary (Krashen, 1981, 1985; Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1999).

In contrast, focus-on-form instruction i.e. one of the two broad categories within the form-focused instruction, the other is focus-on-forms, supports paying attention to linguistic structures within a communicative context/activity, through negotiation of meaning and/or planned or incidental reaction towards non-target-like productions with error correction techniques (Ellis, 2001; Long, 1991, 1996; Loewen et al., 2009). As discussed above, theoretical approaches, hypotheses, and theories ranging from interactionist approaches (Long, 1996; Gass, 1997; Gass & Mackey, 2007), the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1993, 1995, 2005), the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990; 2001), and sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; Sato & Ballinger, 2012), value CF and support that providing CF may be necessary for learners' L2 development. Now that the theoretical rationale for CF research has been detailed, in the following section, I set out the different CF types, and students' reactions to CF namely uptake types.

2.5 CF and learner uptake

In this section, I detail the different CF types as well as the different uptake types that were identified in naturalistic classrooms, as part of interactional CF episodes. In this study, I focus on reactive focus on form episodes, namely on interactions between teachers and students that are triggered by students' productions of erroneous utterances.

In Figure 2.2, I present a visual representation of a CF episode. In this example, the student produces a grammatical error with 'will', which triggers the teacher's feedback. The CF is in the form of a short reformulation, namely the teacher simply reformulates only the erroneous part of the student's utterance. As a result, the student produces an uptake and repairs the error, by incorporating the teacher's target form in his/her utterance.

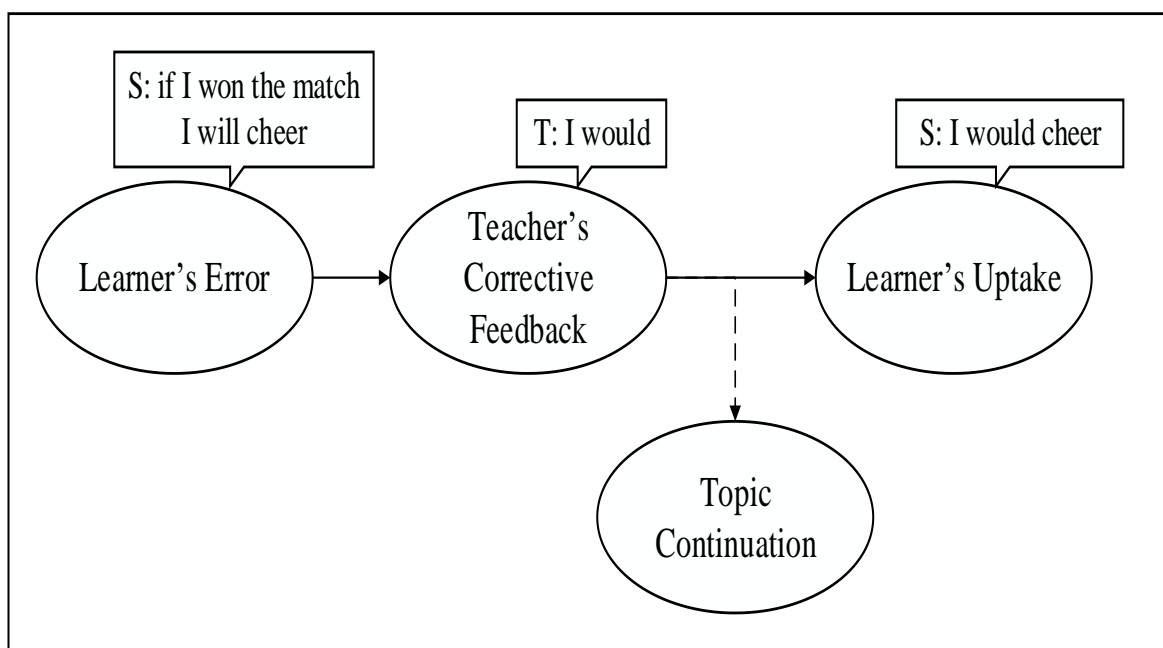


Figure 2. 2: CF episode (adapted from Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

CF is considered to be a beneficial ‘product’ for learning that emerges out of interactional episodes that might occur during language learning sessions (Mackey, 2007; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2009; Sheen, 2010). Oral CF occurs in response to learners’ erroneous productions, typically immediately after the error, and during the interaction between teacher-student, and student-student (Loewen, 2012). Different CF types have emerged from descriptive studies of naturally-occurring feedback investigating the features of CF. From the early study of Chaudron (1977), an extensive negative feedback list has been developed.

Later, Lyster and Ranta (1997) modified Chaudron’s list. In their influential study, they developed a data-driven model of an error-treatment sequence which comprised CF types and uptake types. Their model served as the main unit of analysis for classroom studies across a range of instructional contexts (e.g. Panova & Lyster, 2002; Tsang, 2004; Sheen, 2004). Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) model is indicated in Figure 2.3. It is read as a flowchart of options that comprise the error treatment sequence. The sequence begins with a learner’s erroneous utterance, which is followed either by a teacher’s feedback, or by topic continuation when feedback is not provided. If feedback is provided, then it is followed by a learner uptake, or by topic continuation, when the learner does not respond to the teacher’s feedback.

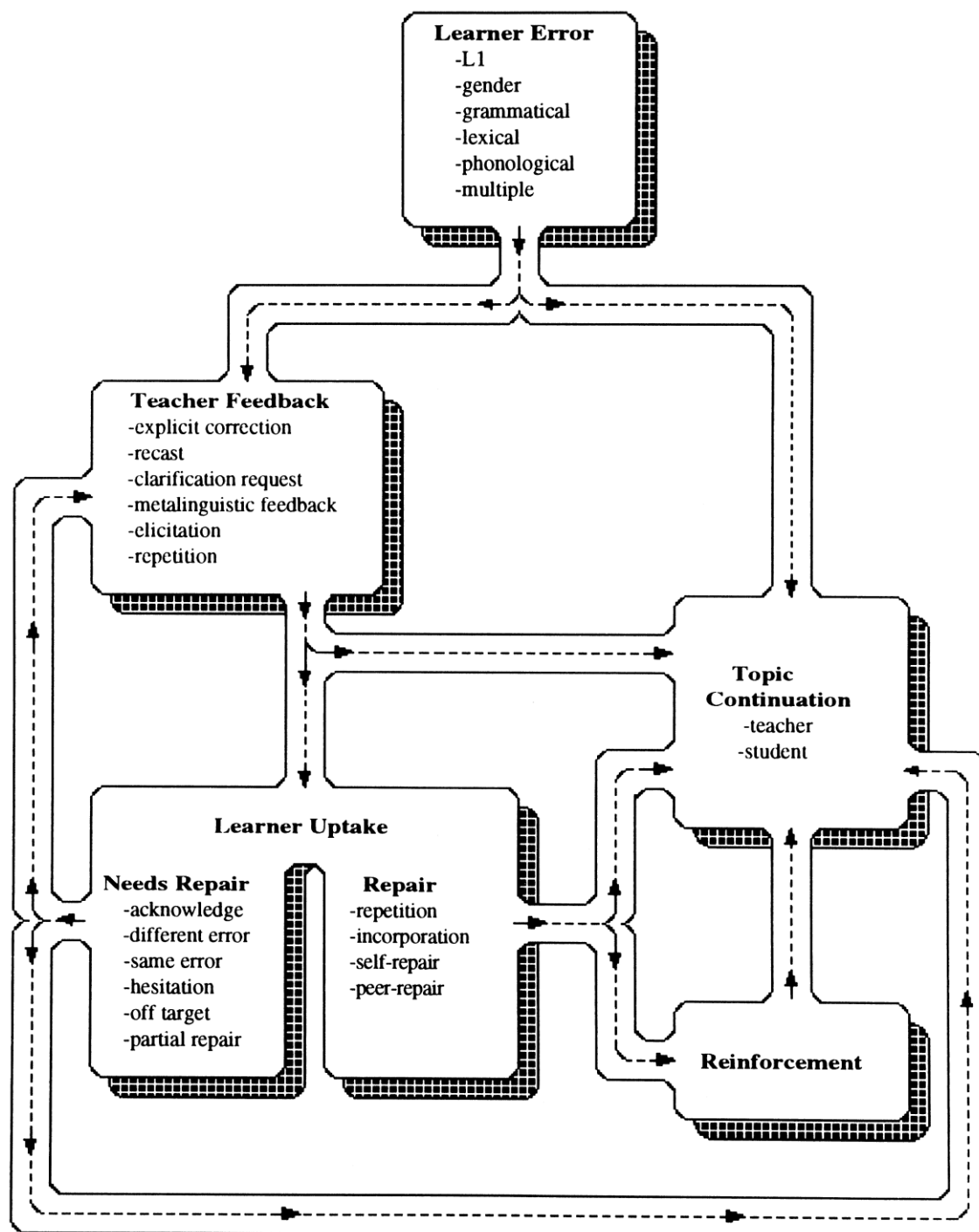


Figure 2. 3: Error treatment sequence (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 44)

Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six different CF types: *recast* (including *translation*), *explicit correction*, *clarification request*, *metalinguistic feedback*, *elicitation*, and *repetition*, as part of CF episodes. Oral CF episodes normally consist of a trigger containing the learner's error, the feedback move and an optional uptake, which is the learner's response to the provision of feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

CF types were later classified into two broad CF categories: *reformulations* and *prompts* (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Reformulations include recasts and explicit correction, due to the fact that both techniques provide target reformulations of the students' erroneous utterances. Prompts on the other hand, include CF types which push learners to self-repair, namely elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition. Prompts were previously referred to as negotiation of form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Drawing on Ranta and Lyster's (2007) CF type taxonomy, and on knowledge that has emerged from CF research since 1997, Sheen and Ellis (2011) suggested a similar classification, which accounts for the distinction between reformulations and prompts under the labels of input-providing, or output-prompting feedback respectively, including a distinction between implicit and explicit CF. Table 2.1 below groups CF types according to the different classifications.

	IMPLICIT	EXPLICIT
REFORMULATIONS / INPUT-PROVIDING	Conversational recast	Didactic recast
		Explicit correction
		Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation
PROMPTS / OUTPUT-PROMPTING	Repetition	Metalinguistic clue
	Clarification request	Elicitation
		Paralinguistic signals

Table 2. 1: CF types (adapted from Ranta & Lyster, 2007; Sheen & Ellis, 2011)

Gass & Mackey (2012) argue that explicitness is better to be viewed in terms of a continuum rather than a dichotomy. Accordingly, Lyster et al., (2013) created a continuum of CF types which consists of not only the distinction between reformulations and prompts, but also of a continuum of implicit and explicit types. Prompts are classified along this continuum based on suggestions by Ellis (2006), and Loewen and Nabei, (2007) which suggest that clarification request and repetition seem more implicit than elicitation and metalinguistic clues, even though Li (2010) classifies elicitation as implicit.

Figure 2.4 illustrates the continuum of implicit and explicit CF types. As indicated in the Figure, the most implicit prompt is clarification request followed by repetition. As for reformulations, the most implicit type is conversational recast, followed by didactic recast. In contrast, the most explicit prompt according to the Figure is metalinguistic clue followed by elicitation. Moreover, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation is the most explicit reformulation followed by explicit correction.

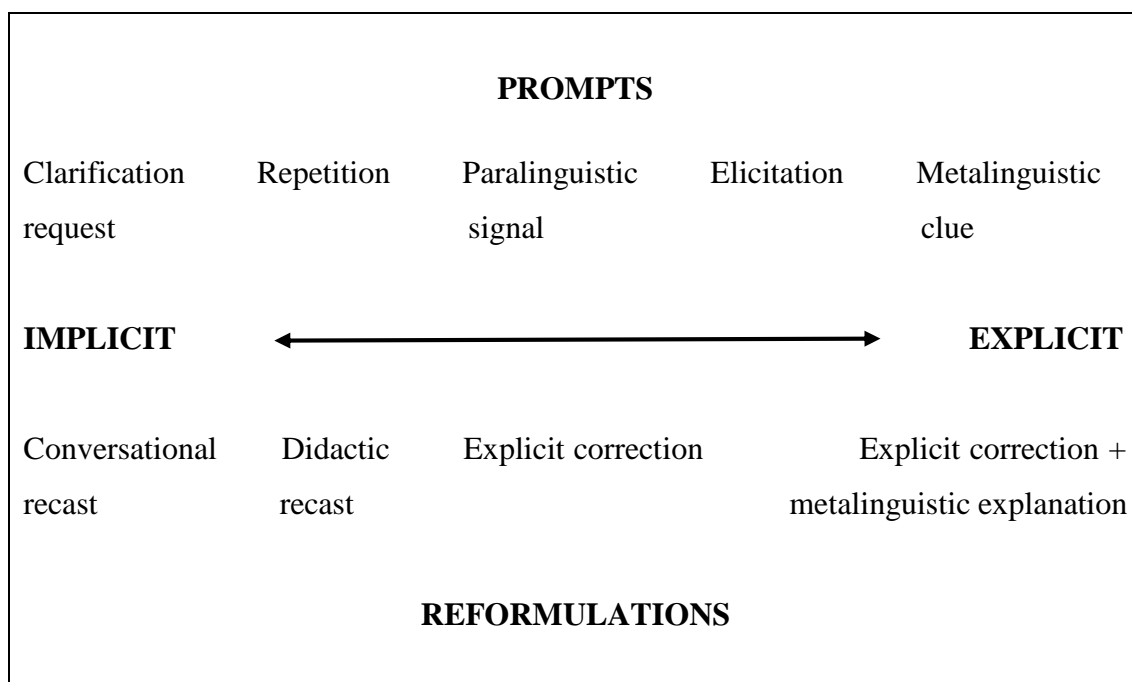


Figure 2. 4: CF Types as presented by Lyster et al., (2013, p.5)

The division between reformulations and prompts is of theoretical interest in psycholinguistic terms because different CF types require dissimilar processing types, and the effect that each CF type might have upon learning is not equal (Lyster, 2015). For example, it has been argued that it is more beneficial to learners when they are pushed to retrieve and produce target language that is stored in memory, than when they simply hear and potentially repeat target linguistic input, because retrieving and producing output can strengthen associations in memory (deBot, 1996). Moreover, different CF types provide different types of linguistic evidence. With respect to positive and negative evidence, Gass (1997) states that explicit correction provides both positive and negative evidence, whereas prompts provide only negative evidence. Recasts on the other hand, can provide not only positive evidence through the teachers’ reformulations, but also negative evidence based on whether learners perceive the corrective function of recasts.

2.5.1 CF types: Definitions and examples

Following the identification of CF types by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as well as the classification of CF types by Ranta and Lyster (2007) and Sheen and Ellis, (2011), definitions and examples of the different CF types are provided below. To begin with a feedback type within the category of prompts, *elicitation* includes at least three different techniques which aim for the direct elicitation of the correct form from the student. Firstly, one of the techniques is when the teacher leaves an intentional blank and allows the student to complete his/her utterance by filling the gap, as in **Example 1** below. Secondly, when the teacher asks the student an open-ended question (usually a wh-question), like in **Example 2**, and thirdly, when occasionally the teacher enquires the student to reformulate their original utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Example 1 (Lyster, 2004b, p. 405)

T: Il vit ou un animal domestique? Ou est-ce que ca vit? [Where does a pet live? Where does it live?]

S: Dans un maison. [In a (masculine) house.]

T: Dans? Attention. [In ...? Careful.]

S: Dans une maison. [In a (feminine) house]

Example 2 (Blanc, Carol, Griggs, & Lyster, 2012, p. 37) – ‘cabane’ is the French word for tree house

S: They went... they went in the ‘cabane’

T: They went in their ‘cabane’. What’s another word for ‘cabane’?

A *Clarification request* as illustrated in **Example 3**, indicates to learners that their utterances are misunderstood, erroneous, or both, thus the students are prompted to repeat or to reformulate their original utterance (Spada & Frohlich, 1995). Whether the teacher’s purpose is for the student to repeat or to reformulate the original utterance, phrases such as ‘pardon?’/‘sorry?’/‘I don’t understand’/‘what?’, or even ‘what do you mean by X?’

might be used to signal to the students that they are expected to produce output (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Example 3 (Lyster, Collins, & Ballinger, 2009, p. 374):

S: When they fire the books uh-

T: When they what?

S: When they fire the books.

T: What do you mean when they fire the books?

A teacher's *repetition* of the erroneous part of a student's utterance in isolation is illustrated in **Example 4**. Repetition occurs typically with a change in intonation aiming to highlight the location of the error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). However, repetition is a type of CF that usually functions along with other types, as in **Examples 1, 2, and 3**, rather than standing on its own as in **Example 4**.

Example 4 (Lyster, 2002, p. 243)

S: Il bond. [It jump]

T: Il bond? [It jump?]

Closing the category of prompts, metalinguistic information indicates that a student's utterance is erroneous without providing the correct form. It can be provided in varying degrees of "informativeness" as Ortega (2009) suggests, that is "how much information is provided about the blame of the ungrammaticality" (p.75). *Metalinguistic clues* refer to simple indications which reject a student's erroneous form, or attempt to push learners to use the correct form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2015) as in **Examples 5 and 6** respectively.

Example 5 (Lyster, 2004b, p. 243):

S: Parce qu'elle cherche, euh, son, son carte. [Because she's looking for, um, her, her, (masculine) card.]

T: Pas son carte. [Not her (masculine) card.]

Example 6 (Gibbons, 2003, p. 264):

S: We found out that the south and the south don't like to stick together

T: Now let's /let's start using our scientific language...

With *metalinguistic feedback* the teacher provides metalinguistic explanation such as comments, information, or questions aiming to illustrate the well-formedness of the student's utterance, and to prompt further student production. Grammatical metalanguage such as 'it's feminine' might be provided after grammatical errors, or metalinguistic information such as a word definition, might be provided following a lexical error. Further, metalinguistic questions such as 'is it masculine?' point to the nature of the error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2015). **Example 7** contains metalinguistic feedback.

Example 7 (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006, p. 353):

S: He kiss her

T: Kiss – you need past tense

S: He kissed her

Finally, another type of CF that has not received much attention is *paralinguistic signal*, namely a gesture or facial expression which aims to indicate that there is an error in the student's utterance. These signals aim for the student to produce a better formable utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Concerning the category of reformulations, *explicit correction* identifies the error and provides the correct form explicitly. When the teacher provides the correct form, s/he clearly indicates that the student's utterance is erroneous by using phrases such as 'oh you mean', 'you should say' amongst others, as in **Example 8** (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Example 8 (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.63):

S: Nous coupons les pailles en six differents grosseurs et attache les pailles avec le ruban gomme. [we cut the straws into six different thicknesses and attaches the straws with the tape.]

T4: Euh, David, excuse-moi. Je veux que tu te serves du mot “longueurs”. Vous avez coupe les pailles en differentes longueurs. Pas grosseurs. [Uh, David, excuse me. I want you to use the word ‘lengths’. You cut the straws into different lengths. Not thicknesses.]

In **Example 8**, the teacher provides the correct form without explaining the source of the error, but *explicit correction* might function alongside *metalinguistic explanation*, as in **Example 9**.

Example 9 (Sheen, 2007, p. 307):

S: There was fox. Fox was hungry.

T: The fox. You should use the definite article ‘the’ because you’ve already mentioned ‘fox’.

To continue with reformulations, *recast* as indicated in **Example 10**, refers to the correct reformulation of all or a part of a student’s utterance minus the error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). It is a more target-like reformulation of a learner’s incorrect utterance, without modifications in meaning (Mackey, 2007).

Example 10 (Lowen & Philip, 2006, p. 538):

S: to her is good thing (.) to her is good thing

T: yeah for her is a good thing

S: because she got a lot of money there

Recasts can also be considered to be implicit as they do not involve phrases such as ‘you mean’, or ‘you should say’ (Long, 1996, 2007; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Long & Robinson, 1998). However, research has suggested that recasts are non-monolithic in nature, as they differ in length, mode, number of changes and linguistic focus amongst others (Sheen, 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Sato, 2011). Based on such differing characteristics, recasts can also be considered to be quite explicit (Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001; Sheen, 2004, 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006). Therefore, Sheen and Ellis (2011) suggested that there are *conversational recasts* and *didactic recasts*, which would correspond to implicit and explicit recasts respectively. Conversational recasts act as confirmation checks aiming to resolve a communication problem, as in **Example 11**.

Example 11 (Ellis & Sheen, 2006, p. 581):

S: What do you spend time with your wife?

T: What?

S: What do you spend extra time with your wife?

T: Ah, how do you spend?

S: How do you spend.

In **Example 11**, a communication breakdown has arisen. At first, the teacher requests clarification from the student to which the student responds with the same error. Then, the teacher reformulates the student’s original utterance, and the student produces uptake, indicating that ‘negotiation of meaning’ is involved when the student understands that the meaning he wished to express requires the use of ‘how’ and not of ‘what’ (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). On the other hand, when a teacher chooses to focus the attention to form and be more consistent about it, even when no communication breakdown is evident, a didactic recast is provided, as in **Example 12**.

Example 12 (Llinares & Lyster, 2014, p. 189):

S: On Sunday I go to

T: I went to

S: I go to

T: I went

S: I went to a ... How do you say exposicion [exhibition]?

In **Example 12**, the teacher is more consistent in the ‘negotiation of form’. The teacher understands the student’s original utterance, but after reformulating it, the student’s second error in response to the reformulation leads the teacher to make the correction more salient, by shortening the reformulation and by placing the required form ‘went’ at the end of the recast, consequently making it more explicit (Lyster, 2015).

With respect to additional characteristics of recasts, Sheen (2006) presented a taxonomy of recasts that arose in his descriptive study of ESL and EFL classrooms. According to Sheen’s (2006, pp. 371-375) coding scheme, recasts can occur in a single-move or in a multi-move. According to the coding scheme, multi-move recasts contain more than one feedback type in a single teacher turn, and there are three different types. Corrective recasts are recasts preceded by repetition, repeated recasts are recasts which the teacher repeats partially or fully, and combination recasts are recasts that occur with other CF types, except explicit correction.

With regards to the single-move recasts, they can vary in terms of: mode i.e. declarative, interrogative, scope i.e. the extent to which a reformulation differs from the original, reduction i.e. whether it is reduced or not, length, number of changes, types of changes, and linguistic focus. In **Example 13**, the characteristics of the provided recast are the following: the mode is declarative, the scope is isolated, the reduction is reduced, the length is a word, there is one change, the type of change is substitution, and the linguistic focus is grammatical.

Example 13 (Sheen, 2006, p. 373):

S: What’s feed up?

T: fed

Technically outside the category of reformulations is the last CF type *translation*, which refers to the teacher's response to students' unsolicited uses of L1. Translation was initially treated as a distinct category during initial identifications of CF types (Lyster & Ranta, 1995), but it was later treated as a recast due to its infrequent occurrence and to the fact that it was viewed as if it served the function of a recast (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). However, there seems to be a relevant difference between the two types. Recast is a response to an ill-formed utterance in the L2, whereas translation is a response to a well-formed utterance in the L1 (Lyster & Panova, 2002). Thus, treating translation as a separate CF type seems logical.

2.5.2 Uptake types: Definitions

Following the presentation of CF types, it is now time to move on to another important aspect of a CF episode. Lyster & Ranta (1997) drew upon the speech act theory (Austin, 1975) and introduced the notion of *uptake* within their error treatment sequence (Figure 2.3), which they defined 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” (p. 49). According to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) uptake taxonomy, a student's modified output could either be a successful *repair* of the erroneous utterance, or an utterance that still *needs-repair*, and there are different types within these two categories. The different types of repair are a repetition of the teacher's feedback, an incorporation of the teacher's utterance into a longer one, a self-repair when the student corrects him/herself, or a peer-repair. The different types of needs-repair are an acknowledgment of the teacher's feedback, same error, different error, an off target utterance that avoids the teacher's linguistic focus, a hesitation, or a partial repair.

2.5.3 Uptake as a measure of noticing CF

Uptake is used as one type of evaluation for the success of CF. It has been closely linked to noticing (Chaudron, 1977; Mackey, 1999, 2006; Loewen, 2002, 2004), which as discussed earlier, according to Schmidt, (1990, 1995) it is necessary for learning, therefore CF is considered a possible facilitator of learning (Swain, 1995; Lightbown, 1998). It has also been claimed that uptake is facilitative of acquisition (Ellis et al., 2001).

Nonetheless, uptake is an optional discourse move (Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2004), and this creates certain disparities with regards to its indications.

The use of uptake as a measure of noticing CF could be problematic. Firstly, uptake does not necessarily indicate noticing. Students were found to produce uptake without reporting noticing of the CF that they received (Mackey & Philip, 1998). Secondly, absence of uptake does not necessarily indicate lack of noticing. Students were found to benefit from CF for which they did not report noticing (Mackey, 2006). Nevertheless, the presence of uptake suggests that CF has been perceived in one way or another (Sheen, 2006), since learners' perceptions about feedback, at the time of feedback provision, might be related to uptake (Mackey et al., 2000). Immediate repair following recasts was associated with learners' development (Révész, Sachs, & Mackey, 2011), and repetition of recasts was positively related to perceiving their corrective intention (Mackey et al., 2000; Egi, 2010).

Nonetheless, it cannot be assumed that learners will verbally acknowledge all feedback that they notice (Leeman, 2007). Certain uptake types may indicate more active engagement on behalf of the learners (Swain, 1995). Other uptake types could indicate learners' identification of new knowledge, or retrieval of existing knowledge (Long, 2007; Goo & Mackey, 2013). What seems important is that learners' immediate responses to CF, especially modified output, can suggest on the spot processing of positive evidence, or possible awareness of the gap between their interlanguage and the target language (Swain, 1995; Schmidt, 1995; Clarke, Soto, & Nelson, 2017). Hence, it is acknowledged that studying learners' immediate responses to CF cannot indicate long term effects. However, the benefits of studying successful or unsuccessful CF types in terms of uptake cannot be overlooked, since learners' immediate responses to feedback can suggest how students process the feedback that they receive.

From Lyster and Ranta's (1997) influential study, to more recent studies gathering oral classroom data which identified CF types, recast types, or created different taxonomies, all offer valuable description of actual classroom discourse. In the next section, I describe CF studies that were conducted in different instructional contexts.

2.6 Studies of CF

In this section, I review relevant empirical literature. In particular, I describe studies of oral CF that have been conducted in different instructional settings. I focus on classroom research studies due to their relevance to this study.

Interaction research is currently at a point where it asks questions which are fundamentally different from those asked previously. Questions have moved from the status of ‘whether’ to the status of ‘how’ interaction impacts L2 learning processes. Interaction related studies have been carried out in different contexts, in a range of settings, with different data elicitation methods and measurements of efficiency. To be more specific, the picture of interactional research contains studies that focus on learners’ oral production and learners’ perceptions of oral feedback, and the effectiveness of feedback is verified in terms of indicators such as uptake, noticing, and learning (Mackey, 2007; Mackey et al., 2012; Gass & Mackey, 2012). These studies are both based in classroom settings, and/or laboratory settings, and they are both experimental and/or descriptive in nature.

Several meta-analyses provide general strong support for the beneficial effects of CF (Russell & Spada, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Brown, 2016). However, due to differences in terms of context and pragmatics, classroom and laboratory studies have led to different learning outcomes (Lyster et al., 2013). For instance, on the one hand, the efficiency of recasts or reformulations was found to be beneficial in laboratory contexts (e.g. Carroll & Swain, 1993; Han, 2002; Leeman, 2003; McDonough & Mackey, 2006). On the other hand, prompts were found to be more effective in classroom contexts, based on Lyster & Saito’s (2010) meta-analysis of fifteen classroom studies. Specifically, although learners were able to benefit from both the positive evidence available in recasts, and the negative evidence that can be inferred, the negative evidence available in prompts, and the push that they impose on learners to produce uptake appeared more beneficial. Spada and Lightbown (2009) argued that “classroom-based studies are most likely to lead to a better understanding about the kind of interaction that occurs in classrooms where the teacher is the only proficient speaker and interacts with a large number of learners” (p. 159). Concerning experimental classroom studies of CF, they confirmed that provision of oral CF is significantly more

effective than no provision of CF, and they indicated that prompts and explicit correction are more beneficial for learners (Sheen, 2011; Ellis, 2012; Lyster et al., 2013). Nevertheless, for the purposes of the current study, the CF empirical background provided below focuses mainly on descriptive observational studies of CF and uptake.

2.6.1 Distribution of CF

Oral productions are considered to be one of the most important types of data for feedback research, due to the high ecological validity that they offer, because they describe actual classroom discourse (Loewen, 2012). Numerous classroom studies have reported the frequency and distribution of CF types across different instructional contexts, such as ESL, EFL, English immersion, French immersion, Japanese immersion, and others, across different countries, with children and/or adult participants. Generally, recasts have been documented to be the most frequently used CF type across most instructional contexts. Prompts usually follow recasts, whereas explicit correction comes last (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Morri, 2002; Havranek, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Tsang, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Lee, 2007; McCarthy, 2008; Yoshida, 2008; Llinares & Lyster, 2014). Nonetheless, there are instructional settings where prompts have been documented to occur more frequently than recasts (Lochtman, 2002; Yang, 2010; Vicente-Rasomalla, 2009; Simard & Jean, 2011). However, the same does not account for explicit correction because it has not been found to be the most frequently used feedback type in various settings (Simard & Jean, 2011).

Classroom studies have examined the relationship between different CF types and learner uptake. Uptake or modified output is considered to be a possible indicator that feedback has been noticed, and also a possible facilitator of learning (Swain, 1995; Ellis et al., 2001). Empirically, repair and modified output appear to constitute evidence of learning. Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) investigated past tense verbs by six ESL learners engaged in Native Speaker (NS) and Non-Native Speaker (NNS) interactions. They found that the learners who repaired their errors following clarification requests performed significantly better in a subsequent task, than the learners who did not repair their errors. Moreover, McDonough (2005) studied the development of English question forms by adult EFL learners, again through NS-NNS exchanges. Amongst other factors, uptake was the only factor that was found to predict L2 development of more advanced English question

forms. Such an outcome suggests that the engagement of learners in processes of noticing, as indicated by producing repair and modified output, can promote learning.

2.6.2 CF and learner uptake

Many studies have found that feedback can result in successful modified output/learner repair. In particular, in terms of different CF types, prompts generally return the floor to the students, thus they welcome modified output, and they also draw students' attention to form, targeting mutual comprehension through accuracy (Lyster, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Consequently, prompts are generally related to high rates of learner uptake moves, and they were also proved to be effective in learner repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Havranek, 2002; Llinares & Lyster, 2014). As techniques that push learners to use the target forms, prompts require different types of processing from reformulations. Prompts involve the processes of pushing, retrieving and eventually producing language (deBot, 1996; Ranta & Lyster, 2007), and the success of CF has been suggested to be facilitated when learners are being alert about an error and are able to self-correct (Havranek, 2002). As Edge (1989) claims, "self-correction is easier to remember, because someone has put something right in his or her own head" (p. 24).

Nonetheless, researchers have paid special attention to recasts, resulting in a lack of discussion concerning the rest of the CF types (Li, 2010). Proponents of recasts claim that they have a positive impact on L2 learning (Long, 1996, 2006; Doughy, 2001; Han, 2002; Philip, 2003; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009). As Long (1996, 2007) states, recasts have the advantage of implicitness, with the information contained being already contextualized, whilst allowing the students to compare their erroneous utterances with target-like reformulations. However, some studies have indicated that recasts might be ambiguous (Chaudron, 1977; Truscott, 1998), and learners might perceive implicit recasts as evaluative comments, mere repetitions, or even a confirmation of meaning. Thus, learners might miss the corrective function of recasts (Mackey et al., 2000; Lyster, 2004a; Kim & Han, 2007). Moreover, recasts do not push learners to modify their initial utterances, therefore low rates of uptake might follow (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Lyster, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Long, 2006; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Mackey, 2007). Consequently, infrequent repair might follow, as it has been documented in classrooms of French

immersion in Canada (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), ESL in Canada (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004), EFL in Hong Kong (Tsang, 2004), English immersion in Canada (Sheen, 2004), and English immersion in Korea (Lee, 2007).

Nevertheless, in some other instructional contexts, more frequent repair after recasts has been observed. For example, in classrooms of adult ESL in New Zealand (Ellis et al., 2001; Sheen, 2004), Japanese immersion (Mori, 2002; Llinares & Lyster, 2014), and adult EFL in Korea (Sheen, 2004). As far as repetition of recasts is concerned, Havranek (2002) states that the success rate of modified output can increase if learners are provided with a correct form and they repeat it. In support of this, studies found that learners' perception of the corrective function of recasts is related to the repetition of recasts, as examined in stimulated recall sessions (Mackey et al., 2000; Egi, 2010).

At this point it should be noted that low rates of uptake following recasts might be attributed to conversational constraints. As shown in some contexts, teachers often followed recasts with topic continuation moves which by nature prevented learners from responding to teachers' CF (Oliver, 1995, 2002; Nabei & Swain, 2002). Excluding such instances would likely result in higher rates of uptake after recasts. However, accounting for such instances in a classroom's data is crucial, because otherwise it would prevent a demonstration "that the nature of the whole class interactions diminishes the opportunity for students to respond to the feedback" (Oliver, 2002, p. 126).

2.6.3 Recast types

Due to the special interest that recasts have received, a number of different characteristics of recasts have been presented by researchers. For instance a framework emerged from Sheen's (2006) descriptive study of communicative ESL and EFL classrooms which includes single-move and multi-move recasts that incorporate a number of features. In terms of the distribution of recast characteristics, Sheen's (2006) study revealed that the most frequent characteristics of single-move recasts were declarative (mode), isolated (scope), word/short phrase (length), reduced/partial (reduction), one change (number of changes), substitution (types of changes), and grammar focused (linguistic focus). With regard to the high frequency of declarative and isolated characteristics, a similar pattern

occurred in Lyster's (1998) study of French immersion classrooms. However, there were differences between the two studies in the distribution of interrogative (mode) and incorporated (scope) recasts. In Sheen's (2006) study the rates of these characteristics were lower in comparison to Lyster's (1998) study, suggesting more emphasis in meaning over form in the classrooms of the latter study. Moreover, another difference between the two studies was found in the reduction characteristic, with Sheen's percentages of reduced recasts outperforming those found in Lyster's study. Similarly to Sheen's results, in Robert's (1995) study of a Japanese FL classroom, high rates of reduced recasts were revealed. Concerning the high frequency of grammar focused recasts found in Sheen's study, this corresponds to findings in Mackey et al.'s (2000) study.

Regarding the association between recast characteristics and learner uptake, Sheen's (2006) study revealed that three recast characteristics namely length, type of change, and linguistic focus resulted in the highest rates of uptake, specifically, word/short phrase, substitution and pronunciation focused recasts. Concerning the benefit of word/short phrase recasts, there are other researchers who also suggested that shorter recasts are more likely to promote accurate noticing (Philip, 2003; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Loewen, 2004). Moreover, pronunciation focused recasts were also found to result in high uptake rates in Lyster's (1998) study. In other studies, pronunciation and lexical focused recasts were also found to result in successful learner repair, compared to morphosyntactic errors (Mackey et al., 2000; Mackey, McDonough, Fujii, & Tatsumi, 2001; Ellis et al., 2001).

As far as the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner repair are concerned, in Sheen's (2006) study, although multi-move recasts occurred less frequently than single-move recasts, corrective and combination recasts resulted in 100% learner repair, paralleling Doughty and Varela's (1998) outcome. Regarding single-move recasts, six out of the seven identified characteristics of single move recasts were significantly related to learner repair. Particularly, mode, length, type of change, linguistic focus, mode, and reduction. Hence, declarative, word/short phrase, reduced, one-change, substitution, and pronunciation focused recasts resulted in high rates of uptake. These characteristics were also found to promote repair in Loewen's (2004) study.

Consequently, the two key recast features which helped learners to repair their errors were linguistic focus and type of change. It appears that phonological and lexical focused substitution recasts determine the length and the number of changes, hence they inevitably combine with word/short phrase and one change. Therefore, these recast characteristics seem more explicit in nature, thus they are didactic, compared to other recast characteristics (e.g. incorporated, interrogative, addition) which appear to be more implicit, thus conversational (Nicholas et al., 2001; Philip, 2003; Sheen, 2006; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Egi, 2007). Likewise, in Llinares and Lyster's (2014) study of interaction in different instructional settings, the outcomes revealed differences in learner repair rates after recasts across the different classroom contexts. The differences were attributed to the types of recasts that the teachers provided across these contexts. In particular, high rates of repair occurred after didactic recasts in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), and in Japanese immersion classrooms, whereas low rates of repair moves occurred after conversational recasts that were provided in French immersion classrooms.

Disagreements concerning the best way to provide CF, as well as the special interest that researchers have placed towards recast characteristics, bring back Lyster and Ranta's (1997) suggestion that "when they do indeed provide feedback, teachers might want to consider the whole range of techniques they have at their disposal rather than relying so extensively on recasts" (p. 56). As Ammar and Spada (2006) stated "one size does not fit all" (p. 566), and it might be the case that teachers need to make CF type choices based on external factors such as linguistic targets and instructional contexts, but they might also need to take into consideration other internal learner factors, which are discussed in the next segment.

2.7 CF and individual differences

In this section, I review theoretical and empirical literature in relation to CF and students' individual differences. In particular, I focus on the following: age, motivation variables, and personality traits, in an attempt to identify the deficiencies in the literature with regard to the relationship between CF and these concepts.

Further to external factors such as instructional context and linguistic targets, learner internal factors might influence the beneficial effect of CF, as learners can perceive differently the various types of CF, also depending on their own individual characteristics (Mackey, 2007). Success in L2 learning appears to depend on a variety of factors. For example, the duration and intensity of the language course, the size and composition of the learning group, the teacher and the teaching methodology, and last but not least, the characteristics of the language learner (Cohen, 2010). It could be the case that the factors that affect the L2 learning process of one individual might differ to those of another one. Looking at both internal and external learner factors and discovering the influences that they might have on the L2 learning and educational process of students seems noteworthy.

2.7.1 Age

In naturalistic settings, it has been widely accepted that L2 exposure at a young age eventually attains native like proficiency, ultimately in L2 phonology (Flege, Yeni-Komshian, & Liu, 1999) and morphosyntax (Abrahamsson & Hylénstam, 2009). However, in classroom SLA, children, compared to teenagers and adults, lack cognitive maturity, literacy knowledge, and experience at school (García Mayo & García Lecumberri, 2003; Muñoz, 2006). Thus, researchers have suggested that teachers should offer elaborated intervention, including scaffolding to aid young learners to detect linguistic features that they would otherwise miss from input alone (Lightbown, 2008). In contrast to this, it has been suggested that CF benefits for younger learners were larger than for older learners (Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Lyster & Saito, 2010). Nonetheless, younger learners appear more sensitive to the impact of CF. Studies have indicated that whilst older learners benefitted from both recasts and prompts, younger learners benefitted more from prompts than from recasts (Oliver, 2000, 2002; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Lyster & Saito, 2010). In classroom settings, the advantages of older learners are evident in their ability to gain similar benefits from error correction irrespective of CF type (Lyster et al., 2013). Consequently, age can also influence uptake rates (Oliver, Philip, & Mackey, 2008).

Amongst other individual difference concepts that have been investigated as potential moderator variables in the success of CF are students' proficiency level, analytical ability, aptitude, phonological memory, working memory, and attention control. These concepts

were the focus of many investigations aiming to discover whether they might affect learners' noticing, development, and ability to benefit from recasts (e.g. Han, 2002; Mackey et al., 2002; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Robinson, 2007; Trofimovitch, Ammar, & Gatbonton, 2007; Mackey, Adams, Stafford, & Winke, 2010; Révész, 2012b). However, it is beyond the scope of this Chapter to discuss in detail the measurements of these concepts. Less attention has been given to other individual difference concepts such as motivation variables and personality traits. In the following sections, individual difference characteristics that are explored in this study are discussed, particularly, socio-psychological factors namely motivation, personality traits, and attitudes which could somehow be promoted in a positive direction through a teacher's methodological repertoire (Chamot, 1987; Oxford, 1990; Cohen, Manion, Morrison, & Wyse, 2010).

2.7.2 Motivation

“In any learning situation, not all humans are equally motivated to learn languages, nor are they equally motivated to learn a specific language” (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p.165). Motivation is considered to affect learners' second and foreign language acquisition processes and achievements (Dörnyei, 1994, 2005; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Ortega, 2009), and it seems an important concept because it can be enhanced in proper social circumstances (Noels, 2003). A single, integrated definition of motivation does not exist in the literature, but various ones contribute to suggesting common motivation determinations.

To begin, Gardner (1985) defines L2 motivation as “the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (p. 10). He notes that motivation is conceptualized as a set of variables: effort, desire to achieve the goal of learning, and a combination of the language together with favourable attitudes towards language learning. Brown (2001) simply claims that motivation refers to the intensity of one's impetus to learn. Dörnyei (2009) appears more precise, by stating that motivation explains why people select a particular activity, how long they are willing to persist, and what effort they invest in it. The components of Dörnyei's (2009) explanation of motivation correspond to goals, initiation, and maintenance of learning effort (Kormos, 2017). It appears that in the above definitions of motivation, learners' attitude, degree of desire and effort, as well as

investment in time, together suggest the extent that a person is motivated in language learning.

There are different motivational models which incorporate different sets of variables presented under goals or orientations. One common categorisation divides motivation into instrumental motivation (e.g. learning in order to get a benefit) and integrative motivation (e.g. learning because of personal interest) (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). This division of concepts appears to have received the most empirical attention, and many motivational models that followed incorporated aspects of integrative motivation (e.g. Clement, 1980; Gardner, 1985, 1988).

An alternative motivational formulation is the language learning orientations scale by Noels (2003), Noels, Clément, & Pelletier (1999, 2001), and Noels, Clément, Pelletier, & Vallerand (2000), according to the elements of the self-determination theory by Deci and Ryan (e.g. 1985, 1995, 2000, 2001, 2002). Self-determination theory is a motivation theory which lies in a continuum of extrinsic forces and intrinsic motives, and it represents a broad framework to study motivation and personality. It suggests that motivational orientations can be grouped according to a continuum of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. Intrinsic motivation is considered to be a fully self-determined type of motivation which is regulated by the activity per se. It refers to the students' performance of certain actions due to stimulation reflecting excitement and enjoyment, accomplishment for achieving personal goals, or for the pleasure of gaining knowledge.

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is regulated by external factors apart from the activity, which can be more or less self-determined. Within extrinsic motivation, the least self-determined type is external regulation which is related to actions that are performed due to external demands, or because they would result in receiving a reward or punishment. A more self-determined extrinsic motivation type is introjected regulation which describes external compulsory rules that an individual follows due to internal pressure, since s/he accepts them as norms. Another type of extrinsic motivation which is

considered to be even more self-determined is identified regulation. It is related to actions that are valued by an individual because they are meaningful for his/her sense of self. A third category of motivation is amotivation which relates to lack of motivation in learning a language. Amotivated individuals do not see the link between actions and their consequences. If one links the two different motivation models by Gardner and Lambert (1972), and Deci and Ryan, it seems that extrinsic motivation is somehow related to instrumental motivation, and intrinsic motivation is related to integrative motivation (Soureshjani & Naseri, 2011).

In CF literature, the role of motivation appears to be under-researched. This gap has already been highlighted by Ellis and Sheen (2006) when they referred to the efficacy of recasts, commenting that they do not occur “in a social vacuum, and their efficacy might be influenced by socio-psychological factors that determine learners’ receptivity to them” (p. 597). It seems that there is no indication in the literature with respect to the relationship between students’ motivation, CF types, and uptake types, in naturalistic classroom settings.

2.7.3 Personality traits

Personality is one of those concepts for which one cannot find a single definition. On the one hand, there is the view that every individual’s personality is characterised by unique and unchanging patterns of traits (Messick, 1994). On the other hand, there is the view that every person’s personality consists of a multitude of traits, and one’s behaviour may display behaviours across several dimensions. Therefore, it seems impossible to offer an accurate personality profile. Multi-trait personality models such as Eysenck’s three component construct (e.g. Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985), and the Five Factor Model (e.g. Costa & McCrae, 1992) include extroversion and introversion. Together with these personality traits, other dispositions that have been considered influential in SLA include self-esteem, inhibition, risk taking, and anxiety (Brown, 2007).

With respect to extroversion and introversion, Dörnyei (2005) claims that they have attracted the most attention in the L2 field. Extroverted people are considered to be

sociable and talkative, whereas introverted people are more quiet, and passive. Thus, in class, extroverts tend to like discussions, receiving explanations from teachers or classmates, as well as studying with a group. In contrast, introverts seem to prefer writing rather than speaking, as well as studying alone rather than in a group (Laney, 2002; Richard & Schmidt, 2002; Dörnyei, 2005).

Depending on the learning situation, characteristics of both extroversion and introversion could favour a student. Some learning situations might benefit an outgoing person, whereas some others could favour a person's quieter counterpart (Dörnyei, 2005). Therefore, distinguishing oral and written criteria appears to be important when studying the relationship between such personality traits and learning. For example, Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, (1996) reported no relationship between extroversion and written criteria language measurements. However, Dewale and Furham (1999) found that extroverts were more fluent than introverts, especially in formal situations, or in environments characterised by interpersonal stress. Similarly, Dewale (2004) provided additional findings concerning the superior fluency of extroverts compared to introverts. Such outcomes suggested that introverts might benefit less from learning opportunities that require participation in communicative tasks (Dörnyei, 2005).

Within the construct of self, another personality trait that is associated with risk-taking is self-esteem. Self-esteem embodies the evaluations of one's general self-worth or esteem (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). It seems that during L2 oral production tasks, there is a greater potential for damaging one's self-esteem. Thus, a learner with a strong self-esteem is less likely to suffer any psychological damage when producing an error, or when receiving CF. In contrast, a relatively insecure learner might fear to experiment with newly learned knowledge at the expense of producing an error, and consequently receiving CF (Brown, 2007; Weiten, 2017). It also appears that academic achievement has an important role in the development of self-concept, as one's views and evaluations of oneself are to a large extent based on school performance (Pajares & Schunk, 2005). Moreover, it has been suggested that inhibition discourages risk-taking, affecting especially older learners, because for example, adolescents appear to be more self-conscious compared to younger students (Guiora, Brannon, & Dull, 1972).

To continue, anxiety is considered to be one of the most important affective factors that can influence learning processes and performances (Kormos, 2017). Anxiety can be defined as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (Spielberger, 1983, p. 1). The role of anxiety in language learning appears to be significant, because when interacting in a non-native language it is common to experience feelings of uncertainty and perceptions of a threat to one’s self-esteem and self-concept (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Learners’ willingness to interact during L2 oral tasks could be attributed to the extent that “their prior language learning has led to development of self-confidence, which is based on a lack of anxiety combined with a sufficient level of communicative competence, arising from a series of reasonably pleasant [second language] experiences” (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998, p. 548).

It has been indicated that anxiety can interfere with L2 learning, as high-anxiety learners were found to score lower than low-anxiety learners in language courses. Moreover, within a classroom context, high-anxiety learners were found to speak less, or not to speak at all due to nervousness, and to avoid risks in learning (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). As far as the relationship between anxiety and error correction is concerned, although only a few studies have looked at it, anxiety has been a main argument against CF provision. In particular, the claim against CF refers to the potential negative effects that overt correction might have on students’ affective filter by raising it, and it is argued that these negative effects of CF might prevail over the positive effects (Krashen, 1983).

DeKeyser (1993) was the first who studied the effects of oral CF in relation to students’ individual difference characteristics, and he indicated that learners of low-anxiety, and low extrinsic motivation benefited from regular error correction. However, in Havranek and Cesnik’s (2001) study of German learners of English, it was indicated that high inhibiting anxiety and high promotive anxiety appeared more conducive to CF learning than any other type of low anxiety. More recently, in Sheen’s (2008, 2011) research, recasts were found to be more effective for low-anxiety learners who produced high levels of modified output or uptake with repair, suggesting that anxiety can influence whether recasts lead to modified output.

Together with other learner factors, personality traits of learners appear to affect not only their learning style preferences, but they may also have strong effects on their L2 learning process and progress (Deawale, 2002; Cohen, 2010). It appears that individual difference factors such as personality traits, and motivation variables, and their role in affecting CF success have not received adequate attention from researchers. Ellis and Sheen (2006) invited research concerning the impact of these concepts on the perception of recasts. Likewise, Sheen (2011) has called for more studies to investigate the relationship between anxiety and micro-processes of language learning.

In addition to the learner factors described above, another socio-psychological factor that received attention in relation to CF is the concept of attitude. In the following section, I review relevant literature on attitudes and CF, and I identify the gaps that I wish to address in this thesis.

2.8 Attitudes

In this section, I review literature in relation to attitudes and CF. In particular, I describe the current scene in relation to students' and teachers' attitudes towards CF provision, and CF types. Additionally, I identify the gaps that I wish to address in this study.

The concept of attitude has long been fundamental within the social psychology field (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Attitude has received decades of attention, therefore the definition of the concept was naturally narrowed down throughout the years (Schwarz & Bohner, 2001). Most contemporary psychologists agree that the concept of attitude is characterised by an evaluative nature (Hill, 1981; Oskamp, 1991; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993), since when measuring an individual's attitudes, the result would locate the individual on an evaluative dimension, in relation to the attitude object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Generally, individuals' attitudes are regarded as "summary evaluations" of an object, and an attitude object can be anything a person "discriminates or holds in mind" (Bohner & Wanke, 2002, p. 5). Sarnoff's (1970) definition of attitudes appears to be widely accepted. He defines attitude as "a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects" (p. 279). Similarly, Eagly and Chaiker (1993) define attitude as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some

degree of favour or disfavour” (p. 1). The above definitions suggest that attitudes are evaluative orientations towards some objects which can be of any sort, from languages and dialects, to government policies (Garett, 2010). Holmes (2008) states that attitudes can have a great impact upon areas such as education, and Starks and Paltridge (1996) support that students’ attitudes can influence the choice of teaching models. Thus, discovering learners’ preferences seems beneficial for learning.

Within the context of language teaching, the subject of attitudes in relation to the domain of error correction has not been under investigation to a great extent. When compared to research investigating the success of CF, students’ and teachers’ attitudes towards oral error correction are more limited in ESL/EFL research (e.g. Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Chenoweth, Day, Chun, & Lupescu, 1983; Oladejo, 1993; McCargar, 1993; Schulz, 2001; Katayama, 2007; Kavaliauskiene & Anusiene, 2012; Azar & Molavi, 2013). Taking into consideration researchers’ disagreement regarding the most effective CF types (Goo & Mackey, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 2013), it seems interesting to consider students’ as well as teachers’ opinions towards this matter.

Research in educational psychology suggested that learning beliefs lead to individual differences in learning (Yang, 1999), and learners’ beliefs are identified as an important individual difference variable in L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2005). They are considered important because they can have an impact on students’ learning behaviour (Horwitz, 1988; Grotjahn, 1991; Borg, 2003), and they can influence teachers’ activities (Borg, 2003; Burgess & Etherington, 2002). Moreover, mismatches in learners’ interpretations and teachers’ intentions may have negative effects in learning (Nunan, 1989). Consequently, information about students’ perspectives can aid towards more effective teaching classroom practices, especially when combined with the outcomes of research on CF effectiveness (Lyster et al., 2013).

2.8.1 Attitudes towards CF provision

Studies that were conducted in different settings, with different kinds of learners revealed a generally positive attitude towards CF. In particular, studies conducted with ESL students revealed an overall positive attitude towards oral CF (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976;

Chenoweth et al., 1983; McCargar, 1993; Faeqih, 2015). Similarly, an overall positive attitude towards oral error correction was the outcome of studies that were conducted with EFL/FL student participants (Casciani & Rapallino, 1991; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996, 2001; Katayama, 2007; Brown, 2009; Simard & Jean, 2011; Azar & Molavi, 2013; Zhao, 2015; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). On the other hand, Loewen et al. (2009) found that CF was viewed somewhat negatively by the students, especially by the ESL students compared to the FL ones.

Students' attitudes towards CF appear to be influenced by their cultural backgrounds, educational experiences, learning environments, and/or their proficiency level (Lyster et al., 2013; Faeqih, 2015). For example, FL students' attitudes are likely to be affected by their teaching and testing environments, thus accuracy for them can be as important as fluency, due to the fact that their exam and test papers target accuracy (Edge, 1989; Schulz, 2001). Moreover, it seems that students in private language institutions might view language as a studied object even in meaning-focused activities, whereas students in immersion or content-based classes appear to view language as a tool to earn information about content areas (Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2004; Sheen, 2004).

Schulz (1996, 2001) found that both learners of different target languages, and learners with different cultural backgrounds had a positive attitude towards CF. However, the study of Loewen et al., (2009) of eight different language groups at an American university showed that students of different L1 had a different stance towards CF. In particular, learners of less commonly taught languages such as Arabic and Chinese, whose L1 was claimed to be in the majority English, indicated a positive attitude toward CF. In contrast, learners of English whose L1 was claimed to be either Korean or Chinese had a negative attitude towards CF provision. Such outcomes suggest that despite learners' FL learning background, students who are being immersed in the environment of the target language, could be influenced by it to a great extent.

The issue of CF provision invites further matters for ESL/EFL teachers who are called to face questions of when, how and what to correct. The students' preferences concerning the amount of CF provision, and the correction of different kinds of errors has also been

of interest for researchers. Concerning the degree of error correction, Ancker (2000) conducted a study with students in fifteen different countries. The study revealed that students held a generally positive attitude towards the correction of all errors when using the target language. Similarly, ESL students in Singapore (Oladejo, 1993), Chinese EFL students (Zhao, 2010), ESL students in Montreal (Simard & Jean, 2011), adult ESL advance-level students (Lee, 2013), and adult and secondary EFL students in Spain (Roothoof & Breeze, 2016) preferred to have all of their errors corrected. However, Katayama (2007) found that almost half of the EFL students at Japanese universities were not positive towards the correction of all errors, especially those that might not interfere with communication. Likewise, in Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005) study, undergraduate students in Spain expressed a preference for receiving CF on specific errors, due to their concerns that CF may inhibit communication.

Although most studies have shown that students are positive towards constant error correction, there seems to be a mismatch between students' and teachers' attitudes towards CF. Studies have shown that the extent to which most students wish to be corrected does not parallel teachers' willingness to offer CF. Teachers' negative attitudes towards correcting all errors have been attributed to their efforts towards not interrupting the flow of communication, as well as to their fears of a potential negative impact on students' confidence, and levels of anxiety (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Schulz, 1996, 2001; Ancker, 2000; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Brown, 2009; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010; Yoshida, 2010; Simard & Jean, 2011; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). However, students have stated that CF does not inhibit their willingness to use the L2, and does not make them feel embarrassed (Oladejo, 1993; Lee, 2013). Besides, students claimed that they have rarely or never experienced negative feelings when corrected. They have reported to experience positive feelings in response to CF, such as feeling happy and grateful (Roothoof & Breeze, 2016).

In response to these differences between students' and teachers' views, an investigation about teacher perceptions of CF (Vásquez & Harvey, 2010) has spread light on how teachers' views and concerns about CF provision can change when they realise the actual benefits that relate to it. The study indicated that the teachers' initial concerns about learner affect decreased when they recognised the accompanying variables of CF, namely

the relationship between CF and uptake, the interaction between error type and CF, and the differences between CF types that provide correct forms with those that do not. Such outcomes concerning affective responses to oral CF suggest that teachers should be less reluctant to interrupt and correct students, because it has not only been indicated that students appear to ask for it, but also that immediate correction provided during meaning-focused activities can be helpful, and not essentially intrusive (Lyster et al., 2013; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016).

Further to the mismatch between learners' and teachers' preferences for receiving CF, some findings have indicated that teachers' beliefs do not always correspond to their practices. On the one hand, in one particular study, the practices of five adult ESL teachers in Australia, and three immersion teachers in Senegal corresponded to their CF beliefs. On the other hand, three ESL teachers in New Zealand who stated a preference for partial correction, namely in response to comprehension issues, were found in practice to correct errors which did not impede with communication (Basturkmen, Ellis, & Loewen, 2004). Moreover, Junqueira and Kim's (2013) study with ESL teachers revealed a disparity between teachers' claimed negative attitude toward correcting learners' oral errors, to their actual correction of more than half of the errors. Added to this, teachers appeared not to be aware of the fact that they were providing CF to the students.

Finally, with regards to preferences towards the correction of different types of errors, Japanese EFL students in Katayama's (2007) study preferred to receive CF for their pragmatic, phonological and vocabulary errors. The researcher claimed that the students' FL learning experiences was the reason for these choices. Other studies revealed that ESL, EFL, and FL students expressed positive attitudes towards teacher correction of phonological and grammatical errors (Schulz, 2001; Azar & Molavi, 2013).

2.8.2 Attitudes towards CF types

Research on learner preferences also includes a few studies which focused on students' attitudes towards different types of CF, some in a matter of explicit vs. implicit feedback. For example, some researchers discovered that the majority of EFL and ESL students indicated a positive attitude towards explicit correction techniques (Schulz, 2001; Sheen,

2006; Amador, 2008; Lee, 2013), whereas others found that most EFL and ESL students preferred implicit correction (Loewen et al., 2009; Faqeih, 2015). Other studies focused on specific techniques but no clear agreement has been revealed. For example, in Katayama's (2007) study of EFL students in Japanese universities, most students indicated a preference for elicitation. Other feedback methods that were favoured by the students were metalinguistic feedback, recasts and explicit correction. However, both ignoring erroneous utterances, and simply repeating them were viewed as unfavourable methods from the students. Likewise, in a study by Kaivanpanah, Alavi, & Sepehrinia, (2012), Iranian advanced EFL learners expressed positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback and recasts. In a study of adult Chinese language learners though, learners expressed a preference towards a number of CF types, with their support clustering around explicit correction and prompts (Zhao, 2015).

In other studies, learners indicated a clear preference for self-correction prompting CF types. For instance, Yoshida (2008) found that Japanese FL learners preferred to be given the opportunity to self-correct, instead of teachers giving them the correct answer immediately. Interestingly, the students' preference towards self-correction was only indicated in instances where they felt confident about the correct answer, which implies a practical difficulty for teachers, since they cannot be sure which CF type the students wish to receive at different instances of erroneous utterances. Similarly, in Zhu's (2010) exploration, Chinese college FL students expressed a preference towards CF that gives them a direction of where the error is, instead of CF that simply indicates that there is an error, or that it provides the correct answer. In contrast, Lee (2013) found that advanced ESL students linked clarification requests with teachers' lack of attention, and they disliked metalinguistic feedback.

Learners' attitudes towards CF types have been found to be related to certain factors. Brown's (2009) study of first and second year university students revealed a difference in CF type preference based on proficiency level. Specifically, second year more advanced students indicated a stronger preference for more indirect than direct types, compared to first year students, possibly because more advanced students have a greater probability for successful self-correction. Equally, Iranian advanced learners preferred elicitation and self-correction, compared to the two other lower level groups of students.

Such preferences were attributed to the superior language knowledge of advance learners, accompanied by greater confidence in language ability. The two lower groups indicated a preference for metalinguistic feedback, possibly due to their greater need for gaining linguistic knowledge (Kaivanpanahet et al., 2012)

Additionally, Roothoof and Breeze (2016) further to attitudes correlating with a learner factor, revealed a disagreement between teachers' and students' preferences. Whereas students viewed most positively metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction, teachers preferred elicitation and complete recasts. However, although both adult and secondary school students had a positive attitude towards metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction, they disagreed on their preferences towards recasts, as adults were positive, but secondary students were negative. Moreover, although both student groups rated repetition negatively, secondary school students were slightly more negative towards it. Such outcomes suggest attitude differences attributed to age. In relation to Roothoof and Breeze's (2016) findings of teachers' positive attitudes towards recasts, Yoshida (2008) found that while teachers acknowledged the benefits of prompts, they preferred recasts. Their preferences towards recasts were related firstly, to the matter of preserving a "supportive classroom environment" (p. 89), and secondly, to their efficacy with respect to time management, possibly due to the positive evidence that recasts contain.

Concerning the relationship between learners' attitudes and effectiveness of CF, Havranek and Cesnik (2001) found a relationship between beneficial CF and positive attitude. Specifically, the study compared the success and the effects of recasts, repetition plus recasts, and elicitation, by means of a subsequent test. The outcomes showed that CF was likely to benefit students who were positive towards error correction and who had a high proficiency level. Similarly, in Sheen's (2006) study, students' preferences for explicit CF techniques and for grammatical accuracy were in line with the fact that learners benefitted more from metalinguistic feedback rather than recasts.

2.8.3 Summary

In short, previous results indicate that although there is a generally positive attitude of students towards CF, there is disagreement on how it should be done. Students disagree

on their preferences for different CF types, and factors such as a positive attitude, and the proficiency level appear to influence the effectiveness of CF on learning. Moreover, learners' age appears to influence the amount of uptake produced.

It seems difficult for teachers to modify their practices and preferences to accommodate each individual student's preferences especially in university, or other public and private institutional settings with relatively large numbers of students within a class. However, knowing students' and teachers' perceptions and expectations is useful. They can aid towards a successful learning process, as there are cases when the teachers' practices could be tailored accordingly to match the students' preferences, or to at least minimize conflict with regards to students' expectations. Ultimately, the potential benefit of CF will be at its peak only when students are willing to take on board teachers' comments (Schulz, 2001; Katayama, 2007; Riazi & Riasati, 2007; Azar & Molavi, 2013).

Learners' orientation to the learning context, their perspectives, preferences, feelings and attitudes on interactional processes might influence their engagement in interaction, and thus mediate the influence of feedback (Mackey, 2003; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Katayama, 2007; Riazi & Riasati, 2007; Azar & Molavi, 2013). Although there is previous research that deals with students' and teachers' attitudes toward teacher CF, there seem to be interesting gaps. In particular, Greek-Cypriot students' attitudes towards CF have not been investigated yet. Moreover, the potential influence of students' attitudes towards the success of different CF types to result in learner uptake, and the possibility that students' motivation and personality traits might affect their responses to CF types is extremely limited, and in the context of Cyprus non-existent.

2.9 Statement of Purpose

In the previous sections, I reviewed relevant theoretical and empirical literature for two main reasons: to identify the theoretical support for oral CF research, and to describe the relevant empirical scene, while drawing attention on the contributions to knowledge that I wish to address in this thesis. In this section, I state once more the aims and the Research Questions of the present study, in view of the fact that their niche has been highlighted

even more than in Chapter 1. I also provide a visual representation of the relations between the Research Questions and the main themes of the study.

My purpose is to present a descriptive picture of Greek-Cypriot EFL students' perceptions towards error production, and their attitudes towards CF, in order to contribute to the existing literature by means of a new instructional context, namely the EFL bidialectal setting of Cyprus. Additionally, I aim to test whether individual difference concepts: age, gender, motivation variables, and personality traits, explain students' attitudes towards these matters. By doing so, I address deficiencies in the literature with respect to the relation between attitudes and individual differences that have received little or no attention. These aims are represented in Research Question 1.

Furthermore, I intend to describe error-treatment interactional patterns that emerge in naturalistic classrooms of Greek-Cypriot EFL learners. I focus on distributions, frequencies, and the success of CF to result in learner uptake. By doing so, I address a gap in the oral CF research by providing a descriptive picture of CF distribution and success in terms of uptake in a *bidialectal* EFL setting. I also aim to interpret the reasons behind successful and unsuccessful CF, in order to provide relevant suggestions for EFL teachers, based on in-depth analyses of CF episodes. These goals correspond to Research Question 2.

What is more, for Research Question 3, I aim to investigate whether individual differences and attitudes towards CF, and towards specific CF types, are related to the success of CF. Data from questionnaires and from uptake performances are taken from the same students, the ones who participated in the observations. Descriptive outcomes about learners' individual differences explaining positive attitudes towards CF types (from Research Question 1), are taken into view, in discovering their relation to the success of CF. To clarify, I focus on students' uptake performances aiming to discover whether students who share characteristics associated with positive attitudes towards specific CF types, also perform well in response these techniques.

In addition, I focus on single students' attitudes and to their uptake productions, and I explore whether their attitudes relate to the success of CF. Studying the performance of each individual student aims at a comprehensive account of the relation between attitudes toward error-related matters and uptake performance, as well as to the potential exploration of other factors that could be developed across different students' performances. By exploring the relations between socio-psychological learner factors and success of immediate uptake, I aim to contribute to the existing oral CF literature by offering a new insight. Based on the above-defined goals, this study aims to answer the following Research Questions, as illustrated in Figure 2.5.

Research Question 1:

What are the Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes towards error production and CF, and what is the relationship between students' attitudes and other individual differences, namely age, gender, motivation, and personality traits?

Research Question 2:

What are the distributions and the relations between error, CF, and uptake types, and why are certain CF types more successful than others in terms of uptake, in Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms?

Research Question 3:

What is the relationship between Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes, other individual differences, and the production of uptake after CF, and why is CF successful or unsuccessful?

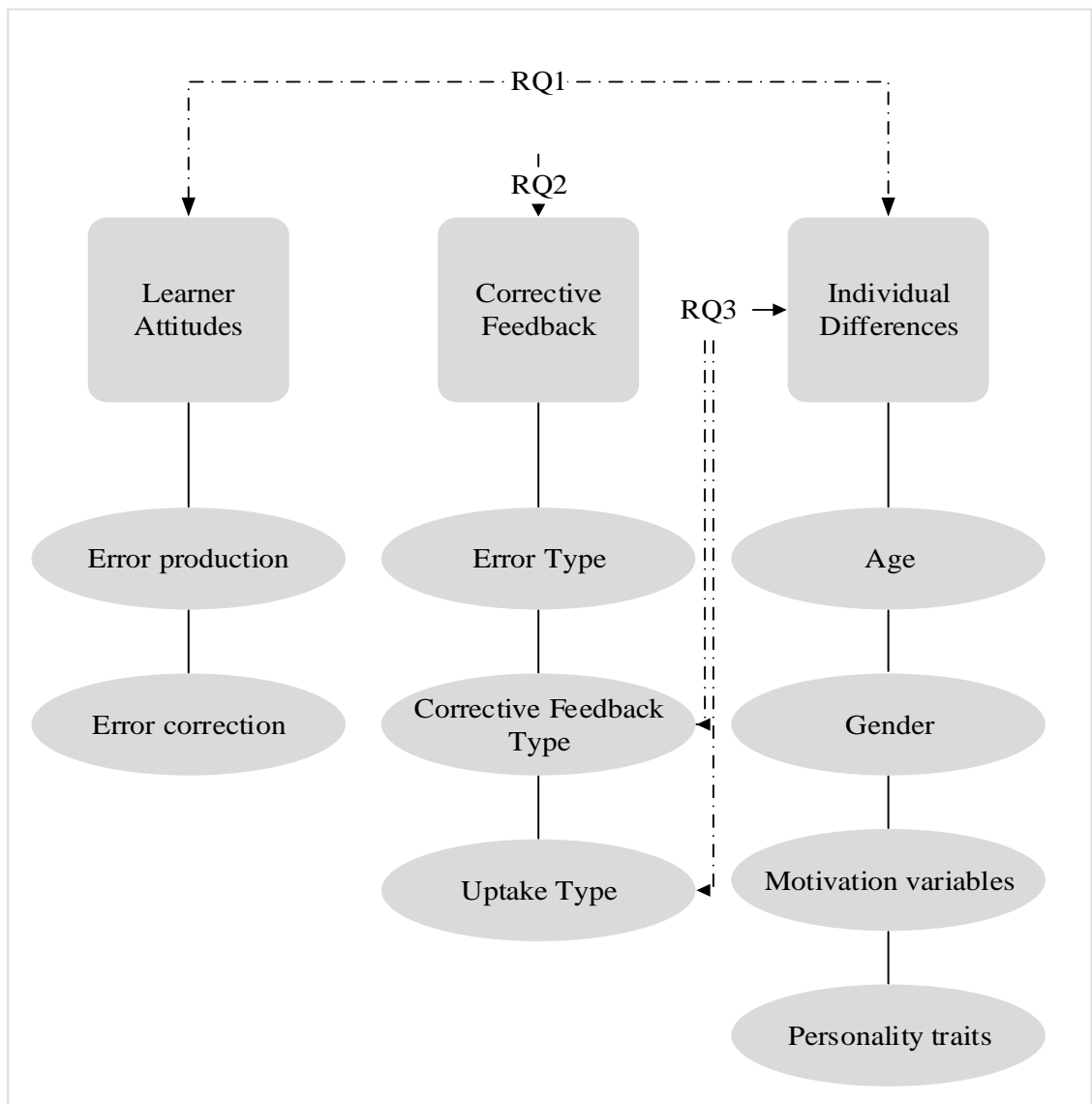


Figure 2. 5: Research Questions and main themes of the study

2.10 Summary

The aim of this Chapter was to set the scene for the present study. The Greek-Cypriot *bidialectal* setting was explained, as well as the status of English in Cyprus. In addition, theoretical and empirical background was reviewed, in relation to theoretical support to oral CF research, CF types and uptake types, and the associations between CF, attitudes, and other individual differences. In light of the contributions to knowledge that I wish to address in this thesis, I stated once more the aims and the Research Questions of the present study. In the next Chapter, I set out the methodology for answering the above defined Research Questions, illustrating the research approach, methods for data collection, analysis, and interpretation.

3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I detail the methodological procedures for answering the Research Questions that I address in this study. Firstly, I state the research approach that I adopt, which is mixed methods. Then, I present the philosophical orientation that I bring to the study, which is pragmatism. Based on the philosophical assumptions, the research strategy is exemplified. Then, I describe the research methods. In particular, I present the research designs that apply to the different research inquiries under study, the context of the study, the participants, the data collection procedures, and the instruments. After these, I detail the quantitative and qualitative data analysis procedures that I performed.

3.2 Research Approach

A research approach to research “involves the intersection of philosophy, research designs, and specific methods” (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 4). In view of that, in the present section, firstly, I describe the mixed methods approach that I adopt in this study. Secondly, I discuss the pragmatic philosophical worldview that I bring to the study, and then I demonstrate the research design.

3.2.1 Mixed Methods Approach

In this study, I adopt a *mixed methods approach*. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018),

“Mixed methods research is an approach to inquiry that involves collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, integrating the two forms of data, and using distinct designs that may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks. The core assumption of this form of inquiry is that the integration of qualitative and quantitative data yields additional insight beyond the information provided by either the quantitative or qualitative data alone” (p. 4).

The pragmatic complementary approach is the reason for choosing to adopt a mixed methods methodology, because the research purposes of this study required a combination of quantitative and qualitative conducts of inquiry, and all that this entails. To be specific, firstly, in order to answer Research Question 1, which investigates Greek-Cypriot learners' attitudes towards error-related issues, as well as the influence of individual differences on students' attitudes, I collected quantitative data through a questionnaire. Secondly, in order to answer Research Question 2, which explores error-treatment interaction patterns, and the success of corrective feedback (CF) in naturalistic settings, I collected qualitative data from EFL classrooms, which I analysed using both quantitative and qualitative data analysis procedures. Third, in order to answer Research Question 3, which studies the success of CF in relation to students' attitudes towards feedback types, and other individual differences, I mixed relevant questionnaire data together with students' uptake performances from the qualitative data. I also analysed the data using both quantitative and qualitative analysis procedures.

For each of the research aims, the procedures that were employed were based on aspects of practicality, regardless of whether the nature of the procedures that were employed were quantitative, qualitative, or mixed. I adopted an anti-dualistic stance, which views all kinds of knowledge as equally real and valuable, with the idea that different types of knowledge are of different value, in response to certain goals. Such an integration of methods aids towards the development of a more complete picture, by addressing different research goals (Bryman, 2006; Morgan, 2014; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Moreover, by using different types of methods, inevitably the different kinds of strengths and weaknesses associated with methods compensate for each other, while they jointly provide a better understanding of the research problem (Plano Clark & Ivankova, 2016). In this regard, different research designs applied to different research problems, depending on the inquiries in question. Before describing in detail the research methods that I employed, it is essential to explain *pragmatism*, because it is the philosophical worldview as meaning “a basic set of beliefs that guide action” (Guba, 1990, p. 17) that led me to embrace a mixed methods methodology.

3.2.2 Pragmatism

The value of pragmatism as a philosophical partner for mixed methods research is usually appointed to its emphasis on practicality. Pragmatism puts forward the claim that one should use procedures that ‘work’ for a certain problem under study, and for the research problem to be understood, several methods should be incorporated (Creswell, 2015). It is an outcome-oriented philosophy, which supports that the Research Question is of primary importance (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2006). However, the broader value of pragmatism as a philosophical partner for mixed methods research goes beyond the mere ‘what works’ summary that is typically assigned to it (Morgan, 2014).

Researchers who use quantitative types of data and researchers who use qualitative types of data might think that they have nothing in common, when in fact they might be sharing similar assumptions about the nature of reality, or be driven by similar ambitions about knowledge creation (Biesta, 2010). Their disagreements which are reflected in the so called ‘paradigm wars’, are mainly framed around the traditional quantitative (Schrag, 1992; Maxwell & Delaney, 2004) *versus* qualitative research paradigms (Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Schwandt, 2000). Within discussions concerning the philosophical justifications of different research studies, the concepts that are usually forefronted are those of quantitative research and qualitative research. However, this seems problematic, because it is data that can be said to be quantitative or qualitative, not research in itself. The philosophical orientations that a researcher brings to a study concerning the process of reaching knowledge, and the nature of the world, shape the process of inquiry. Consequently, they affect the decisions for using quantitative and/or qualitative data collection methods, and data analysis procedures.

The intellectual conflicts between the Ancient Greek philosophers concerning their views on knowledge, meaning, reality, and the truth influenced today’s research approaches. In a way, the debates of the ancients were the root of what are known today as the ‘paradigm wars’. Since the world is a form of a continuum, their doctrines influenced the three main approaches of today’s research, namely quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. The ancients’ views regarding epistemological and ontological qualities are still evident in the research methodologies of the present day. In particular, Sophists’ ontological relativism, epistemological subjectivity, inductive logic, and emphasis on rhetoric (Lavery, 2005;

Taylor, 2016) could be linked to today's postmodernism and interpretivism. In contrast, Plato's views of knowledge that are at the heart of deductive logic, as well as his emphasis on certainty, objectivity and a-priori reasoning (Santas, 2005; Matthias, 2017; Kraut, 2017) appear to reflect proto-quantitative associated thinking. Accordingly, today's paradigm wars between quantitative and qualitative research appear to reflect the intellectual conflict of the Western civilization (Johnson & Gray, 2010).

Somewhere in the middle were Aristotle's beliefs who considered deduction, induction, dialectic, and opinion, as complementary to understanding. His doctrine of 'four causes': material, efficient, formal, and final causes, incorporating earlier philosophies (May, 2005), could be viewed as an integration of the importance of ideas which are linked to quantitative and qualitative thinking. Moreover, the emphasis that was placed on the balance and mixture between two extremes in his 'golden mean' appears to reflect what a mixed methods approach would support (Johnson & Gray, 2010; Messari, 2012; Pardali, 2017). Hence, the spirit of mixed methods has been evident since the ancient times. From the doctrines of early Greek thought, especially in Aristotle's treatises, which would always underline the will to rescue the balance between unity and diversity, and which would always respect what in synchronous wording would be called "the autonomy of the various levels of reality" (Droit, 2003).

The American philosopher John Dewey resurfaced early Greek thought from which Plato and Aristotle developed their doctrines, in an attempt to build on their basis, and to enhance their modes of thinking in relation to human knowledge (Titles, 1990; Anton, 2005; Pavlis & Gkioskos, 2017). Dewey was influenced by pragmatists such as Kant, Hegel, Darwin, Pierce, and James, who led him to the development of an instrumental tool-based naturalistic pragmatism (Titles, 1990). The integration of the concept of naturalism as part of pragmatism appears to correspond to a process of an enrichment of the early Greek thought, and particularly, to the revival of the Aristotelian thought. Aristotle's philosophy was of great interest to American naturalists, because of their desire to find a way out of the Cartesian *dualisms* (Anton, 2005). The revival of Greek philosophy, chiefly of Aristotle's philosophy, in the development of American naturalism, which in turn influenced Dewey's pragmatism, illustrate the power of *synechism*, both in thinking and in doing.

Kuhn's (1962) principle of paradigm incommensurability suggested that scientists within different communities cannot connect with one another because they experience the world differently. However, as Snow (1959) claimed "the world can't survive half rich and half poor" (p. 44). Therefore, the discussion should not be about a container notion of paradigm which is to be embraced or rejected, but about elements or views of ontology, epistemology, methodology and axiology which relate to assumptions that underpin research (Biesta, 2010). Different assumptions concerning the philosophy of knowledge have been assigned as the systems of philosophy, which apply, among other positions, to the dualisms between realism and idealism, a division that seems very close to that of post-positivism and constructivism (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The differentiations between these paradigms lie on the philosophical assumptions that for post-positivists the world exists outside of people's understanding, whereas for constructivists the source of reality is people's conceptions (Morgan, 2014).

However, using past discoveries appears to be a prudent and irreplaceable process and practice for researchers (Barnes, 2006). Therefore, in conducting the present study, I think *synechistically*, because every set of knowledge counts toward the construction of a new one. I also take an anti-dualistic stance towards historical discoveries, because it allows me to take advantage of past principles and viewpoints, and to synthesise them, with an ultimate goal to answer my Research Questions. In this study, I have applied a synthesis of ideas, methods, and methodological traditions, under the philosophical grounds of pragmatism, and the implementation of a mixed methods approach. In Figure 3.1, I illustrate the research strategy of the study, and I demonstrate how the philosophical assumptions of pragmatism shaped my study. I indicate how a balance between the subjective and objective viewpoints to knowledge, as well as deductive and inductive reasoning, result in choosing research methods based on practicality.

I believe that some parts of research are best pursued via quantitative forms of inquiry, other parts of research are best pursued via qualitative forms of inquiry, and some others via mixing quantitative and qualitative forms of inquiry. I distributed a questionnaire in order to learn about my participants' attitudes towards error-related issues, but I also

Research Strategy

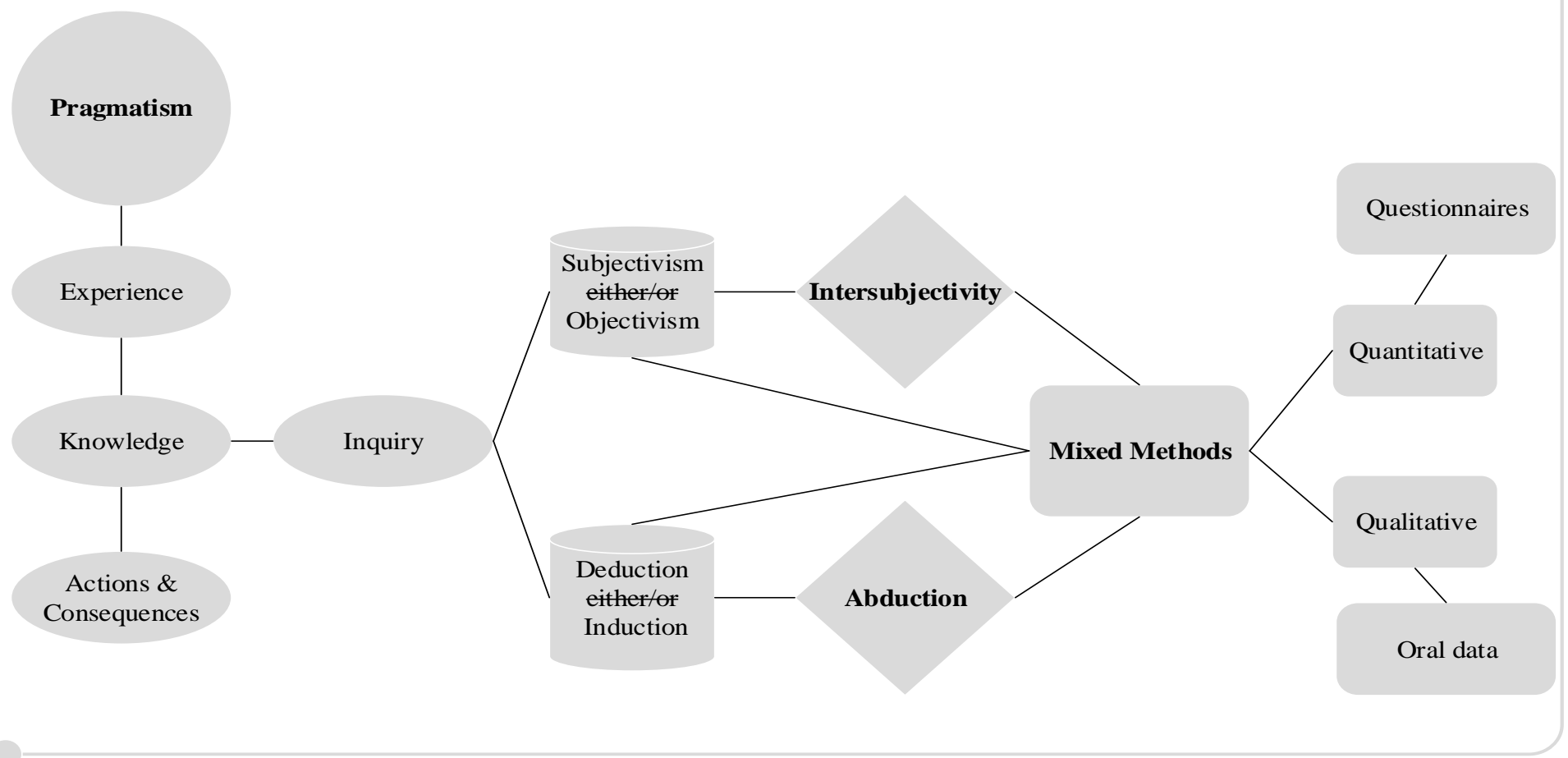


Figure 3. 1: Research Strategy

collected qualitative classroom data in order to discover the effectiveness of immediate error correction. Moreover, in order to understand my data I proceeded with both numerical and text analyses. Pragmatism allowed me to exercise freedom of choice, and to choose the methods that best suit my Research Questions.

Dewey's (1920/2008) pragmatism connects reality with experience, and the emphasis is on human experience. Knowing is one mode of experience, and it is viewed as a relation between actions and their consequences. Thus, for pragmatism, reality is found in action which results from inquiry (Strubing, 2011; Hookway, 2016). For Dewey, all modes of experience are equally real, and everyone's experience is equally real. Experience in itself is real, still, experiencing something is not the same as knowing something, because knowledge is concerned with experience; therefore knowledge is the relation between actions and consequences (Biesta, 2010). Dewey's transactional reality suggests that different types of experiences are equally real, which makes different types of knowledge equally real. To clarify, the different kinds of knowledge are different ways to view the world, since different types of actions produce different types of consequences. Accordingly, at the level of epistemology, this breaks the barrier of the dualism of the *either/or* of objectivism and subjectivism. It opens the fence to see the worth of both objective *and* subjective knowledge that can be gained from dissimilar research methods.

Hence, Dewey's (1922/2008) pragmatism indicates that pure objectivity is impossible due to the fact that the world functions as a response of human actions. Through interaction, which is a necessary process if one is to learn the world, our subjective worlds coordinate with the subjective worlds of others. As an outcome, intersubjective worlds out of individual subjective worlds emerge, and this appears to be the way out of the Cartesian dualisms. Dewey pulled into pieces the dualisms concerning knowledge that rely on the mind-world scheme, which assume that mind and matter are two different substances, and that divide objectivity and subjectivity.

To illustrate, when I was processing information, I could not avoid to do so without some degree of subjective interpretation. People cannot rise above their subjectivity, emotions, or socially grounded positions (Ramazanoglu, 1992), and those who think they can, in

effect, they disregard the detail that within the so called purely objective procedures lie human decisions that are necessarily subjective. Both quantitative and qualitative data involve subjective acts, as they are interpreted by researchers (McRobbie, 1982; Westmarland, 2001). For example, I developed my questionnaire, I decided on which statistical tests I should run in order to analyse it, and I also interpreted those tests, based on the significance levels that I decided to set. Accordingly, subjective and intersubjective logic exists in quantitative analysis, suggesting that pure objectivity is a myth (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Therefore, categorising research that involves statistics as essentially epistemologically objective is not accurate (Biesta, 2010). The pragmatic response to issues of incommensurability is represented by *intersubjectivity*, since it connects the dualisms of different forms of reference that represent objectivity and subjectivity, by moving back and forth between them (Morgan, 2007).

The emphasis on human experience in Dewey's (1920/2008) pragmatism reoriented philosophy away from abstract concerns. By concentrating on inquiries about the nature of human experience, the values of ontological arguments concerning the nature of the outside world (post-positivism), or the world of our conceptions (constructivism), are equally important, and point towards different approaches of inquiry processes (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Morgan, 2014). Experience includes the entire individual, namely an individual's mind, body, reason, thoughts, habits, and emotions, but also, the socio-cultural environment around the individual (Stitzlein, 2014). Many of our experiences occur in a relatively unquestioned fashion that Dewey (1922/2008) termed *habit*. Habits are much more than just repeated patterns (Titles, 1990). They help us develop shortcuts, limiting the range of options in a given situation to the ones that are most likely to give us the results we desire (Nelsen, 2015).

In contrast to habit, Dewey refers to inquiry as the process of dealing reflectively with a problematic situation, and it appears to be central to his idea of truth. For Dewey, the truth of beliefs should not be considered on their own, as they are attached to experiences, within the natural world (Titles, 1990). Experiences are responsible for creating meaning, as they connect beliefs and actions. Inquiry is a specific kind of experience, which similar to habit is context-specific. What distinguishes inquiry from habit is the fact that it is a process with which people examine a 'problem', make choices, and ask and answer

questions which lead to future actions (Morgan, 2014). Dewey believed that inquiries form a 'continuum' because they are connected, since an inquiry could feed or be fed by another inquiry (Titles, 1990). This connection represents cycles of beliefs and actions before there is any sense of resolution (Morgan, 2014).

Nonetheless, following Peirce's 'fallibilism', the outcome of any inquiry should not be viewed in isolation from its context. The fact that each inquiry is conducted in its own context suggests that its results are relevant to that particular context; thus, these results cannot be freely applied to a different context without critically inspecting them. The idea is that specific inquiries occur in response to a practical problem. In thinking how to solve the problem one comes forward with potential processes of action that involve reflective thought, and which include 'statements of fact'. In practice, these statements of fact cannot be applied to different contexts, because what is accurate in one situation is not necessarily accurate in another. Factual statements are to be assessed for their role in a context which is provided by the particular purpose of a practical project (Titles, 1990).

There seems to be a tendency to treat inquiry and research as synonyms. In a sense, research is a practical problem for which self-conscious decisions need to be made for its fulfilment. If inquiry is one form of experience, and research is one form of inquiry (Morgan, 2014), then similar to viewing inquiry as inseparable from context, research inquiry should be viewed as context specific as well. With inquiry as the defining process, the different ontological approaches, -as approaches to research- offer a different insight on how to proceed with the conduct of inquiry. Correspondingly, *abductive* reasoning refers to the process of moving back and forth between deduction and induction. Through this abductive process, the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods serve as inputs for the goals of each approach (Morgan, 2007). Accepting and recognising the value of different approaches to research allows a synthesis of different choices to take place, functioning as guides towards different conducts of inquiry.

3.3.3 Research Design

In the present section, I describe the research designs that apply to the different inquiries of the Research Questions. As illustrated in Table 3.1, and in Figure 3.2, Research Question 1 investigates Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes towards error production and CF, and the impact of individual differences on students' attitudes. In order to answer this question, the quantitative method of a cross-sectional survey was chosen. The survey was conducted via the distribution of a written questionnaire which is considered to be a typical instrument used in surveys.

I designed the closed-ended questionnaire in order to obtain learners' demographic information, attitudes, personality traits, and motivational dimensions, because a questionnaire is normally used for obtaining such information from the subjects of a study (Csizér & Kormos, 2010; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Creswell, 2012; Mackey & Gass, 2012; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The purpose of distributing a questionnaire was the attempt to generalise from a sample (Greek-Cypriot EFL learners) to a population, so that implications concerning Greek-Cypriot students' attitudes in relation to error-related issues could be made (Creswell, 2014). A survey allows a researcher to identify characteristics of a large population from a small group of individuals (Fowler, 2014).

	Aims	Instruments	Data analysis
Research Question 1	- Attitudes - Individual differences	- Questionnaire	QUAN
Research Question 2	- Interactional patterns	- Oral classroom data	QUAN (quantitizing) → QUAL
Research Question 3	- Attitudes - Individual differences - Interactional patterns	- Questionnaire - Oral classroom data	QUAN → QUAN (quantitizing) → QUAL

Table 3. 1: Relations between the aims of the Research Questions, data collection, and data analysis

Research Design

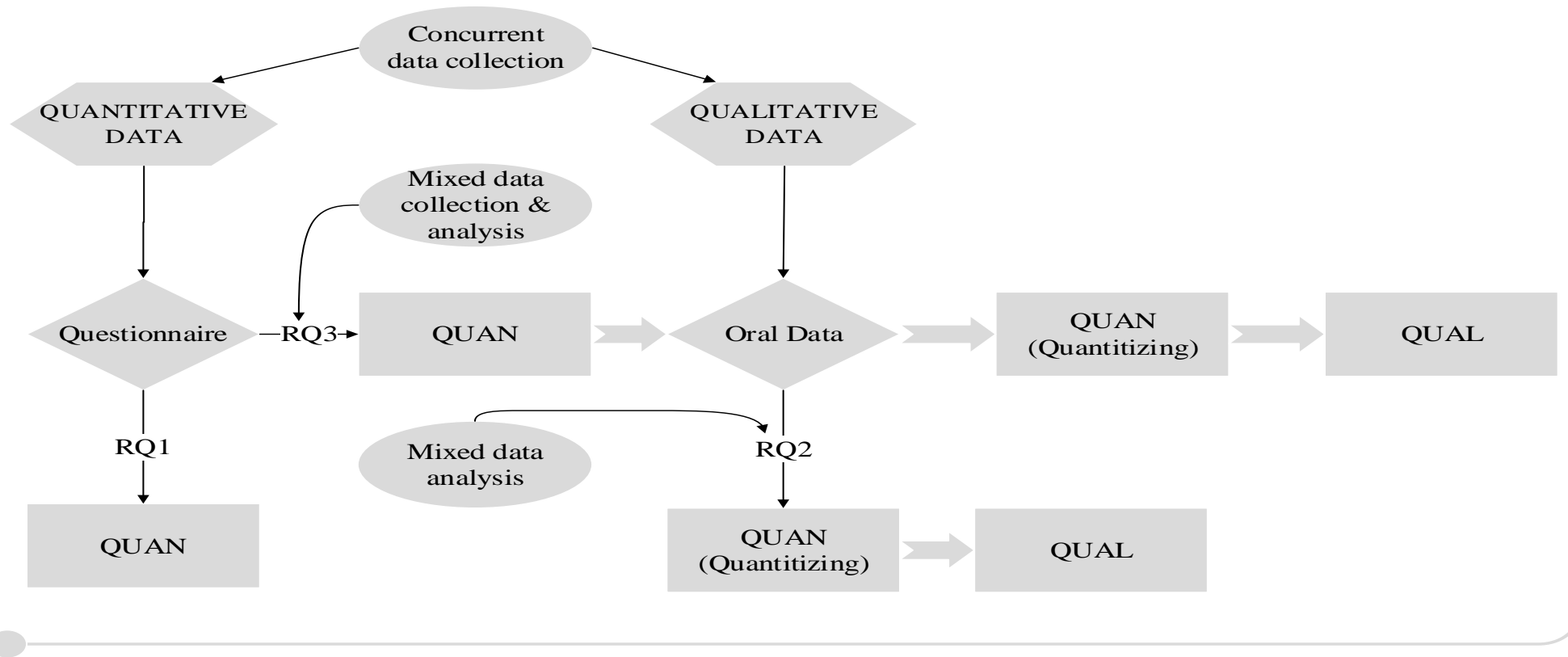


Figure 3. 2: Research Design

Research Question 2 explores error-treatment interaction patterns, and success of CF. In order to answer this question, qualitative naturalistic classroom data were used as the data sources. I followed an explanatory sequential mixed methods design for the analysis and interpretation of the data. To clarify, mixed methods were used in procedures of data analysis for a single type of data. The source data type was of a qualitative nature, but pragmatic impulses have served to promote the act of ‘quantitizing’, a process that is commonly understood as the numerical translation, transformation, or conversion of qualitative data, and it has become a stable feature of mixed methods research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006; Greene, 2007; Sandelowski, 2011). The quantitizing process was the first step in the explanatory sequential analysis process aiming to answer Research Question 2 (Creswell, 2014). The fact that the qualitative dataset was firstly ‘quantitized’, through its transformation into quantitative data, also corresponded Small’s (2011) definition of ‘crossover analysis’, which refers to the process of analysing the qualitative data in a study primarily through statistical techniques.

After the statistical analysis of the quantitized data (of the qualitative data source), I performed qualitative analysis, with a purpose that was inherently complementary; seeking to increase interpretability, meaningfulness, and validity of the initial quantitative results. (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). To be specific, the qualitative analysis helped explain the quantitative results concerning successful or non-successful CF types. The points of interference during this process of data analysis occurred when qualitative data were transformed into quantitative scores, and when constructs were associated with a quantitative dataset (Morse & Niehaus, 2009). This process of applying different analytical techniques to a single data source represented integrative analysis as well, with the analytical leverage generated by different analytical techniques aiming at complementarity (Small, 2011).

To continue, Research Question 3 studies the success of CF in relation to students’ attitudes towards feedback types, and other individual differences. In order to answer this question, I mixed relevant questionnaire data, together with students’ uptake performances from the qualitative data. Hence, the quantitative questionnaire, and the qualitative oral data were both used as information sources for obtaining answers for this Research Question. Further to using mixed data sources, I also performed mixed data

analysis procedures. The rationale for using mixed methods approaches to answer this question concerned the elements of development and complementarity (Greene et al., 1989).

To clarify, amongst the outcomes of Research Question 1 were the effects of motivation variables, and of personality traits on students' attitudes towards different CF types. In Research Question 3, these findings were taken into consideration when analysing the students' individual differences and uptake performances from the naturalistic classroom sample. The first aim was to discover whether students who shared individual difference concepts that were found to have a significant relation to positive attitudes towards specific CF types, also performed well in response to the relevant feedback types. The second aim was to study the relationship between single students' attitudes and the success of CF types. Therefore, I merged the two data sources, and the findings of one method helped to inform the findings of the other method. As a result, the success of CF was approached from two different perspectives and not as a whole. Data analysis procedures involved quantitative analysis first, in order to find students' attitudes and individual differences from the questionnaire data, as well as the success of CF in terms of uptake, in relation to these concepts. Qualitative analysis followed for complementarity purposes, attempting to gain a more in-depth understanding of the quantitative findings. Hence, in order to answer Research Question 3, I merged relevant questionnaire data to the oral dataset, the qualitative dataset was transformed into quantitative once more, and the quantitative analysis was followed by qualitative analysis (Greene et al., 1989; Morse & Niehaus, 2009; Small, 2011; Creswell, 2014).

3.3 Research Methods

In this section, I describe the context of the study, the participants, and the procedures of data collection. Moreover, I describe the instruments, namely the questionnaire and the oral classroom data. I also detail ethical considerations, and I provide an audit trail.

3.3.1 Participants and context: Questionnaire

The participants of the questionnaire were 207 EFL students from all over Cyprus. In particular, 49% were male and 51% were female students, of ages between 12 to 26 years

old. The questionnaires were distributed to students who attended both private and public EFL institutes across Cyprus.

The teenagers attended both private and public afternoon EFL schools. English is a compulsory subject from the first grade of state primary schools in Cyprus. Nonetheless, students take extra lessons during the afternoons at private or public EFL institutes to extend their English language learning. Attendance in EFL afternoon classes is considered to be the ‘norm’ in Cyprus. The majority of parents extend their children’s English language learning by registering them at one of these institutes. The main reason that students attend afternoon EFL classes is to prepare for examinations such as the Cambridge English Qualifications, because public schools in Cyprus do not prepare students for these types of qualifications. Typically, students attend afternoon EFL lessons twice per week, for three hours in total.

As for the young adult participants, some of them attended EFL lessons as part of their foundation year at a private university in Cyprus. The reason for attending these lessons was to prepare for the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) examination which is a requirement for entering the university after the foundation year. Other young adult students attended afternoon private or public institutes. Contrary to the university students, typically, the main reason for attending these afternoon lessons is not to obtain an English language qualification, but to improve English language skills for personal or professional reasons.

3.3.2 Participants and context: Observations

With regards to the oral data, fifteen Greek-Cypriot EFL students and two Greek-Cypriot EFL teachers participated in the classroom observations. The observations took place at an EFL private institute in a major city in Cyprus. Three EFL intermediate proficiency level classroom groups, namely B1, B1+, and B2 took part in the observations. The proficiency levels were based on the Common European Framework of Reference for languages, and the students successfully passed the relevant international examinations representing the level of their classes (Cambridge English qualifications).

The B1+ group was taught by Teacher 1, and the B1+ and B2 groups were taught by Teacher 2. Both teachers had EFL teaching qualifications, and they both held Master's level degrees. Moreover, they both had five years of EFL teaching experience at different proficiency levels. The B1 group consisted of four male students, from 12 to 14 years old. The B1+ group consisted of eight students, with four males and four females from 14 to 16 years old. In addition, the B2 group consisted of four students, with three males and one female, from 15 to 16 years old.

The private institution was broadly typical of private EFL schools in the island, which operate during the afternoon, and it provided EFL lessons at all proficiency levels. Reflecting the common practice of private EFL afternoon institutes, the classes took place twice per week, with lessons comprising 90 minutes each. The teachers based their lessons on specific EFL books that covered both form-focused and meaning-focused activities for all skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Both teachers used a combination of teaching methods during their lessons. To be specific, teachers applied the Grammar-translation method through the use of the L1 in translating words/phrases/sentences, and by giving the students grammar rules with examples, and fill-in-the-blank exercises. Moreover, they applied the Direct method through activities such as reading aloud, conversation practice using specific structures, and dictation. In addition, the teachers gave the students the chance to mimic their pronunciation models through repetition drills. Furthermore, the Communicative Language Teaching method was also evident in both teachers' practices, through the use of activities such as role plays, picture strip stories, and scrambled sentences/dialogues/passages (Harmer, 2007; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

Although both teachers applied a combination of teaching methodologies during their lessons, Teacher 1 appeared slightly more communicative in his/her teaching orientation. This was evident by the teacher's tendency to take advantage of every opportunity to initiate tasks that promoted meaningful communication, for various topics, and from a range of activities. Moreover, Teacher 2 generally used the technique of translation more frequently compared to Teacher 1.

As for the layout of the classrooms, both rooms that I observed shared the same arrangement. Students were seated around a large oval table, which was placed in the middle of the room. The table allowed the students to face their classmates, the teacher, and the interactive whiteboard which was placed on the right hand side as one enters the classroom. The teachers were able to move around the classroom and monitor the classroom effectively. The walls were colourful with students' work and several posters with learning material. A visual representation of the classroom layout is provided in Appendix A.

3.3.3 Data collection procedures

In this section I detail the data collection procedures. I start with ethical considerations, and then I provide an audit trail which describes in detail the procedures that I followed in order to gather both the questionnaire and the naturalistic classroom data.

3.3.3.1 Ethical considerations

Before administering the questionnaires, or observing and recording any of the EFL sessions, I obtained consent from the institutions, the participants, and the participants' parents/guardians if relevant. In line with ethical provisions from the university, firstly, information letters and consent forms were provided to the institutions, in order to receive their permission to collect data from their premises. The information letter detailed the purpose of the study, the procedures of data collection, the role of the subjects, and my contact details for potential queries. They kept the information letters and one copy of the consent form, and returned the second copy of the consent form. They were also provided with a withdrawal form in case they changed their minds concerning their participations.

Information letter, consent forms, and withdrawal forms were distributed to students, parents/guardians if relevant, and teachers. All documentation was circulated in the written format. The content of the letters was the same, only the recipients were different. Therefore, to avoid repetition, I provide a sample of the forms by illustrating the student information letter, the student consent form, and the student withdrawal form in Appendix B, C, and D respectively. It is important to note that students and their parents/guardians received the documents in Greek to ensure maximum understanding (Dörnyei & Csizér,

2012). Thus, I provide the Greek versions of the student information letter, the student consent form, and the student withdrawal form, in Appendix E, F, and G accordingly. Moreover, students' questionnaires were anonymous, apart from the students' questionnaires who took part in the observations, for reasons relating to data analysis procedures. Nonetheless, the learners' personal information were treated with confidentiality, by masking their identities across the study (Creswell, 2014).

3.3.3.2 Audit trail

The targeted population for the distribution of the questionnaires were Greek-Cypriot EFL learners, and the participants were employed following a nonprobability or convenience sampling method (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The questionnaires were distributed in paper format through the mode of group administration, allowing simultaneous data collection from all students present in the EFL classes (Fowler, 2014). The participants were recruited from different towns across Cyprus. I collected questionnaire data from two towns, and I also had assistance from EFL teachers who distributed the questionnaires in three towns. Before distributing the questionnaires, they obtained the consent of the students, and students' parents/guardians where relevant. The participants attended EFL classes in private or public afternoon EFL institutions, or as part of their first year as undergraduate students at a university. The recruitment was partially purposeful (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012), because participants had to possess the key characteristic of the Cypriot nationality.

The naturalistic classroom data were collected based on accessibility issues (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012). Therefore, a convenience sample was employed (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A total of 29 EFL sessions were audio-recorded, comprising 1417 minutes of classroom data. The quality of the audio-recording was satisfactory. The recording device picked up students' responses clearly, because the classrooms were small, and the highest number of students in each class was eight.

The oral data were collected within a period of seven months, from December 2016 until June 2017. I observed and audio-recorded eight of the sessions through the method of non-participant observations. During the observations, I documented field notes in a

semi-structured way, mainly noting down CF episodes to make sure that the data were relevant. Observing the sessions allowed me to see up-close the environment and layout of the classrooms. The rest of the sessions were audio-recorded by the teachers themselves. The reason I decided not to be present at all of the sessions was to minimise ‘observer’s paradox’ (Labov, 1972), which assumes that the subjects’ awareness of an observer, or of electronic equipment can affect their behaviour. Although when I was absent students were aware that they were audio-recorded, my absence was thought likely to minimise disruption and observer’s paradox (Wray & Bloomer, 2006; Friedman, 2012; Creswell, 2014). I asked the teachers to continue with their usual way of teaching, and I did not instruct them to use any particular CF types, nor to focus on specific errors.

It seems important to note that I collected observational data from both teenager and young adult EFL groups. However, during the observations, I realised that in the young adult group the interaction was not adequate for the purposes of my study, which focused on error-treatment patterns. Thus, I opted not to use the collected data from the young adult group in my study. As a result, the observations focused on the groups of teenagers, and I tried to collect a rich sample from those three groups.

3.3.4 Questionnaire

In this section, I describe the student questionnaire. In particular, I present the content of the instrument, illustrating both the items that were used to measure students’ individual differences, and their attitudes towards error-related issues.

I designed the student questionnaire specifically for this study, aiming to collect data from a sample of Greek-Cypriot EFL students from across the island. I designed the questionnaire in English (Appendix H), but students were given the Greek version of the questionnaire (Appendix I) to ensure maximum understanding of the content. The questionnaire mostly consisted of closed-ended items, because I aimed to employ statistical data to describe my sample, and to test associations between variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). I performed indirect piloting on the instrument. Firstly, I discussed the questionnaire with an experienced EFL teacher who commented on the comprehensibility of the items in the questionnaire (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012). Based on

the comments, I decided on the format and the composition of the statements in the instrument. In addition, I was present in the first round of the distribution of the questionnaires, at different classrooms, with students of different ages. All of the students managed the questionnaire well, therefore I did not amend its format. If students had encountered difficulties, I would have come back to it and changed it. The associations between variables, the Research Questions, and the items on the student questionnaire are described below, and are listed in Table 3.2.

Variable name	Research Question(s)	Item(s) on Questionnaire
age	RQ1: descriptive, relationship with attitudes, and other IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section A – item 1
gender	RQ1: descriptive, relationship with attitudes, and other IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section A – question 2: items 1-2
personality trait: extroversion	RQ1: relationship with attitudes, and other IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section B – item 1: talkative, item 6: social
personality trait: anxiety	RQ1: relationship with attitudes, and other IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section B – item 2: calm and handling of stress, item 4: worry
personality trait: introversion	RQ1: relationship with attitudes, and other IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section B – item 3: quiet, item 5: shy and not social
personality trait: self-esteem	RQ1: relationship with attitudes, and other IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section B – item 7: self-esteem
extrinsic motivation	RQ1: relationship with attitudes, and other IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section B – external regulation: item 8: parents, item 15: reward; identified regulation: item 9: career; introjected regulation: item 13: compulsory to learn
intrinsic motivation	RQ1: relationship with attitudes, and other IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section B – stimulation: item 10: enjoyment, item 11: accomplishment, item 14: excitement, item 12: knowledge-cultural interest
amotivation	RQ1: relationship with attitudes, and other IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section B – item 16: waste of time
learners' beliefs towards error production	RQ1: attitudes - descriptive, relationship with IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section C – item 1: oral errors, item 2: written errors, item 3: reasons for errors, item 4: L1 knowledge helps

error correction	RQ1: attitudes - descriptive, relationship with IDs	Section C – question 7: items 1-5: degree of CF provision, question 8: items 1-4: degree of CF for different error types
affective responses to CF	RQ1: attitudes - descriptive, relationship with IDs	Section C – question 6: items 1-8, question 7: item 5
CF types	RQ1: attitudes - descriptive, relationship with IDs RQ3: relationship with uptake	Section C – question 9: items 1-8: CF types

Table 3. 2: Relations between variables, Research Questions, and questionnaire items

The presentation of questions mainly alternated between multiple choice questions, yes/no options, and five-point Likert scales. Apart from demographic information, free writing was only requested following closed-ended questions. The questionnaire was divided in three sections, namely Section A: demographic information, Section B: motivational variables and personality traits, and Section C: perceptions of error production, and attitudes towards CF. Demographic information requested the informants' age, gender, and nationality. Age and gender were among the individual difference concepts that I was interested in, whereas nationality was requested to ensure that the sample of informants represented the target population: Greek-Cypriots. Moreover, the students' English proficiency level was also questioned, and the initial idea was to verify the students' proficiency levels based on their international examination scores. However, I was not able to monitor the sample, therefore I did not have a valid representation of students' proficiency levels. For this reason, I excluded this variable from the data analysis.

For the students' individual differences in relation to motivational, personality and attitudinal variables, the question format was a five-point Likert scale. Likert scale is a technique for measuring "people's attitudes, beliefs, emotions, feelings, perceptions, personality characteristics, and other psychological constructs" (Spector, 2004, p. 3). Likert scales appear to be the most famous closed-ended question type. It consists of a statement that is accompanied by response options, which the responders need to mark based on their stance towards the statement (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012). Response options for the present questionnaire included levels of agreement, frequency, or evaluation, based on an odd-numbered type of Likert scale. The limitation of this is acknowledged,

as there is the possibility that the informants could potentially ‘sit on the fence’ of the Likert scale items, and choose the neutral option. Nonetheless, an even-numbered scale inevitably forces the informants to indicate a clear view, even when they might actually have a neutral attitude towards something. They are subsequently forced to choose an opinion when they might have an unclear view towards a matter (Brown, 2007). Thus, the decision was to provide the option of a neutral stance, in order to be aware when informants might feel this way.

Amongst the individual difference concepts that were investigated in the current study were personality traits. Information about these concepts were used for answering Research Questions 1 and 3, via descriptive and association processes. Based on a five-point Likert scale of agreement, personality traits that were assessed in the questionnaire included extroversion, introversion, self-esteem, and anxiety, which are all considered influential in SLA (Brown, 2007). Regarding extroversion, the items in the questionnaire representing this category referred to the states of being talkative and social. For anxiety, the informants had to indicate the extent to which they were generally calm, and can handle stress. With regards to introversion, the statements assessed the characteristics of being quiet, shy and antisocial. Finally, how the informants view themselves in relation to self-esteem was also measured. I chose these specific traits to be considered as part of the questionnaire based on the following reasons: I considered them important in relation to error-related issues, there was a lack of attention in previous CF studies, and empirical studies indicated that these characteristics can affect students’ L2 learning processes (e.g. Cook, 1996; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Pajares & Schunk, 2005; Brown, 2007; Kormos, 2017).

Likewise personality traits, motivational variables that were measured in the questionnaire, were used in response to Research Questions 1 and 3. With respect to measuring motivational variables, the motivational formulation that was used was ‘the language learning orientations scale’ by Noels (2003), and Noels, et al., (1999, 2000, 2001), according to ‘the elements of the self-determination theory’ by Deci and Ryan (1985, 1995, 2000, 2001, 2002). Based on this, the motivational orientations that were measured on an agreement Likert scale corresponded to the continuum of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation included the category of

stimulation for items on excitement and enjoyment, the category of accomplishment referring to the achievement of personal goals, and lastly, the item about the pleasure of gaining knowledge in relation to the L2 country, expressing a cultural interest towards it. Extrinsic motivation included the least self-determined type of external regulation, with items referring to parents/guardians' demands for learning English, and to the opportunity to receive rewards. Moreover, it estimated a more self-determined type that of introjected regulation, which denoted students' potential internal pressure for following external compulsory rules. Finally, an even more self-determined type that of identified regulation was represented by an item that referred to the students' potential career aspirations.

With regards to attitudinal dimensions, they were broadly classified into two categories: learners' perceptions of error production, and students' attitudes towards CF. To begin with error production, the questionnaire asked the students whether they make oral and written errors. Moreover, they were asked to choose potential reasons for the production of errors, and whether L1 helps or hinders L2 learning. Regarding CF, based on a 5-point Likert scale of agreement, the students expressed their stance towards the degree of error correction. Moreover, a Likert scale of frequency measured their opinions concerning the degree of CF in response to different error types.

With respect to affective responses to CF, they were measured on five-point agreement Likert scales. The items that were included in the questionnaire were influenced by previous studies that were conducted in different contexts (Katayama, 2007; Riazi & Riasti, 2007; Shaffer, 2009; Azar & Molavi, 2013). To finish with the attitudinal dimensions, the final category referred to the students' attitudes towards CF types. An assessment Likert scale was used, and students rated different CF types based on an imaginary episode of a student producing an error, and of the teacher providing CF in response to the error. The CF types (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) were presented as responses to the student's error. Additional explanation following the imaginary response was provided to maximize students' understanding of each technique.

3.3.5 Naturalistic classroom data

In this section, I describe the qualitative data source of this study, and I identify the main unit of analysis. Audio-recordings of naturally occurring classroom data were the qualitative sources in the present study. Naturalistic classroom data can offer high ecological validity for CF research, because they describe actual classroom discourse (Loewen, 2012; Friedman, 2012). I was not able to determine the data, therefore this offered a holistic view of the interaction environment of the classrooms (Wray & Bloomer, 2006). I identified reactive CF episodes in the oral data, with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence acting as the main unit of analysis. More detailed description of the coding of the qualitative data sources are provided within the following section of data analysis.

3.4 Data analysis

In this section, I detail the data analysis procedures. Firstly, I describe the statistical tests that I performed to analyse the questionnaire, in order to answer Research Question 1. Moreover, I refer to the recoding of the questionnaire items. I also present the reliability estimates for the Likert scales. Additionally, I describe the models that were used in regression tests, and the multicollinearity tests. Then, I describe the procedures that I followed to analyse the naturalistic classroom data, in order to answer Research Question 2. The data analysis involved both quantitative and qualitative analysis procedures. In particular, I describe in detail the first round of coding which involved codes for error, CF, and uptake types, to proceed to the quantitative analysis. In addition, I describe the second round of coding which involved qualitative analysis. Lastly, I describe the mixed methods sources that were implemented in order to answer Research Question 3. Specifically, I explain how I used both the questionnaire and the classroom data sources, and how I analysed the data using both quantitative and qualitative methods.

3.4.1 Questionnaire: Quantitative analysis

Research Question 1 investigated Greek-Cypriot EFL learners' attitudes towards error-related issues, and the relationship between learners' attitudes and other individual difference concepts. These questions were approached via quantitative inquires, and the analysis of the questionnaire operated the use of statistics with the IBM SPSS Statistics 23 software.

Firstly, before performing any statistical tests, I checked the missing values of all the different variables from the student questionnaire, and I found that none of the variables with missing values achieved more than 5% of the total case distribution. Therefore, the missing values were not imputed before performing the statistical tests to avoid bias. Secondly, the implementation of statistical analysis required me to test my sample for violations of the assumptions of the statistical tests that I was planning to perform.

The levels of measurement of variables which were represented by the relationship between what was being measured, and the number that it was being represented by, were the criteria determining the choice of the statistical tests that were performed (Connor-Linton, 2010; Field, 2013). The questionnaire had categorical, ordinal, and continuous items, which were measured at the nominal, ratio, and interval level respectively. For different quantitative inquiries, different statistical tests were performed, according to the levels of measurements of the variables in question. Nominal variables represented items for which the number was the name of the category, whereas ordinal variables used numbers to indicate ranks. Normal arithmetic operations could not be operated with ranks because they did not have a quantitative content, namely the rank scale did not have equal intervals. In contrast, for continuous variables, the number represented a quantity which could be manipulated, since equal intervals on a scale represented equal intervals on what was being measured (Field, 2013).

In order to discover students' attitudes towards error production and CF, I performed descriptive statistics. The questionnaire items that related to these attitudinal dimensions were represented by variables which were measured at the nominal and ratio levels, therefore frequencies and multiple response frequencies were performed (Pallant, 2011). In Table 3.3, the categorical and the ordinal questionnaire items are listed. As is evident in the Table, attitudinal dimensions measuring error production and error correction included both nominal and ordinal items, whereas dimensions assessing affective responses to CF, as well as attitudes towards different CF types were represented by ordinal variables.

NOMINAL VARIABLES	ORDINAL VARIABLES
Error production	
Section C – item 1: oral error production, item 2: written error production, item 3: reasons for error production, item 4: L1 knowledge helps	-
CF	
-	Section C – question 7: items 1-5: degree of correction, question 8 items 1-4: degree of correction for different error types
Affective responses to CF	
-	Section C – question 6: items 1-8
CF types	
-	Section C – question 9: items 1-8

Table 3. 3: Nominal and ordinal dependent variables measuring attitudes towards error-related issues.

In addition to descriptive statistics, I performed inferential statistics to test specific hypotheses. In particular, I run the following tests: chi-square tests for goodness of fit, chi-square tests for independence, binary logistic regressions, and ordinal logistic regressions.

Firstly, for the investigation of students' attitudes towards error-related issues I performed chi-square tests for goodness of fit to test the following *null hypothesis*: $H_o = O_i = E_i$, i.e. students' responses were equally spread across the yes/no options of a statement. The null hypothesis was tested as opposite to the *alternative hypothesis*: $H_a = O_i \neq E_i$, i.e. students' responses were not equally spread across the yes/no options of a statement. An *alpha level* (α) of .05 was set as the cutoff of the probability value to test the statistical significance for all tests (Rumsey, 2010). The current sample met the assumptions for a chi-square for goodness of fit test, which requires one categorical variable, the expected frequencies in each group of categorical variables to be at least five, and to have independence of observations (Pallant, 2011). I performed chi-square tests for the variables that were measured in frequencies, but not for the items that were measured in multiple response frequencies, because the later violates the assumption of independent responses in chi-square tests (Laerd statistics, 2015).

Moreover, I performed post-hoc pairwise binomial tests for all variables in order to test all possible pairs of the response categories. Due to the fact that there were five response categories for each variable, I performed ten pairwise tests for each variable. Since the response items were based on five-point Likert-type scales, I tested the following combinations: one with two, one with three, one with four, one with five, two with three, two with four, two with five, three with four, three with five, and four with five. Each number represented the agreement, frequency, or evaluation items on the Likert-type items. To test the significance of the tests, I applied the Bonferroni correction to control for Type I error (Pallant, 2011). Hence, the *alpha level* (α) was set to .005.

Moreover, the investigation of the relationship between students' attitudes and other individual differences required the operation of inferential statistics. The statistical tests that were performed tested the impact of a set of predictors i.e. independent variables, on the variables that were to be predicted or explained i.e. dependent variables. In particular, I followed the traditional approach, thus I tested the *null hypothesis: $H_o = no\ relationship\ between\ X\ and\ Y$* , which stated that there was no relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. In contrast, the *alternative hypothesis: $H_a = X\ and\ Y\ are\ related$* , claimed that there was a relationship between the independent and the dependent variables (Sheskin, 2011; Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Depending on the combinations of independent and dependent variables and their levels of measurement (Table 3.3), different analytical procedures were followed. Due to the fact that the dependent variables were either nominal or ordinal, I chose to perform *logistic regressions*. Logistic regressions allowed me to test the probability that certain outcomes were based on one or more independent variables. In other words, I was able to test which of my regression models, and specific independent variables, had a statistically significant effect on my dependent variables. Binary/binomial logistic regressions were performed when the dependent variables were nominal and dichotomous. Moreover, ordinal logistic regressions were performed when the dependent variables were ordinal (Laerd statistics, 2015).

One of the assumptions of the binary logistic regression is that there should be no significant outliers and high leverage points. Moreover, an assumption of the ordinal logistic regression is that there should be no proportional odds (Pallant, 2011). These assumptions are documented were relevant in the findings, in Chapter 4. Moreover, the logistic regression models were tested for multicollinearity, and the details are presented in section 3.4.4 Models and multicollinearity. In the next section, I explain how the ordinal variables were recoded before creating the new Likert scales of independent variables.

3.4.2 Recoding

All of the ordinal variables were recoded, so that high values indicated more of the characteristic of interest (Pallant, 2011). The recoding took place before creating the new total scale scores, before checking the reliability of the scales, and before performing logistic regressions in SPSS. For example, for a statement such as ‘I learn English because it will help me in my future career’, which would later be added together with other statements to form a total score for extrinsic motivation, one represented strongly agree, and five strongly disagree. However, because in regression the findings were associated with an increase in the independent variables, all of the ordinal variables were recoded so that one would represent strongly disagree, and five would represent strongly agree.

As mentioned above, the recoding took place before creating the total scores for extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, anxiety, extroversion, and introversion. Moreover, although self-esteem was not used for one of the computations of the new total score variables, it was still recoded, so that the findings would be more systematic. By doing so, the increase in the independent variable that acted as reference for continuous independent variables in regression tests, represented the characteristics of interest, namely high intrinsic motivation, high extrinsic motivation, high extroversion high introversion, and high anxiety.

As far as the Likert-type item of self-esteem is concerned, although an ordinal variable, it had to be entered into the regression model as either a nominal or a continuous independent variable. Although both options have advantages and disadvantages, the

decision was based on the fact that the order of the scale was an important element of the variable, and I wanted to preserve this. If it was inserted as a nominal variable, then it would lose the order of the scale. For that reason, the self-esteem Likert-type item was entered into the regression model as a continuous predictor, so that it would keep its order (Long & Freese, 2006; Pasta, 2009; Williams, 2018). Nonetheless, it is acknowledged that a single item does not seem sufficient for measuring this concept. In the next section, I describe the reliability tests that I performed for the new Likert scales.

3.4.3 Reliability estimates for the Likert scales

In this section, I present the reliability tests that I performed for the new Likert scales. Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient is one of the most common indicators of internal consistency. It is used when Likert-type items are added together to form a scale (Laerd statistics, 2015). Therefore, I performed the relevant tests to check the reliability of the newly developed Likert scales.

With regards to motivational variables, four Likert-type items were added together to form a total score for extrinsic motivation representing external regulation, identified regulation, and introjected regulation (see Table 3.2 for the relevant questionnaire items of all scales). The Cronbach's alpha value was .441 which did not suggest an acceptable internal consistency for the scale. However, according to Pallant (2011), Cronbach's alpha values are quite sensitive to the number of items in the scale. The low alpha value could be attributed to the fact that this is a short scale, since it is comprised of only four items. Considering that it is common to find quite low Cronbach values in such cases, Briggs and Cheek (1986) suggest an optimal range for the mean inter-item correlation of the items of .2 to .4. The inter-item correlation mean for this scale was found to be .144 which although not ideal was relatively close to the optimal range.

Moreover, four other Likert-type items formed a total score for intrinsic motivation: stimulation, excitement, knowledge, and accomplishment. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the intrinsic motivation scale was .739, and this indicated an acceptable internal consistency reliability for the scale in the present sample (DeVellis, 2003; Pallant, 2011).

With respect to personality traits, new variables for extroversion, introversion, and anxiety were computed by adding together two Likert-type items to form each new variable. In particular, extroversion was created by adding together the items of being talkative and social. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for extroversion suggested a relatively acceptable internal consistency with .674 (Pallant, 2011). As for anxiety, it was created by adding together the items of being calm and of tending to worry a lot. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient did not indicate an acceptable internal consistency (.484), therefore I checked the mean inter-item correlation which at .320 was within the optimal range of .2 to .4. Finally, introversion was created by adding together the items of being quiet and shy. Once again, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this short scale was not satisfactory. However, at .199 the inter-item correlation was very close to the optimal range (Briggs & Cheek, 1986). In the next section, I describe the multicollinearity tests that I performed for the regression models.

3.4.4 Models and multicollinearity

The independent variables that acted as predictors in regression tests were not used together as one model. The purpose of this was twofold. Firstly, when numerous predictors are used together in one model, there is the potential to obtain misleading results when the sample size cannot handle the complexity of the model. It is argued that simplification usually produces more precise results. Therefore, by separating the variables, potential issues relating to inadequacy of the sample size in response to complex models were prevented. Moreover, by using a maximum of four independent variables per model, potential over fitting of regression models was avoided (Frost, 2018).

Hence, three groups of independent variables were used as binary regression models, and as ordinal regression models. Thematic relations between the variables determined the variables of each model. In particular, age and gender were grouped together as one set of predictors representing biological/physical factors. Moreover, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation were grouped together as one of the two sets of psychological predictors representing motivation. A second set of psychological predictors contained the variables of anxiety, extroversion, introversion and self-esteem, demonstrating personality traits. The sets of predictors were checked for multicollinearity, namely whether high correlations existed among the independent variables (Pallant, 2011; Laerd

Statistics, 2015; Frost, 2018). Collinearity diagnostics indicated that none of the sets of predictor variables were strongly related to each other, as indicated in Table 3.4.

Independent Variable(s)	Dependent variable	Tolerance	VIF
Age	Gender	1.000	1.000
Extrinsic motivation	Intrinsic motivation	1.000	1.000
Extroversion	Self-esteem	.768	1.301
Introversion	-	.771	1.297
Anxiety	-	.885	1.130
Introversion	Extroversion	.911	1.097
Anxiety	-	.834	1.198
Self-esteem	-	.881	1.135
Anxiety	Introversion	.848	1.179
Self-esteem	-	.841	1.189
Extroversion	-	.867	1.154
Introversion	Anxiety	.906	1.104
Self-esteem	-	.745	1.343
Extroversion	-	.796	1.256

Table 3. 4: Independent variables tested for multicollinearity

Specifically, collinearity statistics for age and gender indicated that the two variables were not highly correlated to one another with tolerance values at 1.000, and VIF at 1.000. Similarly, collinearity statistics for the set of motivation predictors which comprised the total scores of extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation, revealed no multicollinearity issues between the variables. In particular, as indicated in Table 3.4, the two variables were not highly correlated to one another with tolerance values at 1.000, and VIF at 1.000.

Like the previous two predictor sets, the personality traits were tested for multicollinearity. After testing all of the possible combinations of dependent and independent variables within the set, it was indicated that the variables were not highly

correlated to one another. As shown in Table 3.4., since at all instances the tolerance values were more than 1, and the VIF values were less than 3, the variables within each of these sets were used together within the same regression models (Pallant, 2011).

3.4.5 Naturalistic classroom data: Quantitative and qualitative analysis

Research Question 2 investigated error-treatment interactional patterns that emerged from Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms. The audio-recordings of classroom interactions were used to answer this question.

The oral data were firstly “winnowed”, as they were selectively transcribed using standard orthography, through the process of identifying all of the CF episodes (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012; Friedman, 2012). Selective transcription was conducted because the productions under investigation were the CF episodes, thus only those utterances that contained the goal of the investigation were transcribed (Mackey & Gass, 2005). I checked the transcripts multiple times to ensure that they did not contain any mistakes (Gibbs, 2007; Révész, 2012a).

The next step was to prepare the qualitative data for quantitative analysis. Categorising the qualitative data in preparation for quantitative analysis, tends to entail researcher-imposed coding. In particular, I followed a mixed approach of researcher-imposed coding. In seeking to develop a coding scheme for the oral data, part of the scheme was adopted from a predetermined taxonomy. However, I assessed the suitability of the coding scheme that was used as a basic framework for the present study. Accordingly, I refined it in order to fit the current data. This helped to avoid a thread in validity which relates to adopting a system that might not be suitable to one’s research data. (Howitt & Cramer, 2011; Révész, 2012a).

3.4.6 First round of coding

Coding refers to the process of organising the data in terms of categories which are labelled with a term (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Since I was influenced by Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) study, I used their error treatment sequence (Figure 2.3) as the main unit

of analysis for coding the CF episodes. It is important to note that only those episodes that contained teachers' responses following students' erroneous utterances comprised the sample. Instances when students produced errors but did not receive feedback were excluded.

Figure 3.3 indicates a CF episode with all the categories and codes which acted as the main unit of analysis for discovering error treatment interactional patterns. Each episode was initially coded in Microsoft Excel. Teachers and students received purely profile codes, whereas the identified CF episodes were coded based on the following categories: error, CF, and uptake. Within each category there were several codes, which represented the different types in each category.

Concerning the sources of codes, in this first round of coding, I used a combination of predetermined and emerging codes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Predetermined codes or concept-driven codes (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009) were those codes that I already had in mind when I started the coding process, and were based on taxonomies which were identified by Lyster & Ranta (1997), Ranta & Lyster, (2007), and Lyster, (1998). Emergent codes or data-driven codes (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009) were those that arose naturally in the oral data. I present below all of the predetermined and emerging codes with examples.

It is important to note that for this first round of coding another person cross-checked the codes in order to find the percentage of inter-coder agreement (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The agreement was based on whether the same codes were used for 10% of the sample. Calculations indicated agreement rates at 100% for error types, 90% for CF types, and 90% for uptake types. Miles and Huberman (1994) recommend that agreement rates should be at least 80% for good qualitative reliability.

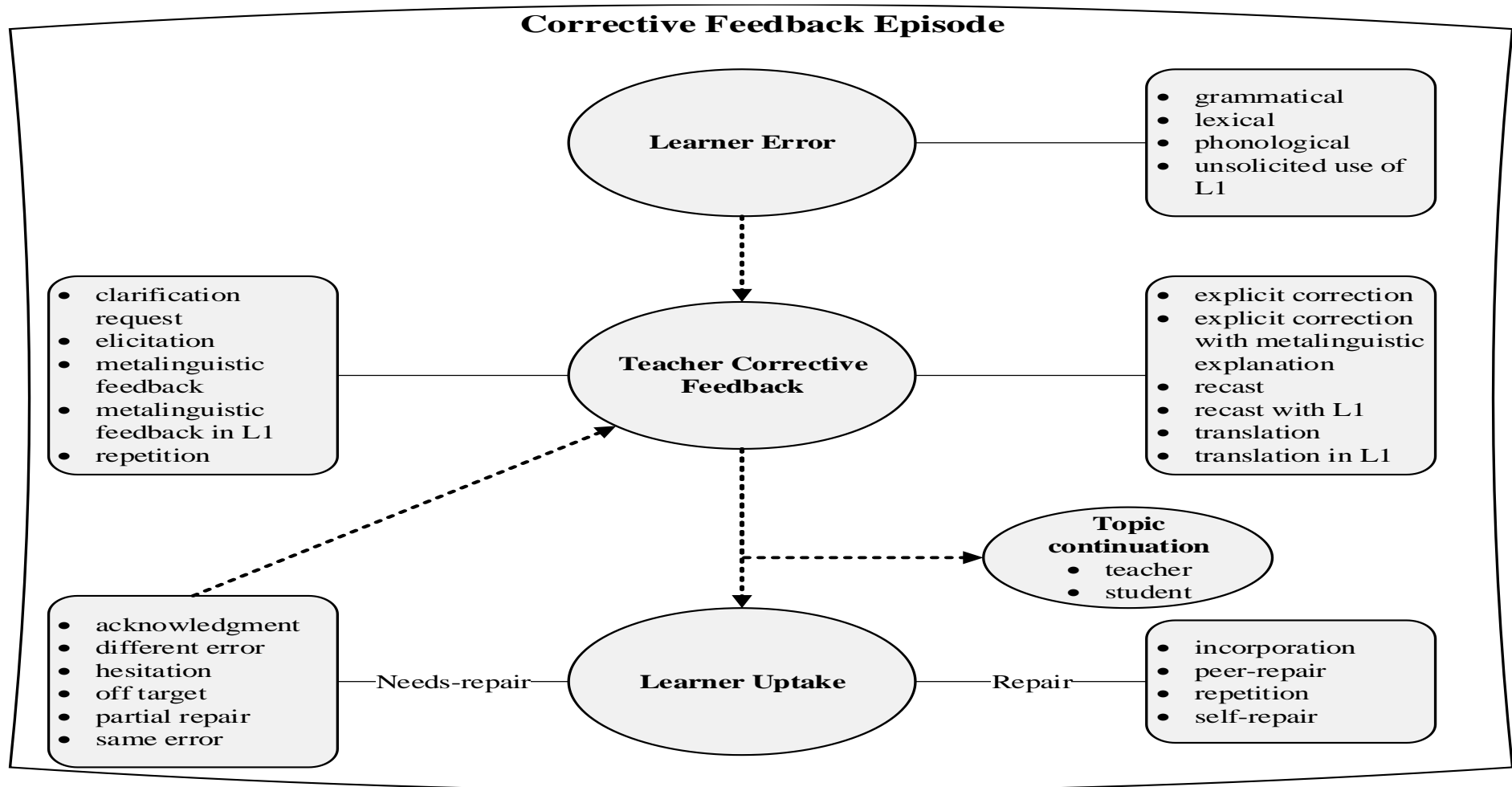


Figure 3. 3: Representation of a CF episode adapted from Lyster & Ranta's (1997, p. 44) error treatment sequence

3.4.6.1 Error types

Lyster's (1998) model comprising four main error types was used as the basic analytical framework for error coding, but it was amended to fit the current data. According to this model, there are four main error categories: grammatical, phonological, lexical, and unsolicited uses of the first language (L1).

Grammatical errors refer to erroneous uses of lexical items that belong to closed classes such as determiners, prepositions, and pronouns. Additionally, grammatical errors represent grammatical gender, tense, verb morphology, subject/verb agreement, pluralisation, negation, question formation, relativization, and word order. **Example 1** below indicates a grammatical error:

Example 1 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: In the first picture you can see a woman that we protect the beach (error: grammatical: verb morphology)

T: that protects (CF: recast ~ reformulation)

S: that protects the beach (uptake: incorporation)

With regard to *lexical* errors, Lyster's (1998) model, encompasses inaccurate, imprecise, or inappropriate choice of open class lexis i.e. nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives. Moreover, it includes non-target derivations of these open class words, involving improper use of prefixes and suffixes. In **Example 2**, the teacher corrected the student's improper use of a comparative adverb.

Example 2 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: I think the more intelligent man in the world (error: lexical)

T: the most (CF: recast ~ reformulation)

S: the most intelligent man in the world is Steven Hawking (uptake: incorporation)

Continuing with *phonological* errors, I used some of Lyster's (1998) classifications: decoding errors that students produced while reading aloud, and mispronunciations

relating to additions or omissions of obligatory elements. Lyster's framework was based on English students of L2 French, whereas the current sample was based on Greek-Cypriot students of L2 English. Therefore Lyster's mispronunciations due to particularities of the French system were revised to particularities of the Cypriot-Greek (CG) system. Moreover, I added the influence of Greek/CG lexis in mispronunciations. Additional types that were implemented as part of the coding scheme included mispronunciations relating to improper stressed syllables in monosyllabic or polysyllabic words, as well as mispronunciations relating to the quality of vowel and consonant sounds (Ashby & Maidment, 2005; Cruttenden, 2008).

Example 3 includes a mispronunciation of the word 'reserve' due to improper stressed syllable and inappropriate use of vowel and consonant quality.

Example 3 B1 Proficiency level:

S: /'reserveit/ (error: pronunciation)

T: /ri'zɜ:v/ a table (CF: recast ~ reformulation)

T topic continuation – *αν θέλετε γράψετε το* [write it if you want] (no uptake)

The final category in Lyster's (1998) model of errors is that of the *unsolicited use of L1* as illustrated in **Example 4**. This refers to students' use of the L1, when the L2 was expected and would have been appropriate.

Example 4 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: umm the environment *γύρω τους* [around them] (error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: around them (CF: translation ~ reformulation)

S: around them is a very clean environment with clean air (uptake: incorporation)

3.4.6.2 CF types

Lyster and Ranta's (1997, 2007) CF type classifications were used as the predetermined codes. The emergent CF types that were identified in the naturalistic data included *metalinguistic feedback in L1*, *recast with L1*, and *translation in L1*. These were

incorporated in the coding scheme of the oral data alongside *clarification request*, *elicitation*, *explicit correction*, *metalinguistic feedback*, *recast*, *repetition*, and *translation*. Table 3.5 presents the predetermined and the emergent codes, as observed in the dataset, under the classification of reformulations and prompts (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). The coding scheme underwent an adjustment process where new values were added, and grouped along with the basic ones (Révész, 2012a).

REFORMULATIONS	PROMPTS
Explicit correction	Clarification Request
Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation	Elicitation
Recast	Metalinguistic feedback
Recast with L1 (emergent)	Metalinguistic feedback in L1 (emergent)
Translation	Repetition
	Translation in L1 (emergent)

Table 3. 5: Coding scheme of CF types

Following Lyster and Ranta (2007) CF types were grouped under the labels of *reformulations* and *prompts*. Reformulations included explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, recast, recast with L1, translation, and translation in L1, because they supplied students with target reformulations of their non-target output. Prompts included clarification request, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and repetition, because they pushed learners to self-repair, and they did not provide target reformulations of students' non-target output. CF types are described below and are accompanied by examples.

Recast refers to the correct reformulation of all or a part of a student's utterance minus the error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In **Example 5**, the teacher provided a target-like reformulation of the student's incorrect phonological error, without modifying the meaning of the erroneous utterance.

Example 5 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: I could have /ɪn'stru:/ (error: phonological)

T: I could have /ɪntrə'dju:st/ you (CF: recast)

S: /ɪntrə'dju:st/ you to my boyfriend if you had arrived a bit earlier (uptake: incorporation)

Translation is a target-like reformulation of an erroneous utterance, and it is provided in response to a student's use of L1. In Lyster and Ranta's (1997) unit of analysis, translation was treated as a recast due to its infrequent occurrence, and because it was viewed as serving the function of a recast. However, translation was treated as a distinct category during initial identifications of CF types (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), and there seems to be a relevant difference between the two types. In particular, recast is a response to an ill-formed utterance in the L2, whereas translation is a response to a well-formed utterance in the L1 (Lyster & Panova, 2002). Thus, in the current coding scheme, translation was treated as a separate CF type, as illustrated in **Example 6**.

Example 6 (B1 proficiency level):

S: the factories that *μολύνουν* [pollute] (error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: pollute (CF: translation)

S: pollute the planet (uptake: incorporation)

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) decision to treat translation as a separate CF value based on frequency matters influenced my decisions on whether to code certain values as 'new'. My decisions were partly based on frequency matters. In some instances, CF types were identified as having different characteristics compared to their original descriptions. However, depending on their frequency, I decided whether to add them to a predetermined value, or to create a new separate category.

One of the CF types that emerged from the oral data and therefore qualified as 'new' was the use of *recast with L1*. This CF type contained the reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance like a recast, along with its differing values in terms of length, mode, and scope, accompanied by the L1 translation of the reformulation. Concerning the distinction between reformulations and prompts, recast with L1 was grouped within the category of reformulations, because it included a prompt via the use of the L1, but it also contained a target-like reformulation of the erroneous utterance in English due to the

recast. Such a situation appeared to be comparable to another CF type, that of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, which was comprised by a reformulation and a prompt. Considering that explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation was placed within the category of reformulations by Ranta and Lyster (2007), it seemed rational for recast with L1 to appear there as well. **Example 7** indicates an example of a recast with L1, following a pronunciation error.

Example 7 (B1 proficiency level):

S: experts say that /'loter/ (laughter) (error: pronunciation)

T: /'lɑ:f.tə/ (laughter) *to γέλιο* [laughter] (CF: recast + L1 ~ reformulation)

S: 'lɑ:f.tə/ (laughter) also produces chemicals that help you to stay healthy so the next time... (uptake: incorporation)

Another emergent CF type was *translation in L1*. CG was shared by the teachers and all of the students in the class, and the teachers were found to: translate an erroneous word, phrase, or utterance, and/ or to translate or to define the expected by the student correct word, phrase, or utterance, either in a declarative, or in an interrogative mode; all in an attempt to prompt the student to produce the correct form. *Translation in L1* was grouped along prompts, because although it might seem like it was the reverse of *translation*, in fact, it was different in terms of function. Contrary to translation (**Example 6**), it did not provide a target-like reformulation of an erroneous utterance in English. Therefore, it acted as a prompt which aimed for the learner to self-correct. **Example 8** is *translation in L1* following a student's lexical error.

Example 8 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: we need to be at the airport by midday tomorrow if we take off (error: grammatical)

T: *να απογειωθούμε;* [to take off?] (CF: L1-CG ~ prompt)

S: set off (uptake: self-repair)

To continue with CF, techniques that were used by the teacher and described Lyster and Ranta's (1997) *metalinguistic feedback* type, which were produced however using the L1, were labelled as *metalinguistic feedback in L1*. These techniques included metalinguistic

explanation in the form of comments, information, or questions pointing to the well-formedness of a students' utterance. Whether it was grammatical metalanguage, metalinguistic information, questions, or a simple 'no', or 'not X', all techniques pointed to the nature of the error, without providing the correct form; thus they paralleled the characteristics of the *metalinguistic feedback* type.

In addition to the above described features, in the current study, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and metalinguistic feedback, included some additional features that emerged in the dataset. Specifically, similar to the use of 'no', phrases such as 'oh oh', 'umm', and 'be careful' indicated to the students that their utterances were erroneous. In addition, metalinguistic comments such as 'change the tense', 'we need double comparative', 'we need an adverb', pointed to the location of the error, and/or informed the learner about the nature of the error, whilst providing information about the actions that were needed on behalf of the student. In all instances, the teacher did not provide the target form.

The features of metalinguistic feedback in L1 paralleled metalinguistic feedback. Therefore, I added this feedback type within the group of prompts. **Example 9** is metalinguistic feedback in response to a learner's lexical error, and **Example 10** is metalinguistic feedback in L1, following a student's grammatical error.

Example 9 (B1+ Proficiency level):

S: mutual (error: lexical)

T: we need a verb (CF: metalinguistic feedback ~ prompt)

S: going strong? (uptake: needs-repair: different error)

T: run to run to run businesses (CF: recast)

T topic continuation – plant vegetables and ...

Example 10 (B1+ Proficiency level):

S: when you will go to the school (error: grammatical)

T: *όχι όχι χρονικός σύνδεσμος (.) μετά θέλει*; [no no time conjunction (.) what does it need afterward?] (CF: metalinguistic feedback in L1~ prompt)

S: when you will go to school or work how your day spends (uptake: needs-repair: same error)

When the teacher provided the correct form along with the above metalanguage, then the CF type was coded as *explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation*, as shown in **Example 11**. While with simple metalinguistic feedback teachers kept the target form, with explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation teachers provided both an explanation and a target form. It is important to note that metalinguistic explanation was provided in the L1 or in the L2. However, due to the fact that explicit correction was provided in the L2, I decided not to separate the category into L1 and L2 versions.

Example 11 (B1+ Proficiency level):

S: the same go for (error: grammatical)

T: *ναι αλλά επειδή έν* [yes but because it's] singular the same goes for which means the same is true for (CF: explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation ~ reformulation)

T topic continuation - *δηλαδή* [namely] let's say that *λέει του η μάμμα του* John [John's mum tells him]... (no uptake)

When the correct form was provided without any sort of metalinguistic explanation, then it was coded as *explicit correction*, another CF type under the classification of reformulations. In **Example 12**, the teacher provided explicit correction after a student's grammatical error.

Example 12 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: if you want to say to you what you must do (error: grammatical)

T: *το σωστό είναι* [the right one is] If I were you I would (CF: explicit correction ~ reformulation)

S: *a ναι* [ah yes] If I were you *ναι* [yes] (uptake: repetition)

Clarification requests indicated to learners that their utterances were incomprehensible, inaccurate, or both. Regardless of whether the teacher's purpose was for the student to repeat or to reformulate the original utterance, phrases such as 'sorry?'/ 'I don't

understand’/‘what?’, ‘what do you mean by X?’ were some of the ways that teachers signalled that students were expected to produce output (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). **Example 13** is a clarification request following a student’s lexical error.

Example 13 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: ...or 50 ok I won't live but if I do kids my kids will live in that year (error: lexical)

T: what do you mean I do kids? (CF: clarification request ~ prompt)

S: *αν κάμω παιδιά εν τα παιδιά που θα ζήσουν* [if I have children they are the ones who will live] (uptake: different error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: if I have children maybe do kids is a Greek phrase (CF: explicit correction + metalinguistic explanation ~ reformulation)

To continue, according to Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) framework, *elicitation* includes at least three different techniques which aim for the direct elicitation of the correct form from the student. Firstly, when the teacher leaves an intentional blank and allows the student to complete the utterance by filling the gap. Secondly, when the teacher asks the student an open-ended question (usually a wh-question), and thirdly, when the teacher requests the student to reformulate their original utterance. **Example 14** is part of a longer episode which included an elicitation in response to a student’s grammatical error. Although the teacher’s move to elicit completion was preceded by a metalinguistic comment: ‘and the third column’- pointing to verb morphology, following Lyster and Ranta (1997), when within the same turn metalinguistic comments were provided in combination to elicitation strategies, they were coded as elicitation, due to the direct stimulation given to the students to provide the correct form.

Example 14 (B1+ Proficiency level):

S: you wouldn't have enjoy (error: grammatical)

T: enjoyed *και τρίτη στήλη*; [and the third column?] If you? (CF: elicitation ~ prompt)

S: were (uptake: different error: grammatical)

A teacher’s *repetition* of the erroneous part of a student’s utterance in isolation, typically with a change in intonation aimed to highlight the location of the error (Lyster & Ranta,

1997). As part of a longer CF episode, **Example 15** illustrates a repetition following a student's grammatical error.

Example 15 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: If I will came (error: grammatical)

T: will came (CF: repetition ~ prompt)

S: If I will come (uptake: different error: grammatical)

3.4.6.3 Uptake types

Following the presentation of error types and CF types, it is now time to move on to another important aspect of a CF episode, the uptake moves. The student's utterance immediately following the teacher's CF was coded as an uptake. According to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) uptake taxonomy, a student's modified output could either be a successful *repair* of the erroneous utterance, or an utterance that still *needs-repair*, and there are different types within these two categories. The different types of repair were: a *repetition* of the teacher's feedback, an *incorporation* of the teacher's utterance into a longer one, a *self-repair* when the student corrects himself, or a *peer-repair*. On the contrary, the different types of *needs-repair* were: an *acknowledgment* of the teacher's feedback, *same error*, *different error*, an *off target* utterance that avoids the teacher's linguistic focus, a *hesitation*, or a *partial repair*. These identifications were applied to the current sample, therefore as per the presentation of previous elements of the CF episode, examples from the oral data are provided for each type of uptake below.

To begin with the category of *repair*, **Example 16** demonstrates a student's *repetition* of a teacher's CF which included the corrected form.

Example 16 (B1+ Proficiency level):

S: ... and do something for themselves (error: grammatical)

T: for themselves (CF: recast ~ reformulation)

S: for themselves (uptake: repetition)

Concerning the pattern of error coding in relation to repetition, when a student's uptake contained a repetition of the linguistic focus of the teacher's feedback, irrespective of

additional errors, the student's uptake was coded as a repetition. However, the uptake containing the additional error which was coded as a repetition, was also coded within a separate episode as the trigger, namely the error type in the separate episode, followed naturally by a CF type and an optional uptake.

Incorporation referred to a student's repetition of a teacher's corrected form, which was incorporated into a longer utterance as indicated in **Example 17**.

Example 17 (B1+ Proficiency level):

S: and also they believe that they will be more socializing with people (error: lexical)

T: they'll be more more sociable (CF: recast ~ reformulation)

S: sociable with people when smoking (uptake: incorporation)

Self-repair occurred when the student who made an error, self-corrected, in response to a teacher's CF that did not provide the correct form. This is presented in **Example 18**.

Example 18 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: container (error: lexical)

T: it's 40 grams (CF: metalinguistic feedback)

S: oh the weight (uptake: self-repair)

Peer-repair occurred when in response to a teacher's CF following a student's error, the corrected form came from a different student. In **Example 19**, following the teacher's CF in response to a student's error, another student was able to provide the correct form.

Example 19 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: I will get Tom looked the dog while we are away (error: grammatical)

T: *έτσι λέει ο κανόνας*; [is that what the rule says?](CF: metalinguistic feedback in L1 ~ prompt)

S2: to look (uptake: peer-repair)

Moving on to the category of *needs-repair*, one of the six types was *acknowledgment*. This uptake type generally referred to a student's 'yes' that was taken to mean 'yes that is what I meant to say', as it was likely to be the case in **Example 20**, or to a student's 'yes' or 'no' following a teacher's metalinguistic feedback.

Example 20 (B2 Proficiency level):

S: as teacher to learn the students (error: lexical)

T: to teach them (CF: recast ~ reformulation)

S: yes (uptake: acknowledgment)

Same error included a repetition of a student's initial error. As indicated in **Example 21**, Student 1 repeated the same type of error after the teacher's CF.

Example 21 (B1 Proficiency level):

S1: one thousand nine eight

T: *πως είπαμε οτι χωρίζουμε τις ημερομηνίες;* [how did we say that we split the dates?]
(CF: metalinguistic in L1 ~ prompt)

S1: one thousand (uptake: same error)

T: *οι σε δύο μέρη* [no in two parts] (CF: metalinguistic in L1 ~ prompt)

S2: nineteen eighty-seven (uptake: peer-repair)

Contrary to **Example 21**, *different error* occurred when a student did not correct or repeat an initial error, but produced a new one. As illustrated in **Example 22**, the student initially produced a phonological error, and then, a different phonological error.

Example 22 (B1 Proficiency level):

S: low fat milk /'jʌgʌrt/ (error: phonological)

T: /'jɒgərt/ (CF: recast)

S: and /hʊl/ (uptake: different error)

T: /həʊl/ wheat bread *ψωμί ολικής αλέσεως* [whole wheat bread] (CF: recast with L1) ~ reformulation)

T topic continuation - so in order to reduce stress... (no uptake)

There was also the case when a student appeared uncertain of what to respond to a teacher's feedback, and this was coded as a *hesitation*. **Example 23** suggests uncertainty on behalf of the student.

Example 23 (B1 Proficiency level):

S...because we want the planet umm *ψάχνω τη λέξη διοξείδιο του άνθρακα* [I'm looking for the word carbon dioxide] (error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: that's a different word carbon dioxide (CF: explicit correction)

S: because we want to (pause) (uptake: hesitation)

T: reduce

Lastly, *partial repair* referred to uptake that contained partial correction of the initial error, as illustrated in **Example 24**.

Example 24 (B1 Proficiency level):

T: found (error: grammatical)

S: past? Past? *Αόριστος* [past simple] (CF: metalinguistic feedback)

T: ed (uptake: partial repair)

At this point it is important to note that I also broke down the needs-repair category into *modified output* and *unmodified output*, based on students' efforts to modify their erroneous utterances. Following Swain (1995), I considered modified output as any type of uptake in which students attempted to modify their initial non-target utterances. Hence, as Table 3.6 shows, I coded as modified output the uptake types which were non-target-like but encompassed students' efforts to modify their erroneous utterances: different error and partial error. Accordingly, I coded as unmodified output, the uptake types which did not incorporate students' efforts to modify their initial non-target forms: acknowledgment, hesitation, off target, and same error. The focus of this breakdown was

on the students' efforts to alternate their original erroneous forms, regardless of the fact that their turns were incorrect.

Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output
self-repair	different error	acknowledgment
incorporation	partial error	hesitation
repetition	-	off target
-	-	same error

Table 3. 6: Uptake types classified as repair, and needs-repair: modified, and unmodified

In this section, I described how the audio-recorded interaction data were firstly transformed into a written document via selective transcription, and then, the transcribed data were manually coded. In the next section, I illustrate how the codes were 'extracted' from their environment: the CF episode, in order to be used in a process of quantitative analysis which involved the operation of statistical techniques (Friedman, 2012).

3.4.7 First round of coding: Quantitative analysis

As stated earlier, in order to answer Research Question 2, I performed both quantitative and qualitative procedures of analysis. The mixed data analysis process is indicated in Figure 3.4. Firstly, in order to perform quantitative analysis on the qualitative oral data, the qualitative codes underwent the process of 'quantitizing', since they were transformed into numerical data (Sandelowski, 2011). Once more, the levels of measurement of variables determined the choice of the statistical tests. Therefore, considering that this time I had to work with categorical variables, I performed tests which were appropriate for measuring variables at the nominal level (Connor-Linton, 2010). The statistical analysis was operated in Microsoft Excel, where I performed manual equations of the relevant statistical tests. In particular, I performed descriptive statistics, chi-square tests for goodness of fit, and chi-square tests for independence.

Mixed-data analysis

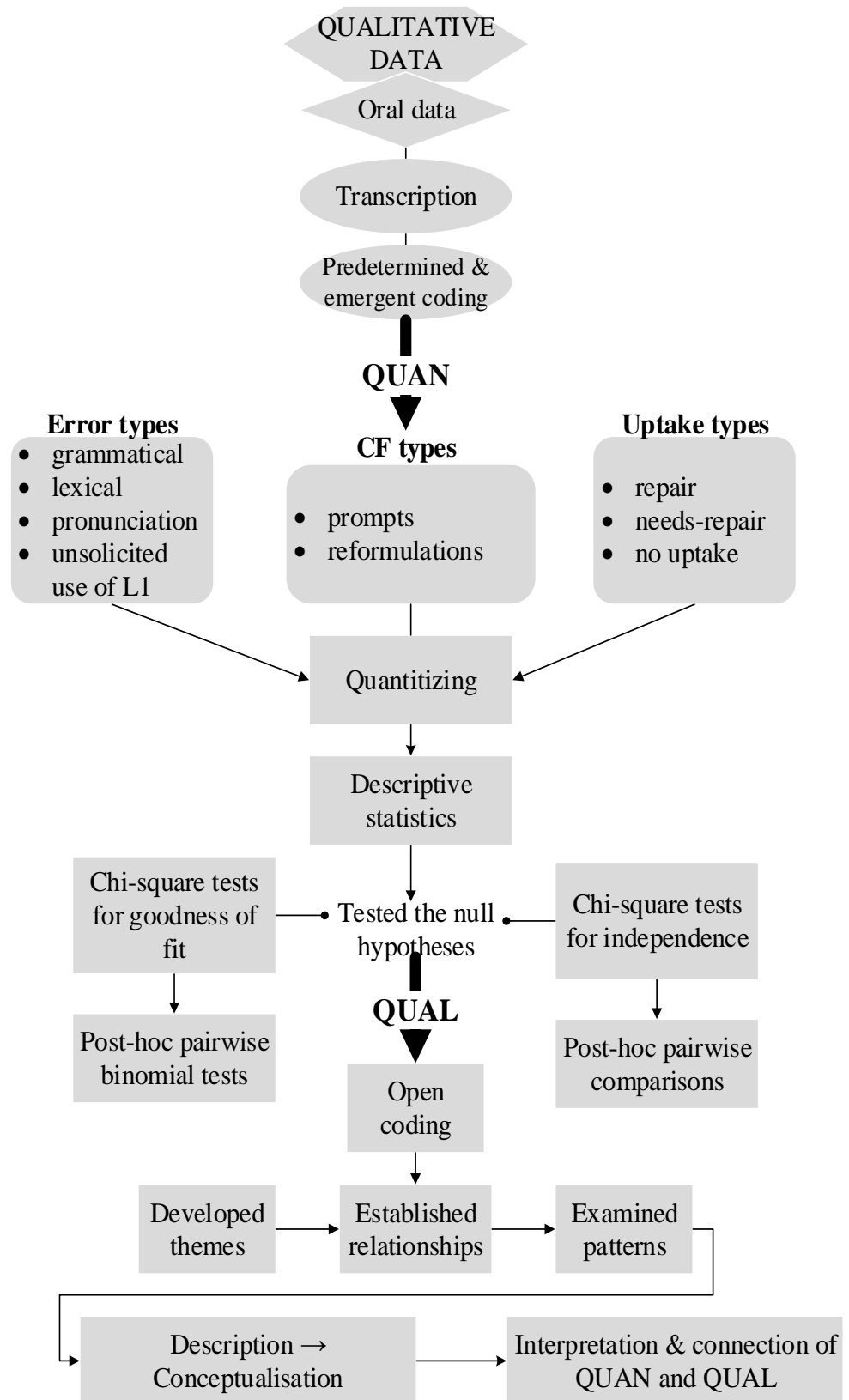


Figure 3. 4: Mixed-data analysis procedures

The first step in the quantitative analysis of the oral data involved the operation of descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics were performed for all of the elements of CF episodes to present a general picture of the distribution and frequency of single variables, namely types of error, CF, and uptake, across the sample. Descriptive statistics served as a building block, since the outcome was a summary of the overall picture of the data sample (Salkind, 2010).

Next, I performed chi-square tests for goodness of fit to test the significance of the distribution of the sample. The assumptions for the chi-square tests were met by the current sample. In particular, for each of the chi-square for goodness of fit test, there was one categorical variable, independence of observations, and the expected frequency of each categorical variable was at least five in each group (Pallant, 2011). Thus, I tested the nature of the distributions, for distinct variables, as expressed in the following *null hypothesis*: $H_o = O_i = E_i$, i.e. there was an equal number of values for each variable type distributed across the dataset. The null hypothesis was tested as opposite to the *alternative hypothesis*: $H_a = O_i \neq E_i$, i.e. values of variable types were not equally distributed in the dataset. With an *alpha level* (α) of .05, the results were tested for probability levels to assess the power of the test. Statistical significance denoted that the result did not simply occur in the particular sample by chance. Therefore, if *p value* $< a$, then the null hypothesis was rejected, in favour of the alternative hypothesis, and vice versa if *p value* $> a$, then the null hypothesis was not rejected (Rumsey, 2010).

In addition, I performed post-hoc pairwise binomial tests after the chi-square tests to determine which of the categories were significantly different. I applied the Bonferroni correction to deal with Type I error. Therefore, the significance level for each post-hoc test was adjusted based on the number of tests that were performed for specific categories (Pallant, 2011). For example, if six tests were performed as part of a post-hoc test, then the adjusted significance level would be .008, rather than .05.

Furthermore, I explored the relations between the components of CF episodes, and specifically, the success of CF types in terms of uptake. In particular, chi-square tests for independence were performed for two-way contingency tables to test the relations between errors and CF, and CF and uptake (Connor-Linton, 2010). The assumptions for

the chi-square test for independence were met by the current sample. Specifically, there were two variables at the categorical level i.e. error types and CF types, or CF types and uptake types, there was independence of observations, and the sampling was cross sectional (Pallant, 2011). The *null hypothesis: $H_o = no\ association/dependency\ between\ k\ classifications$* , supported the claim that there was no relationship between the variables. This was tested in contrast to the *alternative hypothesis: $H_a = there\ is\ association/dependency\ between\ k\ classifications$* , which supported the claim that there was a relationship between the variables. Once again, with an *alpha level (α)* of .05, the probability value of the chi-square test revealed the degree of power of the statistical significance of the test (Rumsey, 2010).

Furthermore, I performed post-hoc pairwise comparisons after the overall chi-square tests to determine which of the categories were significantly different. I applied the Bonferroni correction to deal with Type I error. Therefore, as specified earlier, the significance level for each post-hoc test was adjusted based on the number of tests that were performed for specific categories (Pallant, 2011).

The quantitative findings of the oral classroom data which tested the distribution of the different elements of CF episodes, and the relations between them, were followed by a form of qualitative analysis. Adopting an explanatory sequential analysis design, I followed-up with qualitative analysis in order to interpret and to explain the quantitative outcomes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3.4.8 Second round of coding: Qualitative analysis

At this stage, I tried to understand specific quantitative outcomes in relation to the success of CF, therefore I performed qualitative analysis seeking to increase interpretability, meaningfulness, and validity of the initial quantitative outcomes (Greene et al., 1989). The goal of qualitative data analysis is to discover emerging themes, patterns, concepts, insights, and understandings (Patton, 2002).

At this stage, the qualitative data were already coded for concept-driven codes (error types, CF types, and uptake types) based on specific taxonomies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997;

Lyster, 1998; Ranta & Lyster, 2007), and for certain data-driven codes based on emergent CF types. The qualitative analysis was conducted in ATLAS.ti 8, which is a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS). The reason I used this software was because it helped me to organise the data, and to search within the codes. To be specific, since I was interested in explaining specific outcomes, I needed to have specific chunks of data together. This software allowed me to locate all instances coded with the same code, facilitating my attempts to understand the data.

I started off with open coding, in order to prepare the data for analysis. Specifically, I assigned once again all of the predetermined and emergent codes for: errors, CF, and uptake types, from the first round of coding, in the data document in the ATLAS.ti software (Appendix J is a screenshot of ATLAS.ti). Secondly, based on the quantitative outcomes, I identified specific results for follow-up analysis, namely results that I tried to interpret. The identified outcomes that needed explanation related to specific categories and codes, and to relations between them (e.g. category: CF types, code: recast, in relation to category: uptake types, code: no uptake). Hence, I started studying the specific CF episodes that comprised the codes that I was interested in. By searching through the episodes, new codes emerged. These new codes helped explain and find the meaning behind the quantitative outcomes, because they were the road for the discovery of themes, namely of patterns in the data, emerging from specific categories and codes (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009; King & Horrocks, 2010). It is important to note that in identifying themes, the frequency of their occurrence was important, because those patterns that appeared frequently and with greater clarity seemed more notable (Kelle, 2004; Suter, 2012).

Approaching the data in qualitative inquiry, inherently involved searching ‘deeper’ into the picture of quantitative outcomes (Baralt, 2012). As a result, three different major themes emerged: *praise*, *long CF episodes*, and *peer-repair as feedback*, and some of these included subthemes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The major themes emerged out of different ideas, and one theme uncovered the hint of a new one. To be specific, the theme of *praise* emerged while searching for explanations in relation to the absence of uptake after recast, considering that it was the most frequent CF type, and it scored high on learner uptake and repair. Moreover, *long CF episodes* came into view when I looked

more closely at metalinguistic feedback, which was the most frequent prompt. Finally, while observing the theme of long CF episodes, *peer-repair as feedback* became apparent.

To test the strength of the emergent themes, I performed negative case analysis. Negative cases are instances in a dataset that challenge the key themes that emerge (Schwandt, 2007). When such contradictory evidence were found, which challenged the general perspective of a theme, I studied those cases carefully, in order to understand whether they made the emergent themes weak. Where relevant, I discussed the contrary information in the findings, to add to the credibility of my findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Moreover, I performed intra-coder reliability statistics to check that I assigned the same categories to the same data on different occasions (Révész, 2012a). With respect to praise, I double checked the relevant recast episodes and the agreement rate was at 95%. Only the coding of one episode differed between the first and the second time of the coding process. Specifically, one less episode was coded within the praise theme during the second time of the coding process. Regarding long CF episodes and peer-repair, agreement rates were at 100% between the first and the second time of coding.

3.4.9 Mixed data sources

Research Question 3 investigated the success of CF based on uptake, in relation to students' attitudes towards feedback types, and other individual differences: motivation variables and personality traits. In order to conduct such an investigation, both the student questionnaire and the naturalistic classroom data were used as information sources. The data from the questionnaires and from the uptake performances were taken from the same students, the ones who participated in the observations. By doing so, I approached the naturalistic data from two different perspectives compared to Research Question 2, when the oral data were approached as a whole.

To illustrate, firstly, I analysed manually the students' responses on their questionnaires, in order to find their scores on the individual difference concepts, as well as their attitudes towards the different CF types. Secondly, based on the outcomes, I found the students who shared the individual difference characteristics that were significantly associated with positive attitudes towards specific CF types as part of the findings of Research

Question 1. Third, I performed descriptive statistics to find the students' uptake performances in response to the specific feedback types. The quality of students' uptake turns were based on the classification of repair, modified output, and unmodified output that I presented earlier (3.4.6.3 Uptake types). The goal was to discover whether the individual difference concepts which explained students' positive attitudes towards specific CF types in the large sample, also influenced students' uptake performances in naturalistic settings.

The next breakdown of the data involved discovering the relationship between single students' attitudes and the success of CF types. Thus, I focused on single students' uptake, and specifically to the relation between each student's attitudes and CF success. Therefore, I calculated every single student's attitudes towards CF types, and other error-related issues from the questionnaire, and I searched for the relation between attitudes and success of CF.

The data analysis for this breakdown involved both quantitative and qualitative procedures, following an explanatory sequential design. Firstly, I performed descriptive statistics to find single students' performances in response to all the different CF types that they received as part of their teachers' feedback. Then, I discovered relations between their attitudes towards CF types, and other error-related issues and the quality of their uptake. Once again, students' uptake turns were classified within the categories of repair, modified, and unmodified output. The quantitative analysis was followed by a qualitative analysis, as I attempted to discover patterns across students' performances, in order to verify the relations between attitudes and good uptake performance, and/or to find other characteristics in the data that explained the successful or unsuccessful CF types. Once more, I started the qualitative analysis based on identified results from the quantitative analysis, searched and researched the relevant CF episodes in the ATLAS.ti software, and identified specific patterns that were recurrent across different students' performances.

3.5 Validity, reliability, and generalisability

The present mixed methods study involved the use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The concepts of validity and reliability appear to be addressed differently when using quantitative methods and when using qualitative methods. Therefore, in this section, I describe the validity, reliability and generalisability strategies that I employed for the quantitative methods. In the next section, I focus on the qualitative methods.

Validity refers to the extent that the measure indeed measures what it is intended to (Polio, 2012). Validity in quantitative research refers to the extent that one can draw meaningful inferences from the scores of an instrument (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). To maximize the validity of factual survey data it is essential to write questions that will be consistently understood by all responders (Fowler, 2014). Face validity deals with the familiarity of the instruments (Mackey & Gass, 2005). I designed the questionnaire in nominal and continuous scales in the format of multiple choice, yes/no, and agreement scales to target students' familiarity with such layouts.

With respect to content validity, it was partly established from the literature I drew from while designing the questionnaire. The contents of the items in the instrument were based on relevant theoretical literature, and previous studies, in order to ensure that the assessed variables measured true values. This also helped to increase generalisability and comparability of the findings across studies (Révész, 2012a).

Reliability refers to the consistency of what is measured (Polio, 2012), namely of consistency across different researchers and projects (Gibbs, 2007). Creswell & Creswell, (2018) claim that the most important form of reliability for multi-item instruments is the instrument's internal consistency. Therefore, I performed reliability tests to check the internal consistency of the scales which acted as the independent variables in several tests. I quantified the internal consistency of the scales using the Cronbach's alpha (α) values (Pallant, 2011).

Generalisability refers to the process of generalising quantitative findings from a sample to a population (Muijs, 2011). I collected data from a sample of Greek-Cypriot EFL

learners in order to generalise the findings to the relevant population of Greek-Cypriot EFL learners. I used hypothesis testing (null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis), by calculating alpha (α) values that showed the probability of outcomes as statistically significant, denoting that they did not simply occur in the particular sample by chance (Rumsey, 2010). I also tried to minimise the chances of making both Type I and Type II errors. To be specific, firstly, the size of the quantitative samples fulfilled the assumptions of the statistical tests that I performed. Adequate sample sizes helped to minimize the chance of making both Type I and Type II errors. Furthermore, in order to control for Type I error, I applied the Bonferroni correction when I performed multiple tests on the same sample of data, as for example when I performed the post-hoc tests.

With respect to validity of follow-up qualitative analysis, as explained earlier, in order to answer Research Question 3, I followed an explanatory sequential analysis design. In explaining the quantitative results in more depth, I selected the qualitative sample from individuals who participated in the quantitative sample. The data came from the same learners in order to maximize the validity of one phase explaining the other (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3.6 Trustworthiness

The concepts of validity, reliability, and generalisability appear to be addressed differently in qualitative research compared to quantitative research. Lincoln and Guba (1985) developed alternative criteria to address the trustworthiness of qualitative research and these are credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability.

Credibility is an alternative to internal validity. It is concerned with establishing that interpretations clearly derive from the data, therefore the aspect of neutrality is relevant here (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To add to the credibility of my findings, I performed negative case analysis. I provided cases that run counter to the emergent themes where relevant to illustrate the credibility of the themes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Transferability is an alternative to generalisability. It is concerned with the degree that findings can be transferred to other contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To address

transferability, I provided rich, thick description of the qualitative findings. Moreover, I provided detailed descriptions for both data collection and data analysis procedures, in order to help the readers to decide the applicability of the current study's findings to similar settings. With regards to error and CF type coding, the basis of the frameworks that I followed were used in other studies as well, and this helped increase the comparability of findings across studies. However, it is not necessarily the case that when a coding scheme is valid for one study, it is also valid for a different one (Révész, 2012a). Thus, it seemed important to assess the suitability of the coding scheme for the current setting. As a result, I amended the CF framework slightly in order to fit the current naturalistic classroom dataset.

Dependability is an alternative to reliability. It concerns the stability of findings over time (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To address dependability, I ensured that all definitions of the coding categories were clearly worded and were accompanied by examples. Moreover, I checked the transcriptions of the oral data several times to make sure that they did not contain mistakes. I listened to the recordings more than once, to ensure that the selective transcriptions of the CF episodes were indeed accurate. Furthermore, I checked for the accuracy of findings by cross-checking my coding for the open coding of errors, CF, and uptake, with another researcher (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Inter-coder agreement rates of the coding were acceptable. In addition, I performed intra-coder reliability statistics for the qualitative coding which were also satisfactory.

Lastly, conformability is an alternative to objectivity, and it is concerned with establishing that interpretations are not inventions of the inquirer, but they clearly derive from the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I believe that objectivity cannot be truly achieved in both quantitative and qualitative methods, because all processes involve the subjective decisions of the researcher. Nonetheless, to address conformability, I provided a detailed account about the decisions for the emergent codes, as well as about the developments of themes. I also provided an audit trail that allows tracing the steps of the research as well as the decisions that were made.

3.7 Summary

To summarise, in this Chapter I illustrated how I adopted a mixed methods approach to research. Drawing on both quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (oral data) forms of data led to both statistical and text analysis procedures. I used both predetermined and emerging methods, across databases interpretation, and statistical as well as qualitative analysis software, in order to mix data analysis procedures and data sources. In the following Chapter, I present the findings and the discussion of Research Question 1.

4. Findings and discussion: Students' attitudes towards error-related issues, and the relationship between attitudes and other individual differences

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of the present Chapter is to answer Research Question 1 which investigates Greek-Cypriot English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' attitudes towards error-related issues, namely error production and CF, and whether there is a relationship between students' attitudes and other individual difference concepts. In order to answer these, a questionnaire was distributed to 207 Greek-Cypriot EFL student participants. Specifically, the sample comprised 101 males (49%) and 106 females (51%), of ages between 12 to 26 years old. In the following sections, firstly, students' attitudes are described for the sample as a whole, in order to illustrate a general picture of learners' attitudes towards error-related issues, in the context of Cyprus. Then, learners' attitudes are explored in relation to other individual differences in order to demonstrate whether concepts such as age, gender, motivation, and personality traits, influence students' attitudes. Following the quantitative descriptions of learners' stances, the outcomes are discussed. In the end, I summarise the findings of this Chapter.

4.2 Students' attitudes towards error production and CF

In this section, a general picture of Greek-Cypriot EFL students' perceptions towards error production, and their attitudes towards CF is presented. In particular, firstly, learners' perceptions towards error production, and specifically their beliefs about oral and written error production, reasons for producing errors in English, and the role of L1 knowledge in the L2 learning process are described. Secondly, students' attitudes towards CF are presented. In particular, students' beliefs concerning their teachers' use of CF techniques, their affective responses to CF, their attitudes towards the degree of error correction, and towards different CF types are presented.

Descriptive statistics were performed in order to explore students' attitudes towards the above-defined issues. In particular, frequencies and multiple response frequencies were implemented to find the distribution of students' responses on the questionnaire items that represented issues of error production, and CF. Moreover, when applicable, chi-square tests for goodness of fit were performed to test the following *null hypothesis*: $H_o = O_i = E_i$, i.e. students' responses were equally spread across the yes/no options, or the scales of statements. The null hypothesis was tested as opposite to the *alternative hypothesis*: $H_a = O_i \neq E_i$, i.e. students' responses were not equally spread across the yes/no options, or the scales of statements. An *alpha level* (α) of .05 was set as the cutoff of the probability value to test the statistical significance for the chi-square tests (Rumsey, 2010).

4.2.1 Students' attitudes towards error production

In this section, firstly, I describe Greek-Cypriot EFL students' perceptions about oral and written error production. Moreover, I illustrate their attitudes towards reasons for producing errors in English, and then I present their views about the role of the L1 knowledge in the L2 learning process.

4.2.1.1 Oral and written error production

To begin with a general question concerning oral and written error production, the majority of the participants stated that they generally produce both types of errors in English. As indicated in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1, amongst 206 students, slightly more believed that they produce written (85%) rather than oral errors (77%). Chi-square for goodness of fit tested the *null hypothesis*: $H_o = O_i = E_i$ which claimed that students' responses would be equally spread across the yes and no options for these statements. This claim was tested as opposite to the *alternative hypothesis*: $H_a = O_i \neq E_i$, which supported that students' scores would not be equally spread across the two options. Test outcomes showed that there were significant differences in students' beliefs as to whether they produce oral errors, $\chi^2 (1, n = 206) = 60.893, 1, p = .000$, and written errors, $\chi^2 (1, n = 206) = 100.660, p = .000$. Consequently, the proportion of students stating that they produce oral and written errors were significantly higher than those who stated the opposite.

	Produce oral errors <i>n</i> = 206	Produce written errors <i>n</i> = 206
Yes	77%	85%
No	23%	15%

Table 4. 1: Percentage distribution of students' perceptions towards oral and written error production

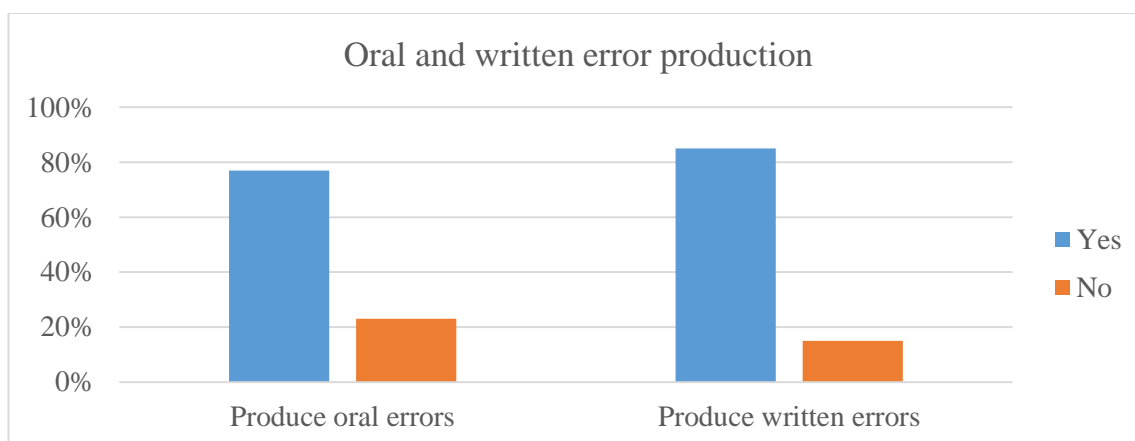


Figure 4. 1: Distribution of students' perceptions towards oral and written error production

4.2.1.2 Reasons for producing errors in English

With regards to reasons for producing errors in English, students selected options from a multiple response list. As illustrated in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2, multiple response frequencies of a total of 304 answers revealed that students appointed the highest percentages to the influence of Standard Modern Greek (SMG) at 26%. Insufficient knowledge of the English language followed with 24%, whereas influence from Cypriot-Greek (CG) achieved the third highest percentage at 16%. Additional reasons for the production of errors included the statement that English is a complicated language (8%), the influence from other languages (7%), students' low motivation (5%), and students' individual differences (5%). Moreover, the learners themselves provided other reasons for producing errors (6%). However, the reasons that they offered did not seem to represent sources of error production. Among the reasons that emerged were the following: the need to practise the skills of speaking and writing, the need to study more, the need to be more careful, and issues relating to learning difficulties. Lastly, the lowest percentage (4%) represented students dismissing all of the reasons provided, including the opportunity to provide a reason for themselves. Chi square tests were not performed

for this question because the distribution of students' answers were measured through a multiple response frequency test, which violates the assumption of independent responses in statistical analysis (Laerd statistics, 2015).

Reasons for producing errors in English ($n = 304$)	
influence from SMG	26%
insufficient knowledge of English	24%
influence from CG	16%
English is complicated	8%
influence from other languages	7%
other reasons	6%
low motivation	5%
individual differences	5%
none of the above	4%

Table 4. 2: Multiple response frequencies of students' beliefs about reasons for producing errors in English

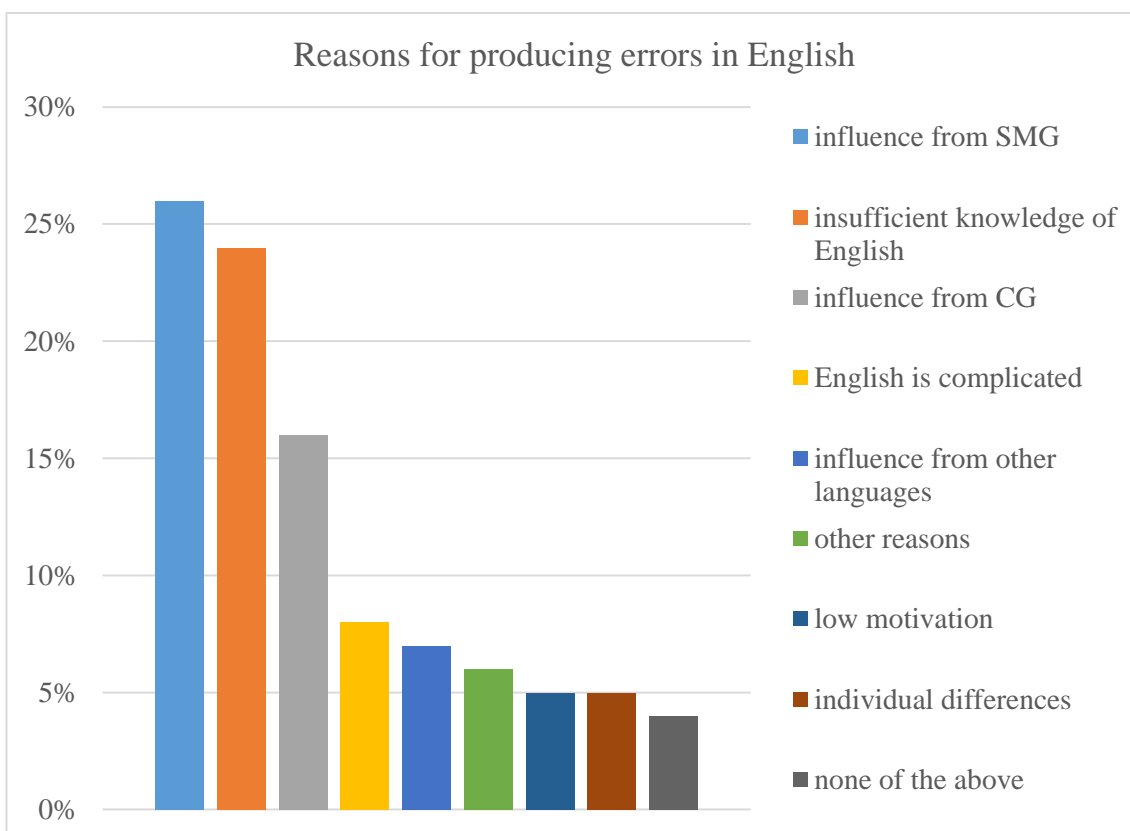


Figure 4. 2: Students' beliefs about reasons for producing errors in English

4.2.1.3 Influence of L1 knowledge

Contrary to the previous findings which placed SMG and CG among the highest chosen reasons for producing errors in English, the picture was different when students were asked whether L1 helps, does not help, or prevents the English learning process. As Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3 indicate, a multiple response frequency test revealed that more than half of the students (56%) believed that L1 knowledge helps the L2 learning process. A third of the total participants (32%) marked the statement that L1 knowledge does not help the L2 learning process, and only 12% viewed L1 knowledge as preventing L2 learning. Chi-square tests were not performed for this question because the distribution of students' answers were measured through a multiple response frequency test. Multiple response frequencies violate the assumption of independent responses in statistical analysis (Laerd statistics, 2015).

Influence of L1 knowledge on the L2 learning process (<i>n</i> = 206)	
helps	56%
does not help	32%
prevents	12%

Table 4. 3: Multiple response frequencies of students' attitudes towards the influence of L1 knowledge on the L2 learning process

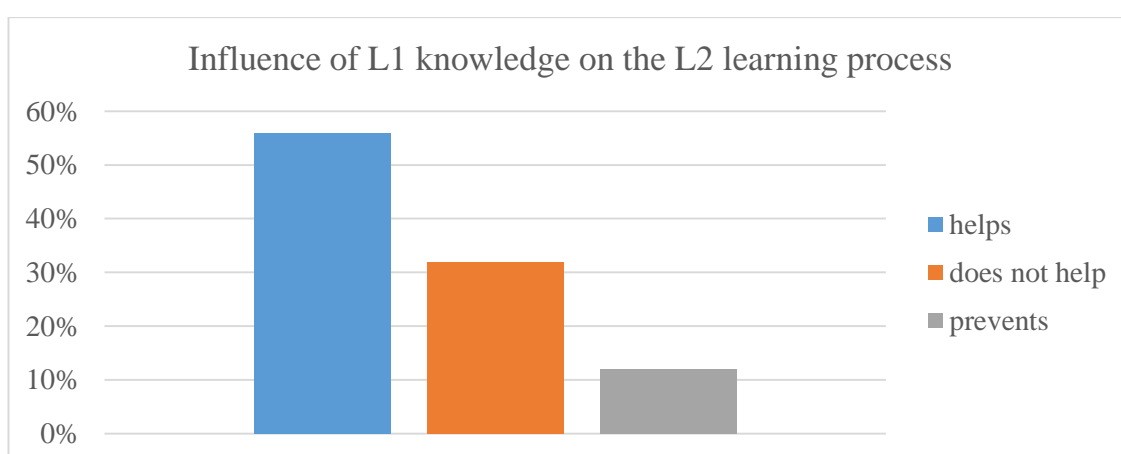


Figure 4. 3: Students' attitudes towards the influence of L1 knowledge on the L2 learning process

4.2.2 Students' attitudes towards CF

The current section provides students' attitudes towards issues related to CF. Firstly, it presents students' beliefs about their teachers' use of CF techniques. Moreover, it describes learners' affective responses to CF, their attitudes towards the degree of error correction, and towards CF types.

4.2.2.1 Students' views concerning teachers' provision of CF types

In order to discover students' views concerning teachers' provision of CF types, students were placed in an imaginary context, where they produced an error due to the influence of their L1 knowledge. They were then asked to indicate which of the provided CF types their teachers tend to use in response to their errors, on a five-point agreement Likert scale. This imaginary context targeted students' familiarity with these types of errors. The idea was based on a wall poster from one of the observation classrooms. The poster referred to L1 transfer errors, namely errors that students tend to do in L2 English that result from L1 negative transfer.

Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4 illustrate multiple response frequencies which revealed that most students believed that their teachers provide explicit correction in response to their errors (27%). Metalinguistic feedback was the second most frequent (18%), followed by elicitation (15%) and repetition (14%). Recast accounted for only 9% alongside clarification request, while paralinguistic signals made up only 6%. A small percentage indicated that their teachers do not provide error correction (3%). Chi square tests were not performed for this question, since students' answers were measured through a multiple response frequency test which violates an assumption of the chi square test.

Teachers' uses of CF types (<i>n</i> = 480)	
explicit correction	27%
metalinguistic feedback	18%
elicitation	15%
repetition	14%
clarification request	9%
recast	9%
paralinguistic signal	6%
no correction	3%

Table 4. 4: Multiple response frequencies of students' beliefs about teachers' uses of CF

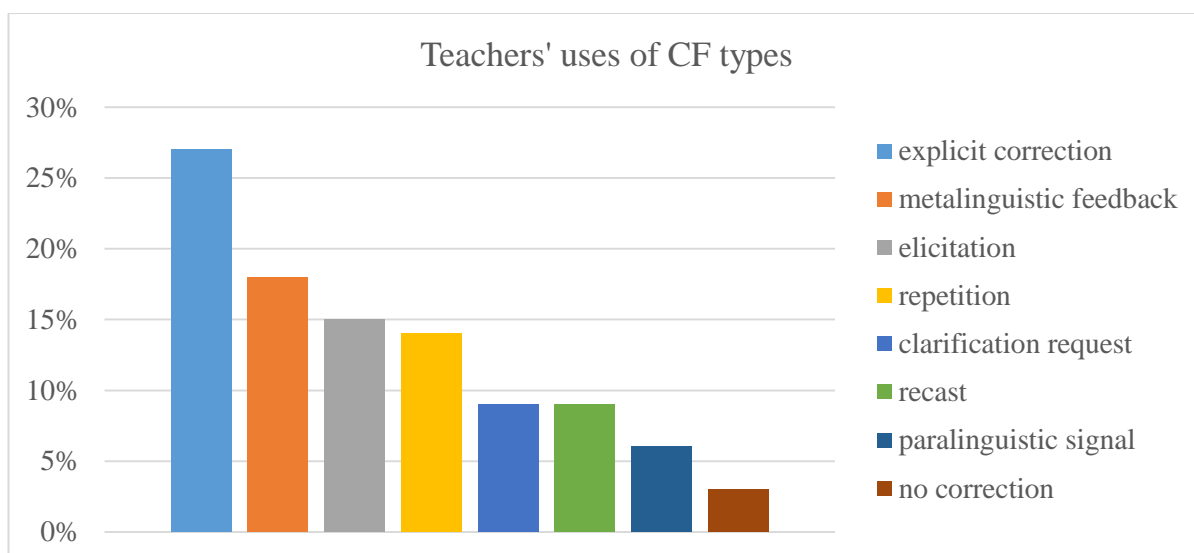


Figure 4. 4: Students' beliefs about teachers' use of CF types

4.2.2.2 Affective responses to teachers' provision of CF

To continue, students' affective responses to teachers' provision of CF were measured through a list of feelings which they rated on a five-point agreement Likert-scale. These items were once again provided in an imaginary context where students produce errors due to the influence of their L1. The idea behind using this imaginary context was as explained above, students' potential familiarity with the subject. Table 4.5 and Figure 4.5 illustrate that students expressed a generally positive attitude towards CF. In particular, 86% of the participants agreed that receiving CF is useful, (42% strongly agreed, 44% agreed), whereas 77% agreed that receiving feedback is positive (43% strongly agreed, 34% agreed). Moreover, 54% agreed that feedback provision is a satisfying process (15% strongly agreed, 39% agreed).

However, students were not equally certain that receiving feedback is encouraging, therefore the highest rates for this were appointed to a neutral stance at 39%, followed by students who agreed at 30%. In addition, two thirds of the total (65%) disagreed that receiving CF is irritating (33% strongly disagreed, 32% disagreed), and 62% disagreed that receiving feedback is embarrassing (33% strongly disagreed, 29% disagreed). Furthermore, 76% disagreed with the statement that they do not pay attention when their teachers provide CF (33% strongly disagreed, 43% disagreed). Lastly, 78% disagreed that receiving CF is a negative process (29% strongly disagreed, 49% disagreed).

Consequently, the results indicated a generally positive attitude towards CF, because the majority of the participants agreed with statements expressing positive feelings, and disagreed with those expressing negative feelings towards CF.

Feelings	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
embarrassing <i>n</i> = 206	3%	9%	28%	33%	29%
encouraging <i>n</i> = 199	20%	30%	39%	4%	3%
irritating <i>n</i> = 200	2%	6%	23%	33%	32%
negative <i>n</i> = 204	4%	3%	14%	29%	49%
no attention <i>n</i> = 204	3%	4%	16%	33%	43%
positive <i>n</i> = 204	43%	34%	17%	1%	3%
satisfying <i>n</i> = 196	15%	39%	33%	5%	3%
useful <i>n</i> = 206	42%	44%	10%	2%	1%

Table 4. 5: Percentage distribution of students' affective responses to the provision of CF

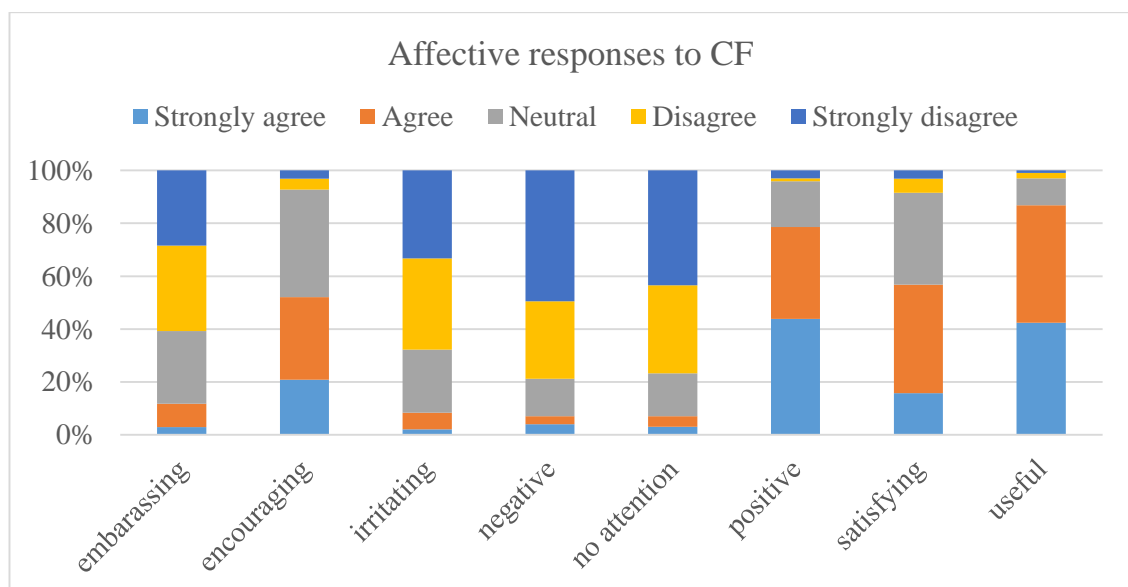


Figure 4. 5: Students' affective responses to CF

Chi-square tests for goodness of fit confirmed that there were statistically significant differences in learners' affective responses to CF. The null hypothesis ($H_o = O_i = E_i$) claiming that students' rates across the Likert scales would be equal was rejected, in favour of the alternative hypothesis ($H_a = O_i \neq E_i$) which stated that students' rates were not equally spread across the Likert scales expressing affective responses to CF provision. Consequently, as indicated in Table 4.6, students' positive attitudes towards CF were highly statistically significant.

embarrassing	$\chi^2 (4, n = 206) = 80.893, p = .000$
encouraging	$\chi^2 (4, n = 199) = 108.362, p = .000$
irritating	$\chi^2 (4, n = 200) = 87.900, p = .000$
negative	$\chi^2 (4, n = 204) = 159.382, p = .000$
no attention	$\chi^2 (4, n = 204) = 132.618, p = .000$
positive	$\chi^2 (4, n = 204) = 142.422, p = .000$
satisfying	$\chi^2 (4, n = 196) = 115.480, p = .000$
useful	$\chi^2 (4, n = 206) = 194.340, p = .000$

Table 4. 6: Statistical significance of affective responses to CF

Post-hoc pairwise binomial tests were performed for all variables in order to test all possible pairs of the response categories. There were five response categories for each variable, thus I performed ten pairwise tests for each variable. Specifically, I tested the following pairs for each variable: strongly agree with agree, strongly agree with neutral, strongly agree with disagree, strongly agree with strongly disagree, agree with neutral, agree with disagree, agree with strongly disagree, neutral with disagree, neutral with strongly disagree, and finally, disagree with strongly disagree. Moreover, I applied the Bonferroni correction to control for Type I error (Pallant, 2011). Hence, the *alpha level* (α) was set to .005.

Pairwise comparisons revealed similar outcomes with respect to finding CF positive or useful. In particular, the only pairs that did not indicate significant difference were those of students who agreed and strongly agreed, and those of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed with these variables. All other pairs were significantly different from one another. In particular, students who agreed or strongly agreed were significantly

higher compared to those who were neutral, disagreed, or strongly disagreed for both variables at $p \leq .001$. Moreover, students who were neutral towards both variables were significantly higher than students who disagreed or strongly disagreed at $p \leq .001$. These outcomes confirm that students who found CF to be positive or useful were significantly higher than those who did not.

Additional similarities in pairwise analyses were those of finding CF encouraging or satisfying. In particular, students who agreed or strongly agreed with these variables were found to be significantly higher than students who disagreed or strongly disagreed at $p \leq .002$. Moreover, students who were neutral towards both variables were significantly higher than those who strongly agreed, or strongly disagreed at $p \leq .001$. These findings indicate that students who found CF to be encouraging or satisfying were significantly higher than those who did not. Nonetheless, students who were neutral towards these variables were significantly higher than those who strongly agreed, or strongly disagreed.

In addition, pairwise comparisons revealed similar outcomes with respect to finding CF embarrassing or irritating. Specifically, students who were neutral, disagreed, or strongly disagreed that CF was embarrassing or irritating, were found to be significantly higher compared to students who agreed or strongly agreed with these variables at $p = .000$. These findings indicate that students who did not express agreement with finding CF embarrassing or irritating were significantly higher than those who did.

Finally, pairwise comparisons revealed similar outcomes in relation to students' agreement rates for finding CF negative, or for not paying attention to their teachers' feedback. To be specific, students who were neutral in response to these variables were significantly higher than those who agreed or strongly agreed at $p \leq .000$ for both variables. In addition, students who disagreed were significantly higher than those who strongly agreed, agreed, or were neutral at $p \leq .002$. Lastly, learners who strongly disagreed in response to both variables were significantly higher compared to those who agreed, strongly agreed, or were neutral at $p = .000$, and compared to those who disagreed for the negative variable at $p = .001$. Such outcomes indicate that the students who did not agree with negative statements towards CF were significantly higher compared to those who agreed or were neutral.

4.2.2.3 Degree of CF provision

ESL/EFL teachers are also called to face questions such as when, how, and what to correct, thus learners' attitudes towards the degree of CF provision were explored. In particular, students were asked to express their attitudes towards five-point Likert-type statements concerning degree of CF, and peer-correction.

Table 4.7 shows that 90% of the students expressed a positive stance towards receiving CF as a response to their oral productions (50% strongly agreed, 40% agreed). Moreover, students held generally positive attitudes towards receiving constant CF. In particular, the majority of the participants (75%) agreed that teachers must correct all oral errors (44% strongly agreed, 35% agreed).

In addition, the greatest amount of participants (61%) disagreed that receiving oral CF makes them feel uneasy (35% strongly disagreed, 26% disagreed). Nonetheless, students' positions towards noticing errors differed slightly between the neutral and disagreement positions. On the one hand, 44% of the participants disagreed that they find it difficult to notice their errors (32% strongly disagreed, 12% disagreed). On the other hand, 40% of the participants did not have a clear opinion as to whether it is difficult for them to notice their errors. Consequently, only a very small proportion of the sample agreed that it is difficult to notice errors.

As far as peer-correction is concerned, the students were equally divided across agreement, a neutral stance, and disagreement. In particular, 34% of the students believed that receiving feedback from classmates is helpful. 33% took a neutral position, and 34% did not find peer-correction useful. Consequently, students' attitudes did not reveal a straightforward representation regarding peer-correction during a lesson.

I want my teacher to correct my errors when I speak English (n = 207)				
Strongly Agree 50%	Agree 40%	Neutral 8%	Disagree 1%	Strongly Disagree 1%
Teachers must correct all of the students' oral errors (n = 207)				
Strongly Agree 44%	Agree 35%	Neutral 15%	Disagree 5%	Strongly Disagree 1%
I feel uneasy when my teacher corrects my errors during an English lesson (n = 207)				
Strongly Agree 6%	Agree 7%	Neutral 27%	Disagree 35%	Strongly Disagree 26%
I find it difficult to notice my mistakes (n = 207)				
Strongly Agree 5%	Agree 12%	Neutral 40%	Disagree 32%	Strongly Disagree 12%
I find it helpful when my classmates correct my errors during an English lesson (n = 207)				
Strongly Agree 10%	Agree 24%	Neutral 33%	Disagree 20%	Strongly Disagree 14%

Table 4. 7: Percentage distribution of students' attitudes towards CF

Chi-square tests for goodness of fit revealed significant differences in learners' attitudes as shown in Table 4.8. Thus, the null hypothesis ($H_o = O_i = E_i$) supporting an equal distribution across the item ranges was rejected, in favor of the alternative hypothesis ($H_a = O_i \neq E_i$), which claimed that students' rates were not equally spread across the items.

I want my teacher to correct my errors when I speak English $\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 222.155, p = .000$
Teachers must correct all of the students' oral errors $\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 148.386, p = .000$
I feel uneasy when my teacher corrects my errors during an English lesson $\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 68.048, p = .000$
I find it difficult to notice my mistakes $\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 89.304, p = .000$
I find it helpful when my classmates correct my errors during an English lesson $\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 33.266, p = .000$

Table 4. 8: Statistical significance of students' attitudes towards CF

Post-hoc pairwise binomial tests were performed for all statements in order to test all possible pairs of the relevant response categories. I performed ten pairwise tests of the following pairs for each statement: strongly agree with agree, strongly agree with neutral, strongly agree with disagree, strongly agree with strongly disagree, agree with neutral, agree with disagree, agree with strongly disagree, neutral with disagree, neutral with strongly disagree, and finally, disagree with strongly disagree. I applied the Bonferroni correction, thus the *alpha level* (α) was set to .005 (Pallant, 2011).

Pairwise comparisons revealed similar outcomes for the following statements: ‘I want my teacher to correct my errors when I speak English’, and ‘Teachers must correct all of the students’ oral errors’. In particular, students who strongly agreed or agreed were significantly higher than students who were neutral, disagreed or strongly disagreed in response to both statements at $p = .000$. Moreover, students who were neutral were significantly higher than students who disagreed or strongly disagreed in response to both statements at $p \leq .004$. These outcomes indicate that in all possible pairs, students who expressed positive attitudes, or were neutral towards CF were significantly higher than those who expressed negative stances.

With respect to the statement ‘I feel uneasy when my teacher corrects my errors during an English lesson’, pairwise analyses revealed that students who were neutral, disagreed, or strongly disagreed were significantly higher than those who strongly agreed or agreed at $p = .000$. Such findings indicate that the students who did not associate CF with feeling uneasy were significantly higher than those who related CF with such a negative feeling.

As for the statement ‘I find it difficult to notice my mistakes’, students who were neutral or disagreed were found to be significantly higher than students who strongly agreed, agreed, or strongly disagreed at $p = .000$. Lastly, pairwise comparisons for the statement ‘I find it helpful when my classmates correct my errors during an English lesson’ showed that only a few pairs were significantly different. Specifically, students who were neutral towards this statement were significantly higher than those who strongly agreed or strongly disagreed. Furthermore, students who agreed were significantly higher than those who strongly agreed at $p = .001$. Such outcomes suggest that students were not clearly in favour or against peer-correction.

In addition to the exploration of students' beliefs towards the amount of CF provision, their preferences concerning the frequency of CF in response to different types of errors were also investigated. Findings indicated that most students were positive towards receiving constant feedback, in response to all of the different types of errors that were presented to them.

Table 4.9 and Figure 4.6 demonstrate that the majority of students expressed positive attitudes towards having their grammatical (52%), pronunciation (42%), lexical errors (46%), and inappropriate cultural phrasing (38%) always corrected. The second highest rates were appointed to the next in line range, namely very often. Likewise, for the remaining ratings, the less frequent the ranking, the less participants were choosing it. Therefore, the rates ranged from the highest to the lowest, for always and never respectively. Furthermore, a very small percentage of the total participants (1% and 4%) expressed that they would never want to have their errors corrected. Hence, it was evident that students indicated a positive stance towards frequent CF provision for different types of errors.

Error types	Always	Very often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
cultural (<i>n</i> = 205)	38%	25%	22%	10%	4%
grammatical (<i>n</i> = 207)	52%	30%	13%	4%	1%
lexical (<i>n</i> = 207)	46%	30%	18%	5%	1%
pronunciation (<i>n</i> = 207)	42%	26%	25%	6%	1%

Table 4. 9: Percentage distribution of students' attitudes towards the degree of CF in response to error types

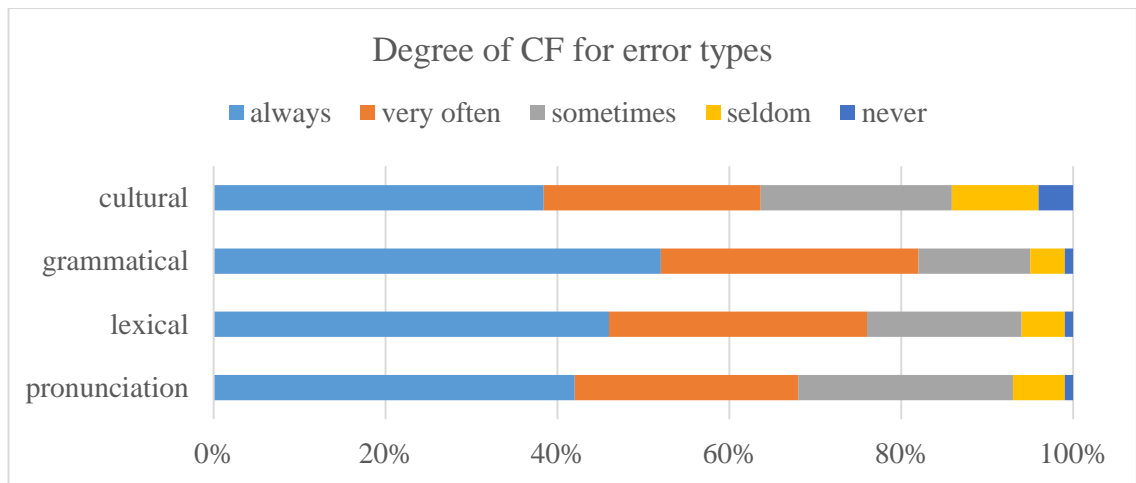


Figure 4. 6: Distribution of students' attitudes towards the degree of CF in response to error types

Chi-square for goodness of fit tested the *null hypothesis: $H_o = O_i = E_i$* which claimed that the students' rates across the frequency Likert-type items would be equal. This claim was tested as opposite to the *alternative hypothesis: $H_a = O_i \neq E_i$* , which supported that students' rates would not be equally spread across the scales of the items. Findings gave enough evidence to reject the null hypotheses for all different types of errors, since there were statistically significant differences in students' attitudes towards each error type. Consequently, as illustrated in Table 4.10, students' positive attitudes towards frequent CF provision in response to different error types were significant.

cultural phrasing	$\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 76.098, p = 000$
grammatical	$\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 182.058, p = 000$
lexical	$\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 141.237, p = 000$
pronunciation	$\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 115.150, p = 000$

Table 4. 10: Statistical significance of students' attitudes towards the degree of error correction in response to error types

Pairwise comparisons indicated that students who expressed a preference to always receive CF in response to their grammatical errors were significantly higher than students who preferred to receive CF very often ($p = .001$), sometimes, seldom, or never ($p = .000$). In addition, students who preferred to receive CF in response to grammatical errors very often were significantly higher than those who preferred to receive feedback sometimes, seldom, or never ($p = .000$).

Moreover, students who preferred to always receive CF in response to inappropriate cultural phrasing, lexical, and pronunciation errors, were significantly higher than students who preferred to receive feedback sometimes, seldom, or never ($p \leq .004$). Furthermore, students who favoured CF provision very often were significantly higher than those who preferred to be corrected seldom, or never ($p = .000$).

Lastly, students who expressed a preference to receive CF sometimes in response to all types of errors, namely grammatical, inappropriate cultural phrasing, lexical, and pronunciation errors were significantly higher compared to students who expressed preference to receive feedback seldom, or never ($p \leq .004$). Overall, the most frequent options were significantly higher for all types of errors compared to less frequent options in all possible pairs. This outcomes confirms that students were positive towards receiving frequent CF in response to different types of errors.

4.2.2.4 CF types

To continue, students' attitudes towards different CF types were also measured through the questionnaire. Imaginary examples along with descriptions were provided for each of the CF types identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Students rated each CF type on a five-point quality Likert-scale, and the findings from the calculation of frequencies per CF type are shown in Table 4.11 and Figure 4.7.

Generally, students' attitudes differed across CF types. Firstly, the highest percentage for a negative stance was appointed to the option of no correction. 77% of the students expressed their negative stance towards the absence of feedback, rating it as poor. Concerning the different CF types, findings indicated a positive relation between students' attitudes and explicit CF types. Before presenting this in detail, it is essential to remember the classification of CF types across a scale of implicitness and explicitness, and within the categories of prompts and reformulations.

CF Types	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor
clarification request (<i>n</i> = 202)	14%	24%	29%	18%	13%
elicitation (<i>n</i> = 205)	13%	29%	31%	15%	11%
explicit correction (<i>n</i> = 207)	33%	30%	22%	11%	4%
metalinguistic feedback (<i>n</i> = 205)	33%	34%	19%	9%	5%
no correction (<i>n</i> = 207)	3%	2%	4%	14%	77%
paralinguistic signals (<i>n</i> = 205)	15%	16%	31%	19%	18%
recast (<i>n</i> = 207)	23%	23%	32%	18%	5%
repetition (<i>n</i> = 205)	9%	23%	25%	26%	16%

Table 4. 11: Percentage distribution of students' attitudes towards each CF type

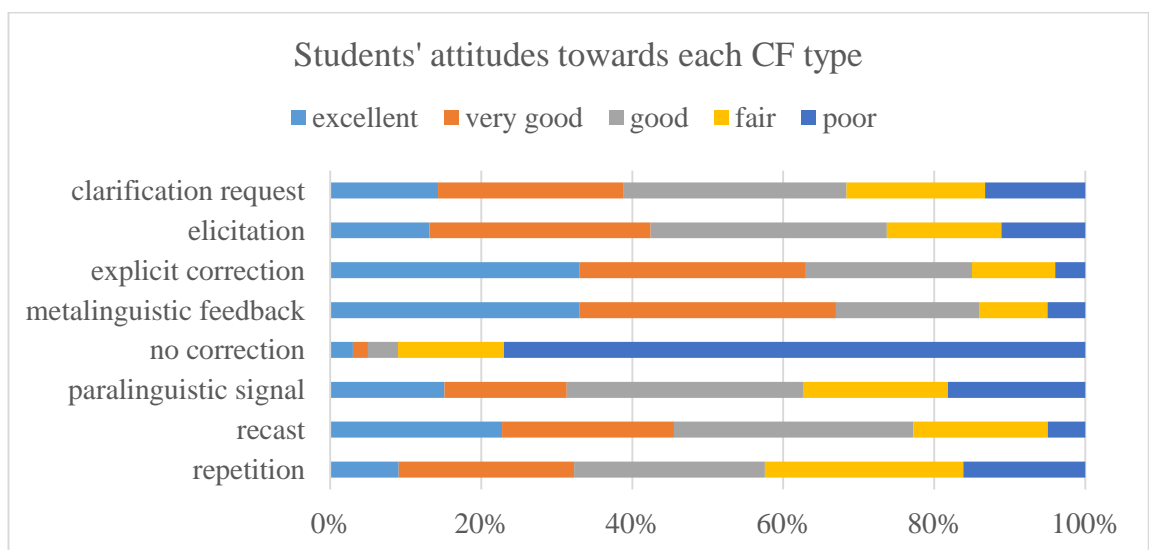


Figure 4. 7: Students' attitudes towards each CF type

Figure 4.8 illustrates Lyster et al.,’s (2013, p. 5) classification of implicit to explicit CF types. However, it needs to be clarified that unlike the CF types in Figure 4.8, the questionnaire did not include examples which separated didactic and conversational recasts, nor did it include an example for explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback.

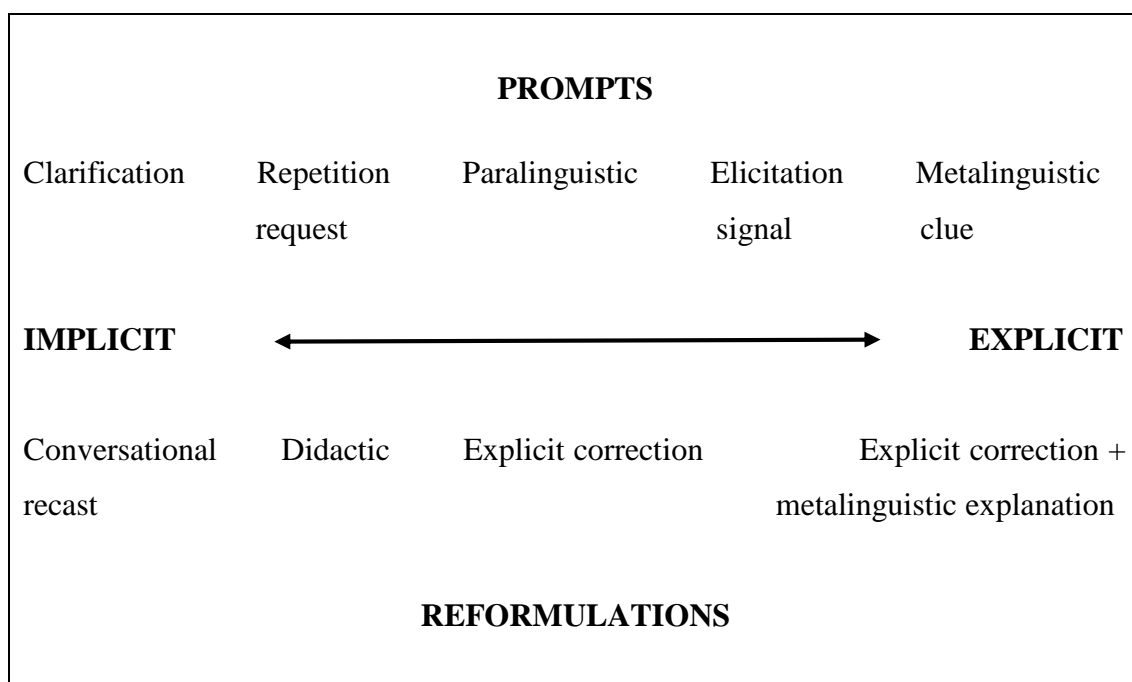


Figure 4. 8: CF Types as presented by Lyster et al., (2013, p.5)

Considering the rest of the CF types on Lyster et al.’s, (2013) classification, it is evident that metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction are considered to be the most explicit types of prompts and reformulations respectively. What has emerged from students’ findings that relates to this is that students’ highest positive rates were appointed to the most explicit CF types for both prompts and reformulations. In particular, frequencies for each CF type revealed that explicit correction was rated by 33% of the students as excellent, and by 30% as very good. Similarly, 33% of the students rated metalinguistic feedback as excellent and 34% as very good.

Regarding elicitation, 31% of the participants believed that it was good, whereas slightly less students (29%) found it very good. This small difference between a good and a very good ranking did not occur for other CF types. Considering recast, 32% of learners believed that it was good. Nonetheless, 23% ranked it as excellent, and 23% as very good.

Hence, although there was a slight difference between the rates of good and very good, there were considerably higher rates for the excellent and the very good rates compared to the fair (18%) and poor (5%) rates.

Moreover, 31% of the students believed that paralinguistic signal was good. The following rates ranged from 15% to 19%, with the highest rates being appointed to fair and poor at 19% and 18% respectively. To continue with repetition, most students rated it as fair at 26%. Nonetheless, slightly less students rated it as good at 25%. Moreover, 23% of the learners believed that repetition was very good. Lastly, most students rated clarification request as good (29%), followed by the indication that it was very good (24%).

Overall, the most remarkable point concerning students' attitudes was that the students were clearly negative towards no correction. Moreover, they were mostly positive towards explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback which both fall on the explicit side of CF types, for reformulations and prompts respectively. Furthermore, recast, elicitation, and clarification request were ranked most highly as good, but they were followed by high percentages rating them as very good. Lastly, paralinguistic signal and repetition were ranked most highly as good and fair respectively.

Chi-square for goodness of fit tested the null hypothesis ($H_o = O_i = E_i$) which claimed that students' rates across the quality scales would be equal. This claim was tested as opposite to the alternative hypothesis ($H_a = O_i \neq E_i$), which supported that students' rates would not be equally spread across the scales. Results indicated that there were significant differences in students' attitudes towards each CF type as indicated in Table 4.12.

clarification request	$\chi^2 (4, n = 202) = 20.426, p = .000$
elicitation	$\chi^2 (4, n = 205) = 36.829, p = .000$
explicit correction	$\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 63.411, p = .000$
metalinguistic feedback	$\chi^2 (4, n = 205) = 74.732, p = .000$
no correction	$\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 434.473, p = .000$
paralinguistic signal	$\chi^2 (4, n = 205) = 17.366, p = .002$
recast	$\chi^2 (4, n = 207) = 40.415, p = .000$
repetition	$\chi^2 (4, n = 205) = 20.341, p = .000$

Table 4. 12: Statistical significance of students' attitudes towards each CF type

Similar to the previous sections, I performed post-hoc pairwise binomial tests for all CF types to determine which of the response categories were significantly different from one another. I performed ten pairwise tests to test all possible pairs for each CF type: excellent with very good, excellent with good, excellent with fair, excellent with poor, very good with good, very good with fair, very good with poor, good with fair, good with poor, and finally, fair with poor. I applied the Bonferroni correction, thus the *alpha level* (α) was set to .005 (Pallant, 2011).

Pairwise comparisons indicated that students who rated no correction as fair, or poor were significantly higher than those who evaluated it as excellent, very good, or good ($p \leq .001$). These findings confirm that students who expressed negative attitudes towards no correction were significantly higher than those who were in favour of no correction.

In contrast, students who rated explicit correction or metalinguistic feedback as excellent were significantly higher than students who rated them as fair, or poor ($p = .000$). Furthermore, students who rated metalinguistic feedback or explicit correction as very good were significantly higher than those who evaluated them as, fair, or poor ($p \leq .004$). In addition, learners who assessed metalinguistic feedback as good were significantly higher than those who rated it as poor ($p = .000$). The binomial pairwise tests confirm that students who expressed positive attitudes towards both explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback were significantly higher compared to other students.

As for elicitation, pairwise analyses indicated that students who evaluate it as good or very good were significantly higher than students who rated it as excellent, fair, or poor ($p \leq .003$). Such outcomes show that the difference between students who rated it as good or very good was not substantial, thus those students were significantly higher than the rest. With respect to recast, pairwise comparisons revealed that students who rated it as excellent, very good, good, or fair were significantly higher than students who evaluated it as poor ($p = .000$). These findings confirm that while there was no considerable difference between students who evaluated recast with one of the first four ratings, the students who rated it as poor comprised the smallest proportion.

Additional tests revealed that students who rated paralinguistic signal as good were significantly higher than students who assessed it as fair, or poor ($p \leq .003$). Moreover, students who ranked clarification request as good were significantly higher than students who evaluated it as excellent, or poor ($p \leq .001$). These findings confirm that both paralinguistic signal and clarification request were mostly rated as good. Lastly, students who rated repetition as very good, good, or fair were significantly higher than students who evaluated it as excellent ($p \leq .001$). Such findings suggest that repetition was neither among students' favourite feedback types, nor among their least favourites.

4.2.3 Summary

To summarise, the purpose of Section 4.2 was to present Greek-Cypriot EFL students' perceptions towards error production, and their attitudes towards CF. Firstly, section 4.2.1 provided a general picture of attitudes towards error production. The findings indicated that the majority of learners believed that they produce both oral and written errors in English. As for the reasons for producing errors, the highest scores were allocated to the influence of SMG, and to the insufficient knowledge of English. Nonetheless, the majority of students expressed positive attitudes towards the influence of L1 knowledge, since they believed that it helps the L2 learning process.

With respect to CF, section 4.2.2 indicated that students believed that the most common techniques of CF that their teachers use are explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback. As to how they feel when their teachers correct their errors during a lesson, most students associated CF with positive feelings rather than with negative ones. In addition, the majority of students did not share the idea that CF would make them feel uneasy. Moreover, altogether, students expressed generally positive attitudes towards receiving frequent CF for all different types of errors.

Regarding learners' attitudes towards CF types, students' highest positive rates were appointed to explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback. These are considered to be the most explicit types of reformulations and prompts respectively. Furthermore, these two techniques received the highest rates when students were asked to indicate the CF types that their teachers tend to use. Moreover, it was evident that students were clearly negative towards no correction.

The general picture of Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes towards error production and CF is followed in the next section by an exploration of the impact of individual difference concepts on students' attitudes.

4.3 Students' attitudes and other individual differences

The goal of the current section is to present the impact of a range of individual difference concepts, namely age, gender, motivational variables, and personality traits, on students' attitudes towards error production and CF. In other words, this section explores whether individual differences explained the variance in students' attitudes towards a number of statements relating to error production and CF.

The findings that are presented below were found by logistic regression models to significantly predict variation in students' responses. In particular, with regards to error production, findings indicated the effect of individual differences on students' attitudes towards error production, and specifically, the reasons for producing errors, and the influence of L1 knowledge on the L2 learning process. Concerning CF, outcomes indicated the impact of individual differences on learners' attitudes towards CF, and specifically, on their affective responses to CF, and their attitudes towards the degree of CF provision, and different CF types.

Binary logistic regressions and ordinal logistic regressions were performed depending on the level of measurement of variables that represented the independent variables (predictors: individual differences) and the dependent variables (responses: attitudes). The independent variables that acted as predictors in regression tests were not used together as one model. The purpose of this was twofold. Firstly, when numerous predictors are used together in one model, there is the potential to obtain misleading results when the sample size cannot handle the complexity of the model. Moreover, it is argued that simplification usually produces more precise results. Therefore, by separating the variables, potential issues relating to inadequacy of the sample size in response to complex models were prevented. Moreover, by using a maximum of four independent variables per model, potential overfitting of regression models was avoided (Frost, 2018).

Hence, three groups of independent variables were used as binary regression models, and as ordinal regression models. Thematic relations between the variables determined the variables of each model. In particular, age and gender were grouped together as one set of predictors representing biological/physical factors. Moreover, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation were grouped together as one of the two sets of psychological predictors representing motivation. The second set of psychological predictors contained the variables of anxiety, extroversion, introversion and self-esteem, demonstrating personality traits. An *alpha level* (α) of .05 was set as the cutoff of the probability value to test the statistical significance of an odds ratio value (Egerton, 2018). The statistically significant outcomes of the regression models as emerged from the regression tests are presented below.

4.3.1 The effect of students' individual differences on their attitudes towards error production

The current section presents the impact of individual differences on the likelihood that students would respond positively to certain questions relating to error production. Specifically, outcomes in relation to the impact of students' individual differences on their responses regarding oral error production, reasons for producing errors, and the influence of L1 knowledge on the L2 learning process are described below.

4.3.1.1 Oral error production

Individual differences were found to affect students' attitudes towards oral error production in English. In particular, the binary regression model of age and gender was found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2(2, n = 206) = 13.891, p = .001$. This indicated that the full model containing both predictors was able to distinguish between students who believed that they produce oral errors, and those who did not believe that they produce oral errors in English. The model as a whole explained between 6.5% (Cox and Snell R square) and 9.9% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in the belief of producing oral errors, and correctly classified 77% of cases.

As shown in Table 4.13, both *age* and *gender* made statistically significant contributions to the model. In particular, age recorded an odds ratio of 1.12 which indicated that

increasing age was associated with a higher probability to report production of oral errors. For every year older, the odds of a person stating that they produce oral errors in English increased by a factor of 1.12, all other factors being equal. As far as gender is concerned, the odds of a student answering yes concerning the production of oral errors was three times (2.89) higher for females rather than males. Nonetheless, both age and gender contained number one in their confidence intervals. Therefore, the possibility that the true odds ratios were one could not be ruled out.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Age	0.115	0.053	4.685	1	0.030	1.122	1.011	1.246
Gender	1.063	0.356	8.923	1	0.003	2.89	1.441	5.814
Constant	-1.278	.957	1.784	1	.182	.279		

Table 4. 13: Binary logistic regression predicting the likelihood of reporting production of oral errors, based on age and gender (Note: gender is for females compared to males)

With regards to the motivational set of predictors consisting of the total scores of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, like the previous set of biological predictors, the full model was found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2 (2, n = 206) = 6.397, p = .041$. The model as a whole explained between 3.1% (Cox and Snell R square) and 4.6% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in the belief of producing oral errors, and correctly classified, once again, 77% of cases.

Nonetheless, Table 4.14 shows that only *intrinsic motivation* contributed significantly to the model, $p = .015$. The odds ratio of the significant variable was less than one, indicating that an increase in the independent variable was associated with a decrease in the probability of recording a yes answer in the dependent variable. Consequently, the higher intrinsically motivated a student was, the odds of him/her to report that they produce oral errors in English decreased by a factor of .869, controlling for the other factor in the model.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.015	.067	.049	1	.825	1.015	.890	1.157
Intrinsic	-.140	.057	5.961	1	.015	.869	.777	.973
Constant	3.149	1.139	7.642	1	.006	23.318		

Table 4. 14: Binary logistic regression predicting the likelihood of reporting production of oral errors, based on motivation

4.3.1.2 Reasons for producing errors in English

Turning to a different set of questions concerning reasons for producing errors in English, regression tests revealed that different sets of predictors explained variances in students' responses. Specifically, reasons for producing errors that were explained by individual difference concepts were the insufficient knowledge of English, students' low motivation, and students' individual differences.

To begin with the statement of the insufficient knowledge of English, it was found to be significant in relation to personality traits, $\chi^2(2, n = 205) = 17.494, p = .002$. The model explained between 8.2% (Cox and Snell R square) and 11.3% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in the belief of producing errors due to insufficient knowledge of English, and correctly classified 67.8% of cases. Assessing the relative importance of each individual predictor revealed that *anxiety* ($p = .006$) and *self-esteem* ($p = .001$) contributed significantly to the model.

As shown in Table 4.15, anxiety reported an odds ratio of .756, a value that is less than one, suggesting that for every unit increase on the scale of anxiety, there was a decreased probability to respond yes to the current reason. Hence, the more anxious a student felt, the odds of him/her to report that insufficient knowledge of English is a reason for producing errors decreased by a factor of .756, controlling for other factors in the model. As for self-esteem, the odds ratio of .567 indicated that an increase on the self-esteem scale was associated with decreased odds to respond positively to the statement in question. Particularly, students who scored high on the self-esteem scale were .567 times less likely to report that insufficient knowledge of English is a reason to produce errors, all other factors being equal.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	-.280	.101	7.620	1	.006	.756	.756	.922
Extroversion	-.088	.104	.723	1	.395	.915	.747	1.122
Introversion	.121	.101	1.426	1	.232	1.129	.925	1.377
Self-esteem	.567	.178	10.112	1	.001	.567	.567	.805
Constant	2.748	1.473	3.479	1	.062	15.616		

Table 4. 15: Binary logistic regression predicting the likelihood of reporting that insufficient knowledge of English is a reason for producing errors, based on personality traits

Another statement expressing a reason for producing errors in English was students' low motivation. Students' variance in response to this item was found to be significant when motivation variables were set as predictors. Specifically, the model that consisted of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation was significant, which meant that at least one predictor was significant, $\chi^2(2, n = 207) = 9.323, p = .009$. The model as a whole explained between 4.4% (Cox and Snell R square) and 10.5% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in the belief of producing errors due to low motivation, and correctly classified 91.8% of cases. Inspecting the variables in the equation revealed that only *intrinsic motivation* contributed significantly to the model, $p = .008$. As Table 4.16 shows, intrinsic motivation reported an odds ratio of .799. Such a value suggested that the more intrinsically motivated a student, the odds of him/her to report that students' low motivation is a reason for producing errors decreased by a factor of .799, controlling for other factors in the model.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.094	.098	.925	1	.336	1.099	.907	1.331
Intrinsic	-.225	.085	7.001	1	.008	.799	.676	.943
Constant	-.474	1.689	.078	1	.780	.623		

Table 4. 16: Binary logistic regression predicting the likelihood of reporting that students' low motivation is a reason for producing errors in English, based on motivation

Additionally, the likelihood of reporting that students' individual differences is a reason for producing errors in English was explained by motivational variables. The whole model containing extrinsic and intrinsic motivation was statistically significant, $\chi^2(2, n = 207) = 7.005, p = .030$, and it explained between 3.3% (Cox and Snell R square) and 8.5% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in the belief of producing errors due to students' individual differences. Moreover, it correctly classified 93.2% of cases. As shown in Table 4.17, *intrinsic motivation* made a significant contribution to the prediction of the model, $p = .016$. Accordingly, there was a negative relationship between increasing intrinsic motivation, and reporting that students' individual differences is a reason for producing errors. Specifically, intrinsically motivated students were .799 times less likely to report yes in response to this statement.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	-.128	.11	1.340	1	.247	.880	.709	1.093
Intrinsic	-.224	.093	5.799	1	.016	.799	.666	.959
Constant	1.807	1.806	1.000	1	.317	6.090		

Table 4. 17: Binary logistic regression predicting the likelihood of reporting that students' individual differences is a reason for producing errors in English, based on motivation

4.3.1.3 Influence of L1 knowledge

With respect to the influence of L1 knowledge on the L2 English learning process, the three items that were given to the students to express their agreement/disagreement were the following: L1 helps, L1 does not help, and L1 prevents the L2 English learning process. Two sets of predictors were found to explain significant variances in response to the first item, namely that L1 helps the L2 learning process, whereas one set explained the variance in response to the item that L1 does not help English learning. No significant prediction was found in response to the item that L1 knowledge prevents L2 learning.

To begin with the positive item namely that L1 knowledge helps the L2 learning process, the model that contained age and gender as predictors was found to be significant, $\chi^2(2, n = 207) = 6.383, p = .041$. The full model explained between 3.0% (Cox and Snell R square) and 4.1% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in the belief that L1 knowledge

helps the L2 learning process, and correctly classified 62% of cases. Table 4.18 illustrates that *gender* was the predictor that contributed significantly to the model, $p = .018$. Specifically, the odds of females answering yes to the question were nearly two times (1.95) higher than males, controlling for all other factors in the model. Nonetheless, taking into consideration that one was found in confidence intervals, the possibility of equal responses (yes/no) could not be ruled out.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Age	-0.032	0.043	0.553	1	0.457	0.968	0.889	1.054
Gender	0.672	0.285	5.581	1	0.018	1.959	1.121	3.423
Constant	.482	.806	.3581	1	.550	1.619		

Table 4. 18: Binary logistic regression predicting the likelihood of reporting that L1 knowledge helps L2 learning, based on age and gender (Note: gender is for females compared to males)

In response to the motivational set of predictors, the statement that L1 knowledge helps the L2 learning process was also found to be significant, $\chi^2 (2, n = 207) = 7.999, p = .018$. The whole model explained between 3.8% (Cox and Snell R square) and 5.1% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in the belief that L1 knowledge helps the L2 learning process, and correctly classified 59% of cases. Table 4.19 illustrates that only *intrinsic motivation* made a unique significant contribution to the model ($p = .010$), recording an odds of 1.12. Accordingly, students who scored high for intrinsic motivation were 1.12 times more likely to report that L1 knowledge helps the L2 learning process.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	-.053	.056	.895	1	.344	.948	.850	1.058
Intrinsic	.121	.047	6.639	1	.010	1.129	1.029	1.238
Constant	-.937	.927	1.021	1	.312	.392		

Table 4. 19: Binary logistic regression predicting the likelihood of reporting that L1 helps the L2 learning process, based on motivation

To continue with the question relating to the negative influence of L1, namely that L1 knowledge does not help the L2 learning process, the age and gender model was found to be significant, $\chi^2(2, n = 207) = 8.951, p = .011$. The model as a whole explained between 42% (Cox and Snell R square) and 59% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in the belief that L1 does not help the L2 learning process, and correctly classified 62% of cases. As indicated in Table 4.20, out of the two predictors in the model, *gender* was significant ($p = .004$), and it recorded an odds ratio of .414, indicating that females were less likely than males to report that L1 knowledge does not help L2 learning.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Age	.026	.046	.331	1	.565	1.027	.939	1.123
Gender	-.881	.308	8.187	1	.004	0.414	.226	0.758
Constant	-.816	.853	.915	1	.339	.442		

Table 4. 20: Binary logistic regression predicting the likelihood of reporting that L1 knowledge does not help the L2 learning process, based on age and gender (Note: gender is for females compared to males)

4.3.2 The effect of students' individual differences on their attitudes towards CF

The present section provides findings in relation to the impact of individual differences on students' attitudes towards CF. In particular, findings indicated the extent to which individual difference concepts explained variances in students' attitudes concerning their affective responses to CF, their attitudes towards the degree of CF provision, and different CF types.

4.3.2.1 Affective responses to CF

To continue with students' affective responses to CF, cumulative ordinal logistic regressions with proportional odds were performed to assess the impact of the three different sets of predictors on students' attitudes.

Investigating the effect of students' motivation on the belief that receiving CF is encouraging revealed a statistically significant result, $\chi^2 (2, n = 207), 8.678, p = .013$. With regards to the assumption of proportional odds, a deeper investigation was undertaken due to identified violations from the full likelihood ratio test. Separate binomial regression tests indicated that there were proportional odds, since there were similarities between the odds ratio values of the four cumulative dichotomous categories that represented the ordinal dependent variable. Accordingly, the test of model effects showed that *intrinsic motivation* was the statistical significant predictor, Wald $\chi^2 (1, = 207), 7.899, p = .005$. As Table 4.21 shows, there was a positive association between intrinsic motivation and the feeling of encouragement. Specifically, highly intrinsically motivated students were 1.12 times more likely than students with low intrinsic motivation to agree that receiving CF is encouraging.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.056	.0521	1.161	1	.281	1.058	.955	1.171
Intrinsic	.120	.0427	7.899	1	.005	1.128	1.037	1.226

Table 4. 21: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that CF is encouraging

With respect to finding the provision of CF embarrassing, the model of personality traits was found to significantly predict variation in learners' responses, $\chi^2 (4, n = 204), 27.243, p = .000$. Moreover, there were proportional odds as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test, comparing the fit of the proportional odds model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2 (12, n = 204), 10.327, p = .587$. Table 4.22 indicates that *anxiety* Wald $\chi^2 (1, = 204), 11.828, p = .001$, and *extroversion* Wald $\chi^2 (1, = 204), 6.990, p = .008$, predicted significant variances in the response variable. Outcomes included a positive and a negative association, for anxiety and extroversion respectively. To illustrate, on the one hand, the more anxious a student, the more likely was s/he to report that receiving CF is embarrassing, recording an odds ratio of 1.32. On the other hand, the more extroverted a learner, the less likely was s/he to report that they feel embarrassed when their teachers correct their errors, with an odds ratio of .789.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	.279	.0810	11.828	1	.001	1.321	1.127	1.549
Extroversion	-.237	.0895	6.990	1	.008	.789	.662	.941
Introversion	-.065	.0818	.628	1	.428	.937	.798	1.100
Self-esteem	-.005	.1455	.001	1	.973	.995	.748	1.323

Table 4. 22: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report that CF is embarrassing

As far as finding CF irritating is concerned, the impact of motivation variables was found to be significant, χ^2 (2, $n = 200$), 8.447, $p = .015$. Furthermore, the assumption of proportional odds was met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test, χ^2 (6), 3.389, $p = .1759$. Examining the individual predictors revealed that *extrinsic motivation* offered a unique significant contribution to the model, Wald χ^2 (1), 7.222, $p = .007$. Table 4.23 shows that there was a positive relation between increasing extrinsic motivation and agreement towards finding CF irritating. In particular, the odds of a student reporting that receiving CF is irritating was 1.14 times higher the more extrinsically motivated a learner was.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.138	.0513	7.222	1	.007	1.148	1.038	1.269
Intrinsic	.049	.0414	7.375	1	.241	.953	.878	1.033

Table 4. 23: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that CF is irritating

Like the motivation model, the personality traits model was also found to significantly predict the likelihood of students reporting that receiving CF is irritating, χ^2 (4, $n = 198$), 20.150, $p = .000$. A full likelihood ratio test revealed that there were proportional odds. Therefore, inspection of the findings indicated that there were two predictors that assisted to the significance of the model, namely *extroversion* Wald χ^2 (1, $n = 198$), 8.851, $p = .003$, and *self-esteem* Wald χ^2 (1, $n = 198$), 5.230, $p = .022$. As indicated in Table 4.24, there was a negative association between extroversion and the dependent variable, since

the more extroverted a student, the odds of him/her to report that CF is irritating decreased by a factor of .765. In contrast, the higher a student's self-esteem the more likely was s/he to find CF irritating, with a decreased probability of 1.40 times.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	.150	.0801	3.519	1	.061	1.162	.993	1.360
Extroversion	-.269	.0902	8.851	1	.003	.765	.641	.912
Introversion	.047	.0825	.318	1	.573	1.048	.891	1.232
Self-esteem	.341	.1492	5.230	1	.022	1.407	1.050	1.885

Table 4. 24: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report that CF is irritating

In response to finding the provision of CF satisfying, the motivation model was found to significantly explain a variability in students' responses, $\chi^2(2, n = 196)$, 17.713, $p = .000$. A full likelihood ratio test revealed that the assumption of proportional odds was met, $\chi^2(6)$, 7.318, $p = .292$. Therefore, reviewing the test of model effects specified that both *extrinsic* and *intrinsic motivation* contributed to the model significance, Wald $\chi^2(1, = 196)$, 14.083, $p = .000$. Specifically, as shown in Table 4.25, the test indicated that it was 1.11 times more likely for students with high extrinsic motivation than for those with low extrinsic motivation, and 1.17 times more likely for learners with high intrinsic motivation than for those with low intrinsic motivation to report that receiving CF is satisfying.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.110	.0523	4.442	1	.035	1.116	1.008	1.237
Intrinsic	.165	.0439	14.083	1	.000	1.179	1.082	1.285

Table 4. 25: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that CF is satisfying

Like the motivational model, the personality traits model was also found to significantly explain variance in students' responses as to whether receiving CF is satisfying, $\chi^2(4)$, 16.616, $p = .002$. However, the assumption of proportional odds was not met via the full likelihood ratio test. Thus, separate binomial regressions were performed afterwards. The tests indicated that for one of the two significant variables namely introversion, the assumption seemed tenable, since all four cumulative dichotomous categories shared similar odds ratio values. However, for extroversion, the possibility that the assumption might have not been tenable could not be ruled out, because one out of the four cumulative dichotomous categories did not share similar rates of odds ratio with the rest of the categories.

With regards to associations between the individual predictors and the response variable, as shown in Table 4.26, the odds of agreeing that receiving CF is satisfying were 1.40 times more likely for more *extroverted* students than for students who were less extroverted, as well as 1.30 times more likely for more *introverted* students than for students who were less introverted. Consequently, both extroverted and introverted students were found to report that receiving CF is satisfying.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	.005	.0811	.001	1	.947	1.005	.858	1.179
Extroversion	.269	.0871	9.527	1	.002	1.401	1.165	1.685
Introversion	.0269	.0871	9.527	1	.000	1.309	1.103	1.552
Self-esteem	-.129	.1503	.737	1	.391	1.879	.655	1.180

Table 4. 26: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report that CF is satisfying

The possibility that students might view CF as negative was also explored, revealing that motivation variables significantly explained variation in students' responses, $\chi^2(2, n = 204)$, 28.114, $p = .000$. Since the proportional odds assumption was met, $\chi^2(6)$, 1.979 $p = .922$, the test of model effects was reviewed, indicating that both *extrinsic* and *intrinsic motivation* distinguished between students who agreed and disagreed with the statement. As Table 4.27 shows, highly extrinsically motivated students were more likely to agree

that receiving CF is negative (odds ratio: 1.21). In contrast, highly intrinsically motivated students were less likely to agree with such a statement (odds ratio: .776).

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.198	.0535	13.650	1	.000	1.218	1.097	1.353
Intrinsic	.167	.0446	13.922	1	.000	.847	.776	.924

Table 4. 27: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that CF is negative

Like the motivational variables, the personality model was also found to significantly predict variance in students' answers on whether receiving CF is negative, $\chi^2(4)$, 11.366, $p = .023$. The assumption of proportional odds was not met through the full likelihood ratio test, but separate binary regressions that were performed later confirmed that the assumption was tenable. Looking at the individual estimates of the predictors indicated that the significance of the model was due to *extroversion*, as illustrated in Table 4.28. Particularly, extroversion scored an odds ratio of .832 which suggested a negative association between extroversion and the dependent variable. Consequently, the more extroverted a student, the less likely was s/he to report that receiving CF involves negative feelings.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	.121	.0823	2.151	1	.142	1.128	.960	1.326
Extroversion	-.184	.0914	4.061	1	.044	.832	.695	.995
Introversion	.054	.0850	.400	1	.527	1.055	.893	1.247
Self-esteem	.150	.1520	.977	1	.323	1.162	.863	1.566

Table 4. 28: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report that CF is negative

As for paying no attention when receiving CF, the motivation model was found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2(2)$, 39.326, $p = .000$. Moreover, the assumption of proportional odds was met, $\chi^2(6)$, 2.321, $p = .888$. Inspection of the model effects indicated that both

extrinsic and *intrinsic motivation* made unique contributions to the significance of the model. Table 4.29 illustrates that the more extrinsically motivated a student, the more likely was s/he to agree with the statement. In contrast, the more intrinsically motivated a learner, the less likely was s/he to agree. In particular, it was 1.23 times more likely for highly extrinsically motivated students to report that they do not pay attention to their teachers' CF, whereas it was .797 times less likely for highly intrinsically motivated students to do so.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.209	.0533	15.358	1	.000	1.232	1.110	1.368
Intrinsic	-.227	.0455	24.822	1	.000	.797	.729	.871

Table 4. 29: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that they pay no attention to CF

As far as considering CF provision to be positive, the full model of motivation variables explained a variance in students' responses, χ^2 (2 $n = 204$), 21.655, $p = .000$. In addition, the proportional odds assumption was met, χ^2 (6), 5.948 $p = .429$. Table 4.30 shows that the predictor that contributed to the significance of the model was *intrinsic motivation*, Wald χ^2 (2, $n = 204$), 21.594, $p = .003$, reporting an odds ratio of 1.23. This suggested that it was 1.23 times more likely for students who scored higher than others in intrinsic motivation, to agree that receiving CF is positive. Such an outcome verified earlier findings which indicated that highly intrinsically motivated students were less likely to associate CF with negative feelings.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.010	.0515	.035	1	.852	1.010	.913	1.117
Intrinsic	.208	.0448	21.594	1	.000	1.251	1.128	1.344

Table 4. 30: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that CF is positive

In addition, the personality traits model was found to significantly explain the likelihood of students reporting that CF is positive, $\chi^2 (4, n = 205), 17.052, p = .002$. With respect to proportional odds, the full likelihood ratio test did not provide the desired results, hence separate binary regressions were performed afterwards, which indicated that the assumption of proportional odds seemed tenable. Table 4.31 shows that the significant predictor was *extroversion*. Specifically, the odds of reporting that receiving CF involves positive feelings increased by 1.46 times for students who scored high in extroversion, compared to those who scored lower.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	.069	.0818	.721	1	.396	1.072	.913	1.258
Extroversion	.382	.0944	16.350	1	.000	1.465	1.217	1.762
Introversion	.079	.0852	.870	1	.351	1.083	.916	1.280
Self-esteem	-.115	.1502	.591	1	.442	.891	.664	1.196

Table 4. 31: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report that CF is positive

As to whether students felt that it is useful when teachers correct their errors, the motivation model was found to significantly explain a variance in their responses, $\chi^2 (2, n = 206), 14.008, p = .000$. The assumption of proportional odds could not be confirmed with absolute certainty, firstly, because the full likelihood ratio test flagged violations, and secondly, because separate binomial regressions that were performed afterwards, indicated that one of the four cumulative dichotomous categories did not share similar odds ratio values with the rest. Thus, the assumption might have not been tenable. Nonetheless, as Table 4.32 shows, reviewing the individual predictors demonstrated that *intrinsic motivation* contributed to the significance of the model, Wald $\chi^2 (1, n = 206), 10.794, p = .001$. Particularly, it was found that the more intrinsically motivated a student, the more likely was s/he to agree that receiving CF is useful, with an odds ratio of 1.15.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	-.92	.0522	3.109	1	.078	.912	.823	1.010
Intrinsic	.144	.0439	10.794	1	.001	1.155	1.060	1.259

Table 4. 32: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that CF is useful

The students were also asked whether they feel uneasy when their teachers correct them. The personality traits set of predictors significantly explained variation in students' responses to this statement, $\chi^2 (4, n = 205), 26.262, p = .000$. Moreover, the assumption of proportional odds was met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test $\chi^2 (12, n = 205), 14.156, p = .291$. Table 4.33 indicates that anxiety, Wald $\chi^2 (1, n = 205), 11.488, p = .001$, and self-esteem, Wald $\chi^2 (1, n = 205), 4.735, p = .030$, were the traits that contributed to the significance of the model.

In particular, regression outcomes revealed that on the one hand, there was a positive association between *anxiety* and the response variable, whereas on the other hand, there was a negative association between *self-esteem* and the outcome variable. As Table 4.33 demonstrates, anxiety reported an odds ratio of 1.31, which meant that the more anxious a student, the more likely was s/he to report that they feel uneasy when their teachers provide them with CF. In contrast, self-esteem recorded an odds ratio of .728, which suggested that the higher self-esteem of a learner, the less likely was s/he to report that they feel uneasy when corrected by their teachers.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	.273	.0806	11.488	1	.001	1.314	1.122	1.539
Extroversion	-.003	.0879	.001	1	.974	.997	.839	1.185
Introversion	.038	.0812	.221	1	.638	1.039	.886	1.218
Self-esteem	-.318	.1459	4.735	1	.030	.728	.547	.969

Table 4. 33: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report that CF makes them feel uneasy

4.3.2.2 Degree of CF provision

When assessing the impact of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that they want their teachers to correct their errors when speaking English, a significant prediction was found, $\chi^2 (2, n = 207)$, 12.723, $p = .002$. Furthermore, the assumption of proportional odds was met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test $\chi^2 (6, n = 207)$, 10.307, $p = .112$. The significant motivation contributor was *intrinsic motivation*, Wald $\chi^2 (1, n = 207)$, 10.087, $p = .001$. As Table 4.34 shows, the odds of agreeing with the statement were 1.15 times higher for students with high intrinsic motivation than for those with lower intrinsic motivation.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.087	.0537	2.604	1	.107	1.091	.982	1.212
Intrinsic	.141	.0445	10.087	1	.000	1.152	1.056	1.257

Table 4. 34: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that teachers should correct their oral errors

Moreover, the personality traits model was found to significantly explain the likelihood of students reporting that they want to receive CF when speaking English, $\chi^2 (4, n = 205)$, 21.366, $p = .000$. Since proportional odds were there, $\chi^2 (12, n = 205)$, 8.525, $p = .743$, individual predictors were reviewed to find the significant contributor. Table 4.35 shows that there was a significant positive relation between *extroversion* and the response variable, Wald $\chi^2 (1, n = 205)$, 19.649, $p = .000$. In particular, it was 1.56 times more likely for high extroverted learners than for low extroverted students to report that they want to have their oral errors corrected by their teachers.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	.079	.0857	.845	1	.358	1.082	.915	1.280
Extroversion	.446	1.007	19.649	1	.000	1.563	1.283	1.904
Introversion	.126	.0900	1.967	1	.161	1.135	.951	1.353
Self-esteem	.013	.1566	.007	1	.935	1.013	.745	1.377

Table 4. 35: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report that teachers should correct their oral errors

Concerning the statement that teachers must correct all of the students' oral errors in English, the motivation model was found to significantly explain variance in students' responses, $\chi^2 (2, n = 207), 7.651, p = .022$. However, the assumption of proportional odds was not fulfilled via the full likelihood ratio test, and additional investigation was required. Therefore, separate binary regressions were performed which confirmed that there were proportional odds. Table 4.36 indicates that the significant contributor of the model was *intrinsic motivation* which reported an odds ratio of 1.11, suggesting a positive relationship between the independent and the dependent variable. Specifically, the more intrinsically motivated a learner, the more likely was s/he to agree with the current statement in question, with the odds increasing by a factor of 1.11.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.055	.0510	1.183	1	.277	1.057	.957	1.168
Intrinsic	.109	.0422	6.664	1	.010	1.115	1.027	1.211

Table 4. 36: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that teachers must correct all of the students' oral errors

Furthermore, the personality traits model was found to significantly explain the possibility that students would agree that teachers must correct all of the students' oral errors, $\chi^2 (4, n = 205), 8.819, p = .012$. The assumption of proportional odds was assessed via separate binary regressions due to the fact that the full likelihood ratio test flagged violations. The significant predictors of the model, namely anxiety and extroversion, appeared to have proportional odds. For extroversion though the possibility that the assumption might not have been tenable could not be ruled out because one of the four cumulative dichotomous categories did not share similar odds ratio values with the rest of the categories.

Table 4.37 indicates that *anxiety* and *extroversion* were the significant predictors of the model. In particular, both variables were positively associated with the response variable. To clarify, the odds of a student to agree that teachers must correct all of the students' oral errors were 1.17 times higher for a more anxious student than for a low anxious

student, and 1.42 times higher for a more extroverted learner than for a low extroverted one.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	.163	.0831	3.835	1	.050	1.177	1.000	1.385
Extroversion	.354	.0944	14.047	1	.000	1.424	1.184	1.714
Introversion	.053	.0856	.379	1	.538	1.054	.892	1.246
Self-esteem	-.152	.1541	1.011	1	1.315	.859	.638	1.156

Table 4. 37: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report that teachers must correct all of the students' oral errors

As for the degree of CF provision for different error types, the motivation model was found to significantly explain variation in students' responses for the following error types: pronunciation, $\chi^2(2, n = 207)$, 7.481, $p = .024$; lexical, $\chi^2(2, n = 207)$, 6.696, $p = .035$; and inappropriate cultural phrasing, $\chi^2(2, n = 207)$, 6.276, $p = .043$. A full likelihood ratio test, comparing the fit of the proportional odds model to a model with varying location parameters, indicated that the assumption of proportional odds was met for pronunciation errors $\chi^2(6)$, 7.094, $p = .312$. Thus, for the other two types of errors, separate binomial regressions were performed to assess the assumption of proportional odds because the full likelihood test flagged violations. The tests revealed that the assumption was tenable for inappropriate cultural phrasing, since the odds ratios of the cumulative dichotomous dependent variables were similar to one another. Nonetheless, the same certainty concerning the tenability of the assumption cannot be expressed for lexical errors, because one of the four cumulative dichotomous categories did not share similar odds ratio values with the rest of the categories.

The full model distinguished between students who were positive and those who were not positive towards frequent error correction. Notably, as indicated in Table 4.38, *intrinsic motivation* offered unique significant contributions to the model, in all significant regression tests, for all different types of errors. In particular, highly intrinsically motivated students compared to students who scored lower rates on intrinsic motivation,

were more likely to report positive attitudes towards receiving frequent CF, in response to inappropriate cultural phrasing (1.09 times), pronunciation errors (1.11 times), and lexical errors (1.11 times).

Error type	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Pronunciation								
Extrinsic	-.041	.0498	.678	1	.410	.960	.871	1.058
Intrinsic	.110	.0416	6.977	1	.008	1.116	1.029	1.211
Lexical								
Extrinsic	-.037	.0504	.532	1	.466	.964	.873	1.064
Intrinsic	.104	.420	6.171	1	.013	1.110	1.022	1.205
Cultural								
Extrinsic	-.062	.0494	1.595	1	.207	.940	.853	1.035
Intrinsic	.087	.0411	4.509	1	.034	1.039	1.007	1.183

Table 4. 38: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report that they want frequent CF for different error types

The personality traits model was also found to be significant in predicting variation in students' views concerning the degree of correction for lexical errors, χ^2 (4, $n = 205$), 14.812, $p = .005$, and there were proportional odds, as assessed by a full likelihood test χ^2 (12, $n = 205$), 19.307, $p = .081$. It was noticeable as illustrated in Table 4.39, that *extroversion* and *self-esteem* contributed to the significance of the model, reporting odds ratios of 1.39 and .718 respectively. Such findings suggested that the more extroverted a student, the more likely was s/he to express positive attitudes towards frequent lexical error correction. However, the higher the self-esteem of a learner the less likely was s/he to express positive attitudes towards frequent lexical error correction.

Error type	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Lexical								
Anxiety	.020	.0811	.059	1	.808	1.020	.870	1.196
Extroversion	.330	.0935	12.476	1	.000	1.391	1.158	1.671
Introversion	.091	.0846	1.168	1	.280	1.096	.928	1.293
Self-esteem	-.331	.1530	4.865	1	.030	.718	.532	.969

Table 4. 39: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report that they want frequent CF for lexical errors

The biological set of predictors was found to significantly explain the possibility that students would report that it is difficult to notice their errors, $\chi^2 (2, n = 207), 9.470, p = .009$. Moreover, the assumption of proportional odds was met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test, $\chi^2 (6), p = .138$. Inspecting the test of model effects revealed that it was *age* that contributed significantly to the model, Wald $\chi^2 (2, n = 207), 9.107, p = .003$. As shown in Table 4.40, for every one year increase in students' *age*, the odds of agreeing with the statement increased by a factor of 1.12.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Age	.120	.0397	9.107	1	.003	1.127	1.043	1.219
Gender	.027	.2544	.011	1	.916	1.027	.624	1.691

Table 4. 40: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of age and gender on the likelihood that students would report that it is difficult to notice their errors (Note: gender is for males compared to females)

4.3.2.3 CF types

Students expressed their attitudes towards different CF types, and to start with elicitation, it was found that the personality traits model significantly predicted variance in students' responses, $\chi^2 (4, n = 203), 14.709, p = .005$. Moreover, the assumption of proportional odds was met, as measured by a full likelihood ratio test, $\chi^2 (12, n = 203), 12.799, p = .384$. Table 4.41 shows that the significant independent variable of the model was *extroversion*, which reported a positive association to elicitation. This meant that the odds of expressing positive attitudes towards elicitation were 1.19 times higher for high extroverted students than for learners who scored low in extroversion.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	-.054	.0775	.488	1	.485	.947	.814	1.103
Extroversion	.181	.0874	4.130	1	.038	1.199	1.010	1.423
Introversion	-.006	.0803	.005	1	.943	.994	.849	1.164
Self-esteem	.263	.1437	3.352	1	.067	1.301	.982	1.724

Table 4. 41: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report positive attitudes towards elicitation

With respect to predicting variation in learners' attitudes towards clarification request, the personality traits model was found significant, χ^2 (4, $n = 200$), 16.697, $p = .002$. Moreover, there were proportional odds, as measured by a full likelihood ratio test χ^2 (12, $n = 200$), 7.157, $p = .007$. Table 4.42 indicates that *extroversion* shared a significantly positive relation to clarification request. The odds of having positive attitudes towards clarification request were 1.26 times higher for students with high extroversion, than for those with low extroversion.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	-.101	.0780	1.689	1	.194	.904	.776	1.053
Extroversion	.235	.0880	7.157	1	.007	1.265	1.065	1.503
Introversion	.047	.0804	.345	1	.557	1.048	.896	1.227
Self-esteem	.131	.1437	.828	1	.363	1.140	.860	1.511

Table 4. 42: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report positive attitudes towards clarification request

As for attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback, the motivation model predicted significantly a variance in students' responses, χ^2 (2, $n = 207$), 12.483, $p = .002$. Moreover, the assumption of proportional odds was met, as calculated by a full likelihood ratio test, χ^2 (6, $n = 207$), 10.510, $p = .105$. Table 4.43 shows that there was a significant positive relation between *intrinsic motivation* and metalinguistic feedback. Accordingly, the odds of rating metalinguistic feedback positively were 1.14 times higher for highly intrinsically motivated students, than for students with low intrinsic motivation.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.070	.0496	2.000	1	.157	1.073	.973	1.182
Intrinsic	.136	.0414	10.727	1	.001	1.145	1.056	1.242

Table 4. 43: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of motivation on the likelihood that students would report positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback

Moreover, the likelihood of expressing positive attitudes towards recast was significantly predicted by the personality traits model, $\chi^2 (4, n = 205), 12.233, p = .016$. Proportional odds were found after the calculation of a full likelihood ratio test, $\chi^2 (12, n = 207), 14.835, p = .251$. Inspection of the individual predictors indicated that only two of the independent variables of the model contributed significantly, namely *extroversion* and *introversion*, which as shown in Table 4.44, also yield similar results.

To demonstrate, both variables were positively related to the outcome, which meant that the more extroverted or introverted a learner, the more likely was s/he to rate recast positively. In particular, the odds of reporting positive attitudes towards recast were 1.20 times higher for high extroverted students than for low extroverted students, as well as 1.28 times higher for high introverted students than for low introverted students, suggesting that both extroverted and introverted students held positive attitudes towards recast.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Anxiety	-.081	.0775	1.092	1	.26	.922	.792	1.073
Extroversion	.248	.0881	7.929	1	.005	1.282	1.078	1.523
Introversion	.189	.0811	5.455	1	.020	1.208	1.031	1.417
Self-esteem	-.010	1.424	.004	1	.947	.991	.749	1.309

Table 4. 44: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report positive attitudes towards recast

Finally, concerning students' attitudes towards receiving no correction when producing errors, a significant explanation was found from the biological set of predictors, $\chi^2 (2, n = 207), 12.860, p = .002$. Separate binary regressions confirmed that there were proportional odds for the significant contributor. As shown in Table 4.45, *gender* reported a significant positive relation to no correction Wald $\chi^2 (1, n = 207), 11.671, p = .003$, recording an odds ratio of 3.42. This suggested that the odds of rating no correction positively were 3.42 times higher for male students than for females.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Age	-.025	.0504	.249	1	.618	.975	.884	1.076
Gender	1.230	.3602	11.671	1	.001	3.423	1.690	6.933

Table 4. 45: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of age and gender on the likelihood that students would report positive attitudes towards no correction (Note: gender is for males compared to females)

Motivation was also found to significantly explain the likelihood of students reporting positive or negative attitudes towards no correction, $\chi^2(2, n = 207)$, 6.467, $p = .002$. Separate binomial regressions were performed to test the assumption of proportional odds, because the full likelihood ratio test flagged violations. The findings indicated that there were proportional odds due to similarities between the odds ratio values of the four cumulative dichotomous categories that represented the ordinal dependent variable.

The individual predictors were reviewed and as illustrated in Table 4.46, there was a significant positive association between *extrinsic motivation* and no correction, which suggested that the more extrinsically motivated a student, the more likely was s/he to report positive attitudes towards no correction. Specifically, the odds of reporting positive attitudes were 1.14 times higher for high extrinsically motivated students than for low extrinsically motivated students.

	B	S.E	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Extrinsic	.133	.0628	4.489	1	.034	1.142	1.010	1.292
Intrinsic	-.074	.0520	2.006	1	.157	.929	.839	1.029

Table 4. 46: Ordinal logistic regression assessing the effect of personality traits on the likelihood that students would report positive attitudes towards no correction

4.3.3 Summary

The aim of section 4.3 was to present the impact of students' individual differences on their attitudes towards error production and CF. In the present section, a summary of the main findings is provided.

With regards to oral error production, age, gender, and motivation were found to explain the likelihood of reporting oral error production. Female rather than male students, as well as older rather than younger learners were more likely to state that they produce oral errors in English. In contrast, the more intrinsically motivated the students, the less likely were they to report that they produce oral errors.

Concerning reasons for producing errors in English, variation in students' responses for specific reasons was explained by personality traits, and one motivational variable. As far as personality traits are concerned, the more anxious the learners, or the higher their self-esteem, the less likely were they to agree that the insufficient knowledge of English is a reason to produce errors. With respect to motivation, the more intrinsically motivated the students, the less likely were they to agree that the insufficient knowledge of English is one of the reasons for producing errors. Further to this statement, intrinsic motivation was found to explain the likelihood of agreeing or disagreeing with two other statements, namely students' low motivation, and students' individual differences. To clarify, the more intrinsically motivated the learners, the less likely were they to agree that students' low motivation, and students' individual differences are reasons for producing errors in English.

Turning to the influence of L1 on the L2 learning process, females rather than males, as well as highly intrinsically motivated students rather than students with low intrinsic motivation, were more likely to agree that L1 knowledge helps the L2 learning process. Moreover, males were found more likely than females to report that L1 does not help the L2 learning process.

With respect to students' affective responses to CF, the likelihood of agreeing with a range of positive feelings was significantly predicted by a motivational factor.

Specifically, the odds of agreeing that receiving CF is encouraging, satisfying, positive, and useful, were higher for intrinsically motivated students than for students with low intrinsic motivation. Moreover, the more extroverted the students the more likely were they to agree that receiving CF is positive, and satisfying. In addition, finding CF provision satisfying was of a high probability for introverted students. Therefore, both extroverted and introverted students believed that receiving CF is satisfying.

With regards to negative feelings associated with CF, the likelihood of reporting that receiving CF is irritating, negative, or that students do not pay attention to it, was significantly explained by a motivational predictor. The odds of agreeing with such statements were higher for extrinsically motivated students, than for students with low extrinsic motivation. In contrast, intrinsically motivated students were less likely than students with low intrinsic motivation to associate such negative feelings with CF. In addition, the likelihood of agreeing with such statements was higher for students with high self-esteem, than for students with low self-esteem. On the contrary, the more extroverted the students, the less likely were they to believe that receiving CF is irritating, or negative.

Furthermore, feeling embarrassed or uneasy when receiving CF were significantly explained by anxiety. The more anxious the students the more likely were they to agree that they feel embarrassed, or uneasy, when their teachers correct them. Instead, the more extroverted the learners, the less likely were they to agree that they feel embarrassed. Moreover, the higher the self-esteem of students, the less likely were they to report that they feel uneasy when they receive CF from their teachers.

With respect to students' attitudes towards the degree of error correction, a variance in their responses was explained by a motivational variable, and a personality trait, namely intrinsic motivation, and self-esteem. Specifically, the odds of reporting positive attitudes towards receiving CF when speaking in English, were higher for intrinsically motivated students, than for students with low intrinsic motivation, as well as for students with high self-esteem than for students with low self-esteem. In addition, the more intrinsically motivated, or the higher the self-esteem of learners, the more likely were they to agree that teachers must correct all of the students' oral errors. They were also more likely to

report positive attitudes towards receiving frequent CF in response to different error types.

Regarding students' attitudes towards CF types, different sets of predictors significantly explained variances in students' responses for various CF types. In particular, positive attitudes towards two types of prompts, namely clarification request and elicitation, were associated with extroversion. Specifically, the more extroverted the students, the more likely were they to report positive attitudes towards clarification request and elicitation, both of which return the floor to the students, targeting self-correction.

Furthermore, positive attitudes towards another type of prompt, that of metalinguistic feedback were found to be significantly explained by a motivational variable, namely intrinsic motivation. Notably, the more intrinsically motivated the students, the more likely were they to rate metalinguistic feedback positively. Contrary to the two previous types of prompts i.e. clarification request and elicitation, metalinguistic feedback leans on the more explicit side of prompts.

The likelihood of reporting positive attitudes towards the reformulation CF type of recast was explained by personality traits. It was noticeable that both extroversion and introversion were found to predict similar results. To clarify, the more extroverted, or introverted the students, the more likely were they to rate recast positively. Consequently, both extroverted and introverted students expressed positive attitudes towards recast. Nonetheless, recast can be considered more or less implicit or explicit, depending on its length, mode, and scope, amongst other characteristics. However, no indications relating to these characteristics were presented to the students for rating. Thus, the possibility that in response to such characteristics the influence of extroversion and introversion on students' attitudes might have been different was not explored.

Finally, the likelihood of reporting positive attitudes towards no correction were significantly explained by a biological characteristic and a motivational variable, namely gender and extrinsic motivation. Specifically, the odds of reporting positive attitudes towards receiving no correction following their errors were higher for males rather than

for females, and higher for extrinsically motivated students than for students with low extrinsic motivation.

4.4 Discussion

In this section, I interpret the findings of the current Chapter in light of relevant empirical and theoretical literature. In particular, firstly, I discuss the Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes towards error production and CF. Then, I discuss the influence of individual difference concepts on learners' attitudes.

4.4.1 Students' attitudes towards error production and CF

With respect to attitudes towards error production, Greek-Cypriot EFL students placed the influence of SMG knowledge at the top of the reasons that they produce errors in English. The second most influential reason was the insufficient knowledge of English, followed by the knowledge of CG. Moreover, although students recognised that they produce both oral and written errors in English, a higher percentage stated that they produce written errors compared to oral errors. Taking such outcomes into consideration, students' attitudes towards oral and written error production could have been influenced by the fact that Cyprus is a *bidialectal* setting (Tsiplakou et al., 2006; Tsiplakou, 2009; Arvaniti, 2010; Grohmann, 2011; Rowe & Grohmann, 2013).

To clarify, Greek-Cypriots move back and forth across a border area of a dialect continuum, with the varieties in contact being the standard, and a genetically related dialect of the same language (Yiakoumeti, 2006; Yule, 2010). In particular, Greek-Cypriots learn literacy in Standard Modern Greek (SMG), the superposed 'High' variety, but they grow up using Cypriot-Greek (CG), the local vernacular 'Low' variety (Tsiplakou et al., 2006; Tsiplakou, 2009; Grohmann, 2014). Hence, it is not SMG that is naturally acquired, because it is learned through the educational system. CG is the variety that is acquired naturally (Keyne, 2007; Grohmann, 2011).

The fact that they learn to write in SMG means that learners need to learn new language elements, despite the relatedness between the two varieties, therefore, SMG acts as the

'school' mother tongue (Yiakoumeti, 2006; Pittas & Nunes, 2014). Consequently, firstly, considering that Greek-Cypriots associate SMG with writing and CG with oral production, suggests that the reason they placed SMG as the most influential factor could be related to their perceptions of producing more written errors than oral errors. It could be the case that fewer students chose CG because fewer students recognised that they produce oral errors in English. Secondly, such outcome raises another issue in relation to attitudes towards the standard and non-standard dialect. To be specific, although in linguistic terms nonstandard dialect varieties function like any other standard variety, students might view the standard as the 'norm'. Hence, the influence of the L1 standard dialect might appear more profound in their minds when learning a standard variety of an L2, precisely because they associate standard L1 knowledge with school learning.

Nonetheless, although Greek-Cypriot students considered that SMG and CG knowledge could influence the production of errors in English, this does not necessarily suggest that they perceive the influence of their L1 knowledge in L2 learning to be solely negative. In fact, as findings indicated, most students expressed that L1 knowledge helps the L2 learning process. Consequently, it appears that while learners acknowledged that their complex L1 situation could influence their L2 learning processes, they also seemed to recognise that their L1 knowledge could benefit their language development. On the one hand, learners recognised that L1 knowledge could cause L2 errors, and this could indicate students' perceptions of potential L1 negative transfer into the L2. On the other hand, they recognised that it could benefit their learning, suggesting that they also acknowledged the potential of L1 positive transfer into the L2.

With respect to students' perceptions of teachers' provision of CF, it was indicated that explicit correction and metalinguistic explanation were the most frequently chosen types. This could be attributed to the fact that these CF types represent the most explicit types across reformulations and prompts respectively (Lyster et al., 2013). Therefore, it might be easier for students to perceive the corrective purpose of these feedback types compared to other more implicit types, and that might be the reason that most students picked these two techniques as being part of their teachers' CF. Moreover, EFL students might focus on form even in meaning-focused activities (Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2004; Sheen, 2004), and this could also explain why metalinguistic feedback was amongst students'

highest selections for teachers' CF. Metalinguistic feedback is a CF type that focuses on metalanguage. This feedback type comprises metalinguistic comments, questions, or actions, all pointing to metalanguage relevant to the learners' erroneous productions. Taking into consideration that students in EFL contexts and especially in private language institutions tend to focus both on form and meaning, suggests that students were able to perceive metalinguistic feedback, because they generally tend to focus on form during their lessons. Consequently, this appeared to make it 'easier' for students to recognise this CF type. In the next chapter, I explore the distribution of CF types in naturalistic classrooms, and it will be revealed whether the frequency of these CF types parallels students' perceptions.

As for students' attitudes towards different CF types, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback were rated by the students most positively in terms of quality, compared to other feedback types. As already stated above, these two CF types are considered to be the most explicit types among reformulations and prompts, and they were also the ones that the majority of students expressed familiarity with, since they were reported by most students as part of their teachers' CF. Accordingly, students' positive ratings towards these CF types could be attributed to their explicitness, and to students' familiarity with them. Such preferences towards explicit feedback types were in line with previous studies that were conducted in other instructional settings, which studied students' attitudes towards explicit versus implicit CF. In particular, the majority of EFL and ESL students indicated a positive attitude towards explicit correction techniques (Schulz, 2001; Sheen, 2006; Amador, 2008; Lee, 2013).

Nonetheless, there were also studies that found EFL and ESL students to prefer implicit correction (Loewen et al., 2009; Faqeih, 2015). Accordingly, most instructional contexts, including the present one, revealed that students favoured explicit feedback techniques. This suggests that teachers should not be afraid to provide overt correction to students' erroneous utterances. Such a suggestion also appears to be supported by the link that emerged between the fact that Greek-Cypriot students expressed familiarity towards the same techniques which they favoured i.e. explicit feedback and metalinguistic feedback. Familiarity with the techniques suggests awareness of their provision, which could be attributed to the directness of these CF types. What remains to be discovered, is whether

students' perceptions and positive attitudes, parallel actual distribution, and success of CF, and these will be explored in the next chapter.

Furthermore, with respect to specific feedback types, recast and elicitation followed explicit correction and metalinguistic explanation, in terms of Greek-Cypriot EFL learners' highest positive rates. Similarly, among the CF types that were favoured by EFL students in Japanese universities were metalinguistic feedback, recasts, and explicit correction, with elicitation occupying the first place (Katayama, 2007). Likewise, Iranian EFL learners rated metalinguistic feedback and recast most positively, whereas Chinese EFL students favoured explicit correction and prompts (Zhao, 2015). Japanese EFL students expressed a clear preference for self-correction prompting CF types (Yoshida, 2008). In contrast, Lee (2013) found that adult ESL advance-level students linked clarification requests with teachers' lack of attention, and they disliked metalinguistic feedback. The findings of this study appear to parallel most other instructional contexts, because the students in other EFL contexts, as well as the students in the Japanese immersion setting expressed positive attitudes towards CF types that were also favoured by the Greek-Cypriot EFL students.

As far as affective responses to CF are concerned, Greek-Cypriot EFL students agreed with statements expressing positive feelings towards CF (useful, positive, and satisfying). Moreover, they expressed a positive attitude towards receiving CF for their oral productions. Such positive attitudes towards error correction were in line with most studies which were conducted in other instructional settings. In particular, ESL students (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Chenoweth et al., 1983; McCargar, 1993; Faqeih, 2015), as well as EFL and FL learners expressed an overall positive attitude towards oral error correction (Casciani & Rapallino, 1991; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996; 2001; Katayama, 2007; Brown, 2009; Jean & Simard, 2011; Azar & Molavi, 2013; Zhao, 2015; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). In contrast, Loewen et al. (2009) found that error correction was viewed somewhat negatively by students, especially by the ESL students compared to the FL ones.

In addition, Greek-Cypriot EFL learners disagreed with statements expressing negative attitudes towards CF (embarrassing, irritating, negative, and uneasy). Moreover, they

expressed a negative stance towards no correction. Such findings paralleled students' attitudes from other studies who stated that CF does not make them feel embarrassed (Oladejo, 1993; Lee, 2013), and that they have rarely or never experienced negative feelings when corrected (Roothoof & Breeze, 2016).

Consequently, firstly, students' positive attitudes towards error correction across different instructional contexts suggest that teachers should correct students' errors, because students ask for CF. Secondly, Greek-Cypriots' positive attitudes could be appointed to their learning environment. To be specific, the role of English language learning is of a special value in Cyprus. Apart from the fact that children start learning English from the first grade in state primary schools, parents also register their children to attend private afternoon English lessons at EFL institutes, which usually take place twice per week. In these afternoon EFL institutes, students are typically prepared for international examinations, and the ultimate goal is to succeed in the advanced levels of these exams. Considering these, it could be suggested that learners value CF, because it is a methodological tool that can help them improve and become better language learners, which would eventually help them perform well in these exams.

As for the degree of CF provision, Greek-Cypriot EFL students expressed positive attitudes towards receiving constant CF, since the majority stated that they want their teachers to correct all of their errors when using the L2. Such outcomes paralleled findings from other studies such as students' attitudes from fifteen different countries (Ancker, 2000), ESL students in Singapore (Oladejo, 1993), Chinese EFL students (Zhao, 2015), ESL students in Montreal (Jean & Simard, 2011), adult ESL advance-level students (Lee, 2013), and adult and secondary EFL students in Spain (Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). In contrast, almost half of EFL students at Japanese universities were not positive towards the correction of all errors (Katayama, 2007). Such outcomes indicate that in the majority of instructional settings, students held positive attitudes toward CF.

Nonetheless, students' positive attitudes do not appear to parallel teachers' willingness to offer error correction. Previous studies indicated that teachers held negative attitudes towards correcting all errors, and this was appointed to their efforts not to interrupt the flow of communication, and to their fears of a potential negative impact on students'

confidence, and levels of anxiety (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Schulz, 1996, 2001; Ancker, 2000; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Brown, 2009; Vasquez & Harvey, 2010; Yoshida, 2010; Simard & Jean, 2011; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). However, considering students' positive attitudes towards frequent CF, both in this study and in most other settings, it could be suggested that teachers should not be reluctant to correct their students' erroneous utterances, because learners ask for it.

Concerning types of errors, Greek-Cypriots expressed a willingness to have different types of errors always or very often corrected (i.e. grammatical, lexical, inappropriate cultural phrasing, phonological), without favouring a specific type of error. Such an outcome suggests that learners recognised that they produce different types of errors, and perhaps due to their positive attitudes towards CF in general, they did not express a particular preference, but a general willingness to receive CF for different types of errors.

On the contrary, undergraduate students in Spain expressed a preference for error correction on specific errors, due to their concerns that CF may inhibit communication (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). Perhaps students at an undergraduate level who are typically more advanced learners care more about meaning-focused instruction instead of form focused instruction. The current sample of Greek-Cypriot EFL students comprised not only undergraduates, but also students in primary and secondary schools, and this might be the reason that a broader picture emerged. It would be interesting though to discover whether students at different proficiency levels in Cyprus would share different attitudes towards error type correction.

4.4.2 Students' attitudes in relation to their individual differences

With respect to the influence of students' individual differences on their attitudes towards error production, relations emerged between students' attitudes, gender, and motivation. In particular, females were more likely than males, and highly intrinsically motivated students were more likely than students with low intrinsic motivation, to state that they produce oral errors in English. Females and highly intrinsically motivated students were also found to be more positive compared to males and students with low intrinsic motivation towards the influence of L1 knowledge on the L2 learning process, since they were more likely to state that L1 knowledge helps the L2 learning process. Moreover,

males were more likely than females to express positive attitudes towards no correction, and this appears to reflect their stance towards error production, in view of the fact that they were less likely than females to state that they produce oral errors in English. Such outcomes suggest that male students might be more confident than female learners.

With respect to age, the older the learners the more likely were they to state that they produce oral errors in English. They were also more likely compared to younger learners to state that it is difficult to notice their errors. Such outcomes suggest that older learners might perceive CF more easily than younger learners, and this could be attributed to adolescents appearing to be more self-conscious compared to children. In classroom settings, older learners were found able to gain similar benefits from error correction irrespectively of CF type, whereas younger learners appeared more sensitive to the impact of CF (Lyster et al., 2013). Studies have indicated that whilst older learners benefitted from both recasts and prompts, younger learners benefitted more from prompts than from recasts (Oliver, 2000, 2002; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Lyster & Saito, 2010). Taking into consideration such findings, the fact that in the present study older learners reported greater awareness about CF could be attributed to the fact that younger learners appear more sensitive to different CF types compared to older learners.

With regards to students' affective responses to error correction, a relation between highly intrinsically motivated learners and positive feelings was found. In particular, highly intrinsically motivated students were more likely than students with low intrinsic motivation to agree that receiving CF is encouraging, satisfying, positive, and useful. Consequently, they were less likely than students with low intrinsic motivation to express agreement in response to statements that associated CF with negative feelings, and that they do not pay attention to teachers' CF. Intrinsic motivation is considered to be a fully self-determined type of motivation which is regulated by the activity per se. It refers to the students' performances of certain actions due to stimulation, reflecting excitement and enjoyment, due to feelings of accomplishment for achieving personal goals, or for the pleasure of gaining knowledge in relation to the L2 country, expressing a cultural interest towards it (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Noels 2003; Noels, et al., 1999, 2000, 2001). Hence, considering that intrinsic motivation comes "from within" (Hall, 2011, p.

136), such positive attitudes appear to reflect students' intrinsic interest to English language learning.

Concerning students' attitudes towards the degree of CF provision, highly intrinsically motivated students were found more likely than students with low intrinsic motivation to express positive attitudes towards receiving CF as a response to their oral productions. They were also found more likely than students with low intrinsic motivation to express agreement that teachers must correct all oral errors. As for the degree of correction of different error types, high intrinsic motivation was also found associated with positive attitudes towards receiving frequent CF in response to all kinds of errors. Such outcomes were in line with the fact that students with high intrinsic motivation associated CF with positive feelings.

As for CF types, highly intrinsically motivated learners were found more likely than students with low intrinsic motivation to express positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback. Considering the nature of this CF type, which does not only prompt learners to self correct but also provides metalanguage in relation to the error, suggests that their genuine interest towards language learning could be the reason that they favored this feedback type. To clarify, their satisfaction in mastering linguistic challenges in the target language perhaps makes them more willing to make an effort to grasp metalanguage; because when they manage to self correct due to their understanding of the metalanguage provided in CF, their motivation increases, and they might feel stronger students. Such a 'cycle' of intrinsic motivation, access to CF, and satisfaction of self-correction, could explain their preferences towards metalinguistic feedback.

In contrast to highly intrinsically motivated students who were found to associate positive feelings with CF, highly extrinsically motivated students were found to be related to statements expressing not only positive but also negative feelings towards CF. With regards to positive feelings, highly extrinsically motivated learners were more likely than low extrinsically motivated learners to agree that receiving CF is satisfying. Nonetheless, highly extrinsically motivated students were also found more likely than low extrinsically motivated students to agree that receiving error correction is irritating, and negative, and that they do not pay attention to teachers' CF. Moreover, they were found more likely

than low extrinsically motivated students to express positive attitudes towards no correction.

Extrinsic motivation is related to parents/guardians' demands to learn English, to the opportunity to receive rewards, to students' potential internal pressures for following external compulsory rules, or to students' potential career aspirations (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002). In view of extrinsic motivation coming from "outside" the learner (Hall, 2011, p. 136), the fact that negative feelings towards CF were associated with extrinsically motivated students, but not with intrinsically motivated students, suggests that students who are intrinsically motivated value CF more than those who are extrinsically motivated. This could be attributed to the fact that CF encompasses a methodological act of improving a language learner, and students with intrinsic motivation have a stronger and more genuine interest towards language learning, as indicated from the findings above; thus they might care more about CF, because they also care more about improving as language learners.

With respect to personality traits, high anxiety students were more likely than low anxiety learners to report agreement with statements of feeling embarrassed, and uneasy when receiving CF. Nonetheless, such feelings did not prevent them from also expressing that teachers must correct all of the students' oral errors. Such an outcome suggests that despite the fact that anxiety could influence how learners feel when receiving CF, they also seem to acknowledge the importance of CF. The claim that overt correction can influence students' affective filter by raising it does seem relevant here, since a low affective filter would translate into for example, low levels of anxiety and of negative feelings associated with language learning (Krashen, 1983, 1985, 2013). However, students' beliefs that teachers must correct students' errors appear to undermine the idea of an affective filter, more likely suggesting that a 'one size fits all' approach to error correction does not seem the most promising to follow. Perhaps teachers could provide high anxiety learners with more implicit CF, whether it is prompts or reformulations, allowing students to 'save face'.

Contrary to high anxiety learners that were more likely than low anxiety learners to agree that they feel embarrassed when receiving CF, highly extroverted students were less

likely than students with low extroversion to report agreement with such a statement. Moreover, highly extroverted students were more likely than students with low extroversion to agree that receiving CF is positive, and satisfying. In addition, they were less likely than students with low extroversion to associate CF with negative feelings, or to consider it irritating. Their attitudes towards CF reflected the fact that they were also found more likely than students with low extroversion to express positive attitudes towards receiving CF as a response to their oral productions, and to agree that teachers must correct all oral errors.

Furthermore, with respect to CF types, highly extroverted students were found more likely than students with low extroversion to express positive attitudes towards elicitation and clarification requests. Considering that students with high extroversion are considered to be sociable and talkative, they tend to like classroom discussions, studying with a group, and receiving explanations from teachers or classmates (Laney, 2002; Richard & Schmidt, 2002; Dörnyei, 2005), such positive perceptions towards CF, and towards prompts, do not seem surprising. Oral CF and especially prompts could cause pressure to students, because CF occurs within a classroom environment, and prompts push learners to identify their errors and self-correct in front of their peers. Hence, students with high extroversion appear less likely to feel threatened by CF, or by prompts, due to their willingness to participate in classroom interactions.

Additionally, both highly extroverted and highly introverted students were associated with positive attitudes towards recast. An implicit CF type, recast provides positive evidence to learners, and its corrective purpose is not explicitly signaled, therefore learners need to infer the negative evidence. Although this can make a recast ambiguous with respect to its corrective purpose, it can also make it appear less face-threatening for students. While highly extroverted students also favored prompts, highly introverted students expressed positive attitudes only toward recast. Considering that students with high introversion are more quiet, and passive (Laney, 2002; Richard & Schmidt, 2002; Dörnyei, 2005), suggests that implicit CF might allow them to 'save face' within a classroom environment, and this could explain their positive attitudes towards recast. At this point I should mention that the statement associating CF with the feeling of satisfaction was associated with students of both high and low extroversion. Such a

feeling could reflect students' perceptions of teacher CF as offering them individualised attention, and as helping them to progress. Consequently, receiving CF could be viewed somewhat fulfilling for students irrespective of whether they are highly extroverted or introverted. This outcome suggests that students might express positive attitudes towards more or less implicit CF types based on traits of their personality, which does not necessarily imply negative attitudes toward CF in general.

4.5 Summary

To summarise, the present chapter revealed Greek-Cypriot EFL students' perceptions about error production and CF. In particular, it was indicated that learners recognised the potentials for both L1 negative and positive transfer into the L2. With respect to negative L1 transfer, SMG was perceived as more influential than CG by the students, and this was attributed to the fact that it is the standard dialect, associated with literacy learning. With regards to learners' perceptions of teacher CF, the types that they recognised as part of their teachers' feedback i.e. explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, were also the ones that they favoured the most. Therefore, a link between familiarity and explicitness emerged, which suggested that learners' awareness of CF was associated with positive attitudes.

Furthermore, the present Chapter indicated that Greek-Cypriot EFL learners shared an overall positive attitude towards CF. They expressed that receiving CF is positive, useful and satisfying, and vice versa disagreed that receiving CF is embarrassing, irritating, negative, and uneasy. Students' positive attitudes were attributed to their learning environment and to the prominent status of the English language in Cyprus. In addition, students expressed positive attitudes towards constant CF provision, in response to all kinds of errors. Such outcomes suggest that EFL teachers should not be reluctant to provide CF in response to students' errors, because most learners want to have their errors corrected.

The findings also indicated that despite the general positive stance of Greek-Cypriot EFL learners towards CF, their individual differences could affect their attitudes, and could reflect their approach to, and their motives for learning. Specifically, highly intrinsically

motivated students expressed solely positive attitudes towards CF, since they believed that receiving CF is positive, useful, and satisfying. Moreover, they were positive toward constant CF provision, and favoured metalinguistic feedback. Such positive attitudes toward error correction appear to reflect their genuine interest for English language learning, considering that CF could help them improve as language learners. Moreover, considering their satisfaction to perform well in the L2, their interest toward metalinguistic feedback could be explained through a 'cycle', starting from students' intrinsic motivation, effort to grasp metalanguage in CF, access to CF, satisfaction of self-correction, and back to increased motivation. In contrast, although highly extrinsically motivated learners shared positive attitudes, they mostly perceived CF as negative and irritating, and they were likely to agree that they do not pay attention to teachers' CF.

Moreover, the Chapter indicated that students' personality traits affected their attitudes towards CF. In particular, findings revealed that high anxiety learners associated error correction with feeling embarrassed and uneasy. Nonetheless, they also believed that teachers must correct all of students' oral errors. This suggest that although anxiety could affect how students perceive CF, it does not necessarily suggest that they do not value CF. Based on such outcomes, it could be suggested that teachers could provide implicit CF to high anxiety learners, in order to reduce the extent that CF can appear face threatening.

Contrary to high anxiety students, highly extroverted students disagreed that receiving CF is negative, embarrassing, and irritating, and vice versa agreed that receiving CF is positive and satisfying. Moreover, they expressed positive attitudes towards elicitation, clarification request, and recast. Considering that oral CF and especially prompts could cause pressure to students to self-correct in front of their peers, the outcomes appear to reflect the fact that students with high extroversion are more willing to participate in classroom interactions. It could be suggested that teachers could provide both implicit and explicit CF to students with high extroversion because based on the outcomes, they appear less likely to feel threatened by CF. On the contrary, due to the fact that students with high introversion expressed positive attitudes towards CF, but only favoured recast, suggests that teachers could provide more implicit CF to allow students to 'save face'.

To conclude, this Chapter revealed the perceptions of Greek-Cypriot EFL learners towards error production, and their attitudes towards CF. Findings indicated that students held a generally positive stance towards CF, but individual differences explained variances in their attitudes. Based on the findings of this Chapter, it could be suggested that EFL teachers should generally provide CF in response to their students' erroneous utterances. Furthermore, teachers should not be afraid to provide both implicit and explicit reformulations and prompts. However, it seems important that teachers are aware that each student might feel differently when receiving CF during a lesson. Therefore, teachers should ask and learn about the individuality of their students, and perhaps they could try to offer individualised treatment, by tailoring the use of CF. Students' perceptions towards CF types cannot suggest the benefits that they can have on students' learning processes. However, as findings from this Chapter showed, different learners experience oral CF differently, and teachers' practices could shape how students feel within a classroom environment. Therefore, taking into consideration students' attitudes towards CF might help teachers to accommodate their teaching methods in order to provide students with a better language learning experience.

In the next Chapter, the CF is explored in naturalistic classroom settings, to identify different CF types, and their success in terms of learner uptake. Taking into consideration students' perceptions of teacher CF, it will be indicated whether they parallel actual distribution in naturalistic classrooms. Moreover, considering students' attitudes towards CF types, it will be revealed whether CF types favoured by students are successful in terms of uptake. The relations between students' attitudes, individual differences, and success of CF are explored afterward in Chapter 6.

5. Findings and discussion: Errors, CF, and learner uptake

5.1 Introduction

The goal of the present chapter is to answer Research Question 2 which aims to investigate error-treatment interactional patterns that emerge from naturalistic classroom data of Greek-Cypriot English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. Firstly, distributions of Corrective Feedback (CF) elements, namely error types, feedback types, and uptake types, as well as relations between them are examined for the present Greek-Cypriot EFL setting. Then, the findings are discussed in relation to relevant theoretical and empirical literature. After this, I try to complement the quantitative findings with qualitative analysis of the data, seeking to increase interpretability, meaningfulness, and validity of the initial quantitative outcomes (Greene et al., 1989). The naturalistic classroom data were examined as a whole, in order to present a descriptive picture of error-treatment interaction patterns, the choice of CF in response to errors, and the effects of CF on immediate uptake. In the end, I summarise both the quantitative and the qualitative outcomes of the Chapter.

5.2 Distribution of the elements of CF episodes

In the following sections, initially, the distribution and frequency of the components of CF episodes are presented, beginning with the distribution of errors, moving on to CF types, and finishing with uptake. Next, the relations between the elements of CF episodes are explored. Starting with the interactions between error types and CF choice, the exploration follows on by investigating the relations between CF and uptake. The purpose of studying these interactions was twofold. One aim was to provide a descriptive picture of error-treatment interaction patterns that emerged from Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms. Following this, the goal was to discover the choice of CF in response to errors, as well as the success of CF on immediate uptake.

The qualitative naturalistic classroom data were firstly quantified, and the statistical analyses were undertaken in Microsoft Excel where manual equations were performed

for the relevant statistical tests. In particular, the tests involved descriptive statistics, chi-square tests for goodness of fit, chi-square tests for independence, and post-hoc tests. Firstly, descriptive statistics were performed for all of the elements of CF episodes to present a general picture of the distribution and frequency of single variables, namely types of error, CF, and uptake, across the sample. Moreover, chi-square tests for goodness of fit were calculated to test their distribution. The claim that was tested regarded the nature of their distribution, as distinct variables, and it was expressed via the following *null hypothesis*: $H_o = O_i = E_i$, i.e. there was an equal number of values for each variable type distributed across the dataset. The null hypothesis was tested as opposite to the *alternative hypothesis*: $H_a = O_i \neq E_i$, i.e. values of variable types were not equally distributed in the dataset.

In addition, I explored the relations between the components of CF episodes. In particular, chi-square tests for independence were performed for two-way contingency tables to test the relations between errors and CF, and between CF and uptake. The *null hypothesis*: $H_o = \text{no association/dependency between } k \text{ classifications}$, supported the claim that there was no relationship between the variables. This was tested in contrast to the *alternative hypothesis*: $H_a = \text{there is association/dependency between } k \text{ classifications}$, which supported the claim that there was a relationship between the variables. An *alpha level* (α) of .05 was set as the cut-off of the probability value, to test the statistical significance for both the chi-square tests for goodness of fit and the chi-square tests for independence (Rumsey, 2010). After the overall chi-square tests, post-hoc tests were performed to determine the differences among the various categories of each variable.

My goal for this section is to present the quantitative findings first, and then to discuss the outcomes in relation to relevant empirical and theoretical literature. A CF episode consists of an error trigger, a feedback move, and an optional uptake. The distributions of these elements are described below, providing a descriptive picture of the interactional patterns emerging from the Greek-Cypriot EFL lessons. I start with the distribution of error types in the following section.

5.2.1 Distribution of errors

Errors represent the start of a reactive CF episode, and findings indicated that error types were not evenly distributed across the dataset. Specifically, as Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1 illustrate, grammatical errors were the most frequently produced errors with 240 cases, comprising almost half of the total error productions at 49%. Following this, lexical errors made up almost a quarter of the total error distribution, with 116 instances, reaching 24%. In contrast, unsolicited uses of L1 and phonological errors were produced in smaller proportions, at 15% and 12% of the total, respectively.

Error	<i>n</i>	%
Grammatical	240	49
Lexical	116	24
Unsolicited use of L1	75	15
Phonological	57	12

Table 5. 1: Number and percentage distribution of error types ($n = 488$)

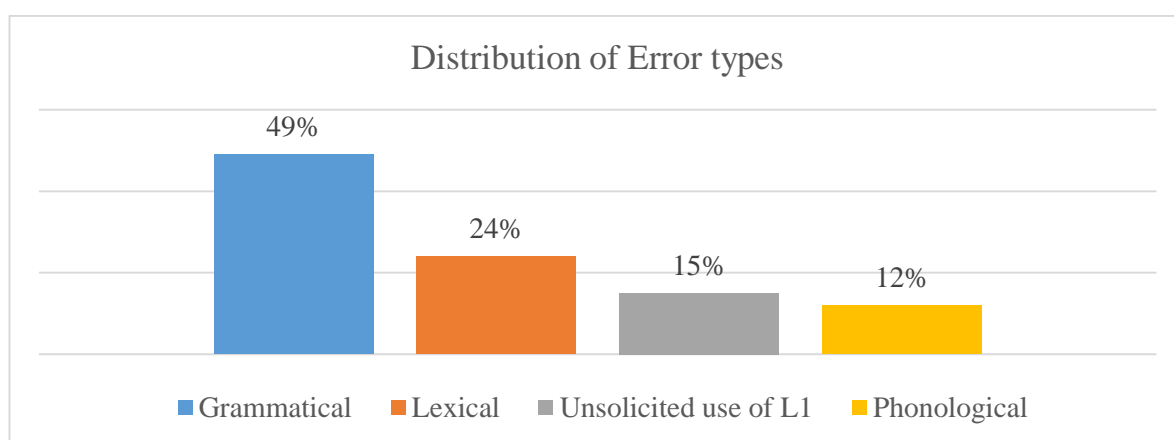


Figure 5. 1: Distribution of error types

A chi-square test for goodness of fit confirmed that error types were not equally distributed across the data sample, $\chi^2(3, n = 488) = 167.16$, $p = .000$. With a highly significant probability value $p < .05$, the null hypothesis ($H_o = O_i = E_i$) was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis ($H_a = O_i \neq E_i$), which claimed that the different error types were not equally distributed in the dataset. Post hoc pairwise binomial tests were then performed to determine the differences between the error types. The significance level was set to .008, because I performed six binomial tests.

Pairwise comparisons revealed that the only pair that did not differ significantly was that of phonological errors with unsolicited uses of L1 ($p = .139$). In contrast, the other pairs shared significant differences. Specifically, grammatical errors were produced significantly higher than lexical, phonological errors, and unsolicited uses of L1 ($p = .000$ for all pairs). Moreover, lexical errors were produced significantly higher than phonological errors ($p = .004$), and unsolicited uses of L1 ($p = .000$). Such findings confirm that grammatical errors were the most frequent, followed by lexical errors.

5.2.2 Distribution of CF

With regards to CF types, they were also found to be unequally distributed in the current sample. As indicated in Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2, the teachers showed a clear preference for providing recast, as it comprised the highest percentage of the total feedback turns at 43%. Recast was by far the most frequent CF type, because metalinguistic feedback in L1, and translation, which were the second highest rates, accounted for a small percentage of the total, at 12% each. The rest of the CF types achieved lower rates, with explicit correction occurring at 7%, whereas elicitation and metalinguistic feedback both reached 6%. Moreover, recast with L1, and translation in L1 occurred at the rate of 4% each. Finally, the less frequent CF types were clarification request, and repetition, which accounted for merely 2% and 1% of the total feedback turns respectively.

CF	<i>n</i>	%
Recast	220	43
Translation	64	12
Metalinguistic feedback in L1	62	12
Explicit correction	35	7
Elicitation	33	6
Metalinguistic feedback	33	6
Recast with L1	19	4
Translation in L1	18	4
Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation	16	3
Clarification Request	12	2
Repetition	5	1

Table 5. 2: Number and percentage distribution of CF types ($n = 517$)

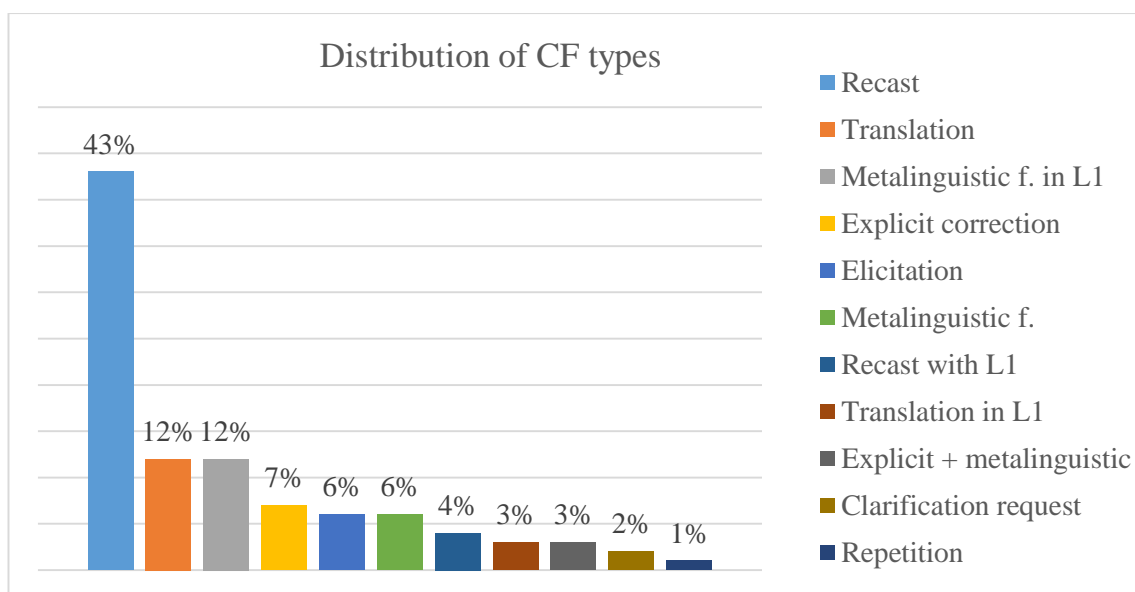


Figure 5. 2: Distribution of CF types

A chi-square test for goodness of fit confirmed that the CF types were not equally distributed across the dataset, $\chi^2(10, n = 517) = 777.45, p = .000$. With a highly significant probability value $p < .05$, the null hypothesis ($H_o = O_i = E_i$) was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis ($H_a = O_i \neq E_i$), which stated that the different feedback types were unequally distributed in the dataset. Next, I performed pairwise binomial tests to determine the differences between the CF types. I applied the Bonferroni correction because I performed 55 binomial tests, therefore the alpha value was set to .001.

Pairwise comparisons confirmed that recast was significantly more frequent than all of the other CF types, namely metalinguistic feedback in L1, explicit correction, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, recast with L1, translation in L1, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, clarification request, and repetition ($p = .000$ for all pairs). In addition, translation and metalinguistic feedback in L1 were significantly more frequent than recast with L1, translation in L1, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, clarification request, and repetition ($p = .000$ for all pairs). Moreover, explicit correction was significantly more frequent than clarification request ($p = .001$) and repetition ($p = .000$). Additionally, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation were both significantly more frequent than repetition ($p = .000$ for both pairs). Such findings confirmed that recast was by far the most frequent CF type.

The CF types were also classified within the taxonomy of prompts and reformulations. Prompts consisted of elicitation, clarification request, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and translation in L1. Reformulations comprised explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, recast, recast with L1, and translation. As is evident in Table 5.3 and Figure 5.3, reformulations occurred twice as frequently compared to prompts, with 354 instances reaching two thirds of the total feedback moves at 68%. In contrast, prompts with 163 cases, reached a third of the total at 32%.

CF	<i>n</i>	%
Reformulations	354	68
Prompts	163	32

Table 5. 3: Number and percentage distribution of prompts and reformulations (*n* = 517)

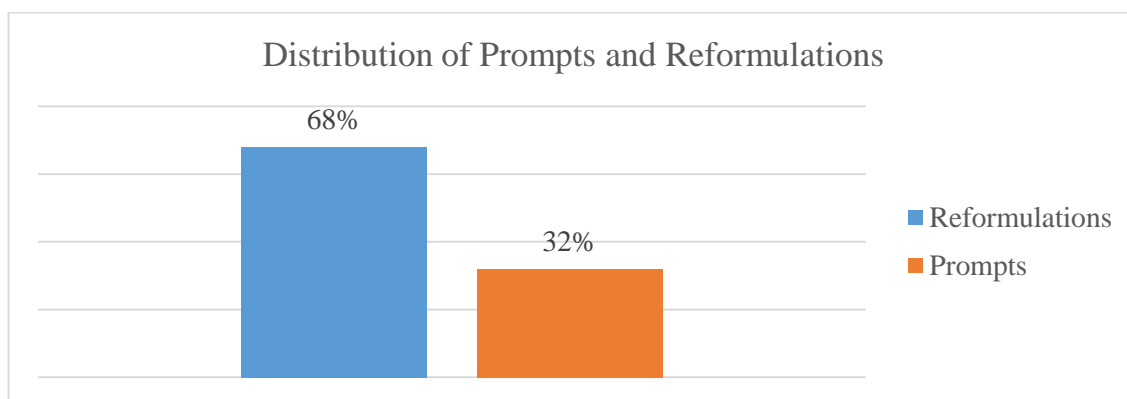


Figure 5. 3: Distribution of prompts and reformulations

A chi-square test for goodness of fit confirmed that prompts and reformulations were not equally distributed across the dataset, $\chi^2(1, n = 517) = 70.56, p = .000$. Accordingly, with a highly significant probability value, $p < .05$, the null hypothesis $H_o = O_i = E_i$ was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis $H_a = O_i \neq E_i$, which claimed an unequal distribution of prompts and reformulations across the dataset. This confirmed that reformulations were significantly more frequent than prompts.

5.2.3 Distribution of uptake

As far as uptake is concerned, a total of 85% of learner uptake production was observed after teachers' provision of CF. As for uptake types, repair, needs-repair, and no uptake were not equally distributed across the data sample. Specifically, as illustrated in Table 5.4 and Figure 5.4, repairs accounted for nearly half of the total uptake distribution at 45%. Needs-repairs followed at 39%, and absence of uptake made up the smallest fraction of the total, at 16%.

Uptake	<i>n</i>	%
Repair	234	45
Needs-repair	201	39
No uptake	82	16

Table 5. 4: Number and percentage distribution of uptake (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake ($n = 517$)

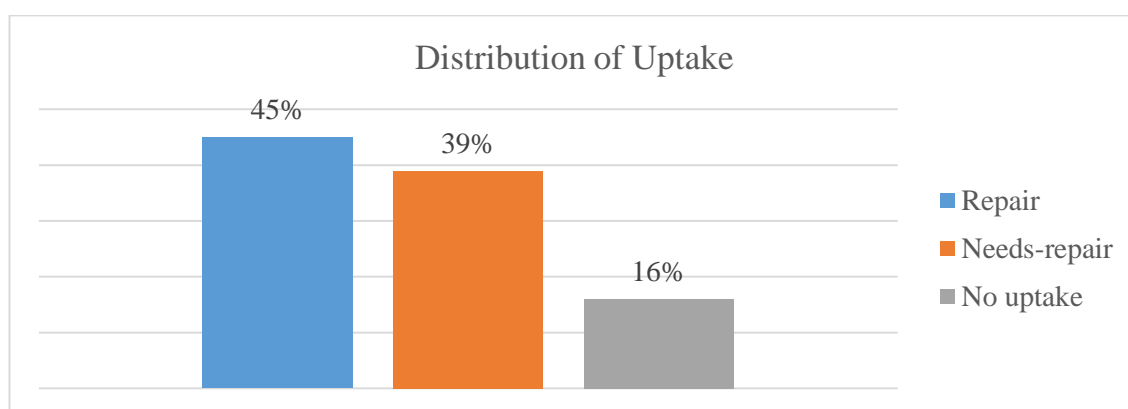


Figure 5. 4: Distribution of uptake (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake

A chi-square test for goodness of fit confirmed that uptake was not equally distributed across the dataset, $\chi^2 (2, n = 517) = 74.19, p = .000$. A highly statistical significant probability value, $p < .05$ allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis ($H_o = O_i = E_i$), in favour of the alternative hypothesis ($H_a = O_i \neq E_i$) which stated that there was an unequal distribution of repair, needs-repair, and absence of uptake in the data. In addition, I performed post hoc binomial tests to determine the differences across the categories of uptake. Pairwise comparisons revealed that the distribution of repair and needs-repair was not significantly different ($p = .125$). However, both repair and needs-repair were significantly more frequent than no uptake, at $p = .000$ for both pairs.

To continue, breaking down the uptake moves in terms of repair and needs-repair types revealed that they were not equally spread across the sample. As is indicated in Table 5.5 and Figure 5.5, the most frequently produced repair type was incorporation (21%), and the most frequent needs-repair move was different error (23%). In addition, two repair types, namely repetition (16%) and self-repair (15%) were the next most frequent uptake types. Acknowledgment (10%), off target (6%) and same error (4%) followed, with less frequency. Finally, peer-repair and partial repair had the lowest occurrence, only reaching 2% each, whereas hesitation occurred for merely 1%.

Uptake	<i>n</i>	%
Different error	101	23
Incorporation	91	21
Repetition	69	16
Self-repair	64	15
Acknowledgment	44	10
Off target	27	6
Same error	16	4
Peer-repair	10	2
Partial repair	7	2
Hesitation	6	1

Table 5. 5: Number and percentage distribution of uptake types (*n* = 435)

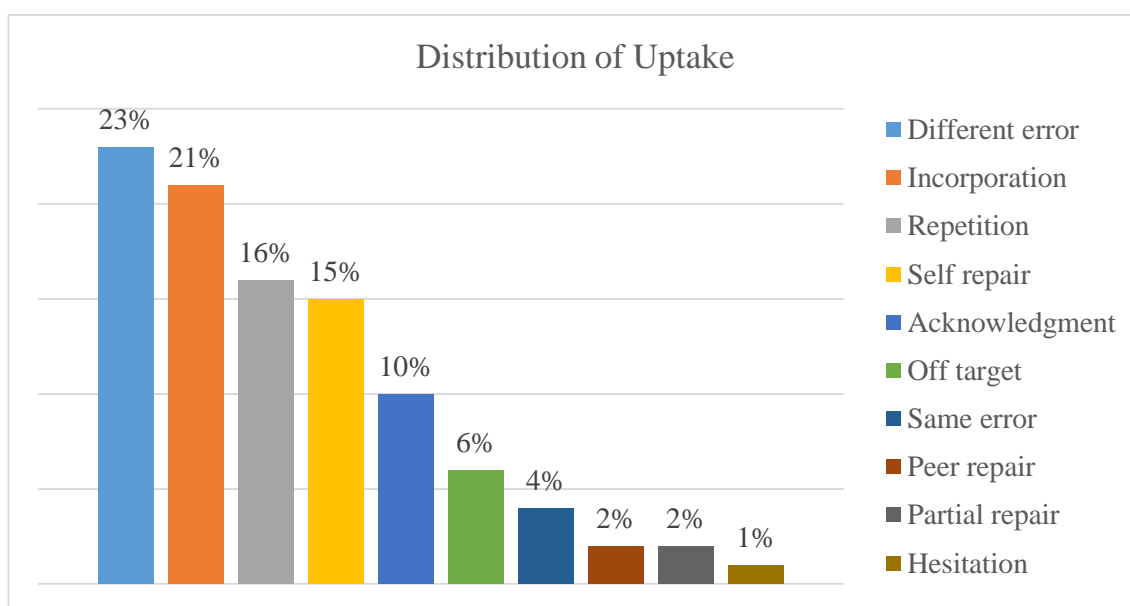


Figure 5. 5: Distribution of uptake types

A chi-square test for goodness of fit confirmed that the various uptake types were not equally distributed across the sample, $\chi^2(9, n = 517) = 264.89, p = .000$. Consequently, with a highly statistically significant probability value of $p < .05$, the null hypothesis ($H_o = O_i = E_i$) was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis ($H_a = O_i \neq E_i$), which claimed that there was an unequal distribution of uptake types across the dataset. Next, I performed post hoc pairwise binomial tests to determine the differences across the uptake types.

Pairwise comparisons confirmed that the most frequent uptake types were different error and incorporation. They were distributed significantly higher than several of the other types, namely acknowledgement, off target, same error, peer-repair, partial repair, and hesitation ($p = .000$ for all pairs). Furthermore, repetition and self-repair were significantly more frequent than off target, same error, peer-repair, partial repair, and hesitation ($p = .000$ for all pairs). In addition, acknowledgment, was significantly more frequent than same error, peer-repair, partial repair, and hesitation ($p = .000$ for all pairs). Lastly, off target was significantly more frequent than partial repair ($p = .001$) and hesitation ($p = .000$). Such findings confirmed that the order of the distribution of the uptake types was significantly different.

To summarise, the different elements that comprised CF episodes were found to be unequally distributed in the data sample. Both learners and teachers were found to produce significantly different rates of error, feedback, and uptake types. Overall, grammatical errors were produced the most by the students, whereas phonological errors the least. Recast achieved the highest percentage among all CF types, and repetition the lowest. Consequently, reformulations occurred at greater numbers compared to prompts. Lastly, repair made up the largest proportion of uptake, and was closely followed by needs-repair. When breaking the uptake types down different error which is a needs-repair type was the most frequent, and was followed by incorporation, a repair type.

The findings that were described in the current section provided the distribution of the elements of CF episodes, without showing a potential relation between them. What follows in the next section is an exploration of the interactions between the elements of CF episodes, and the relationships that they might have with each other.

5.3 Relations between the elements of CF Episodes

Out of the 517 teacher CF provisions that were found in the data sample, 488 (94%) occurred as a response to specific error types. Other errors were part of students' productions which followed teachers' CF acting as needs-repairs of either the same or a different error. These needs-repairs were likely to invite further feedback, resulting in a CF episode that comprised more than three-turns. Teachers' feedback that was not appointed to specific errors was also part of CF episodes that contained more than three-turns, and it was provided to needs-repairs that did not contain a specific error, as for example for an acknowledgment, hesitation, off target, or partial repair. In the following sections, firstly the relations between error types and CF types are illustrated. Then, the associations between CF and uptake types are presented. The ultimate goal was to find the relationships that each of these components might have with each another.

5.3.1 Errors receiving CF

To begin with the relations between errors and CF, Table 5.6 and Figure 5.6 illustrate the distribution of error types in relation to CF types. Concerning grammatical errors, recast (50%) was the most frequent feedback type that was provided in response to grammatical errors. Metalinguistic feedback in L1 (20%) was the second most frequent, but notably with less than half the occurrence of recast. The rest of the CF types reached much lower rates. In particular, with less than half rates compared to metalinguistic feedback in L1, metalinguistic feedback (8%) was the teachers' third most preferred option for the correction of grammatical errors. The rest of the CF types followed in lower rates ranging from explicit correction (6%), elicitation (4%), clarification request (3%), translation in L1 (2%), to repetition (1%). Finally, translation was the only CF type that was not provided in response to grammatical errors.

To continue, like grammatical errors, recast was the most frequent CF type that was provided in response to lexical errors, occurring after 45% of the learners' total lexical error productions. Following recast, different types of prompts occurred at much less frequent rates. In particular, elicitation (11%), metalinguistic feedback (10%), translation in L1 (10%), and metalinguistic feedback in L1 (9%) were provided by the teachers in response to lexical errors, in much less frequent rates relative to recast. The remaining CF types followed lexical errors in decreasingly lower rates, ranging from explicit correction

(6%), clarification request (3%), recast with L1 (3%), repetition (2%), to explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation (1%).

CF	Grammatical <i>n</i> = 240	Lexical <i>n</i> = 116	Phonological <i>n</i> = 57	Unsolicited use of L1 <i>n</i> = 75
Clarification request	3%	3%	-	1%
Elicitation	5%	11%	2%	4%
Explicit correction	6%	6%	11%	3%
Explicit + metaling. f.	4%	1%	4%	4%
Metalinguistic f.	8%	10%	-	1%
Metalinguistic f. in L1	20%	9%	-	3%
Recast	50%	45%	65%	-
Recast with L1	2%	3%	19%	1%
Repetition	1%	2%	-	1%
Translation	-	-	-	79%
Translation in L1	2%	10%	-	3%

Table 5. 6: Percentage distribution of error types receiving each CF type

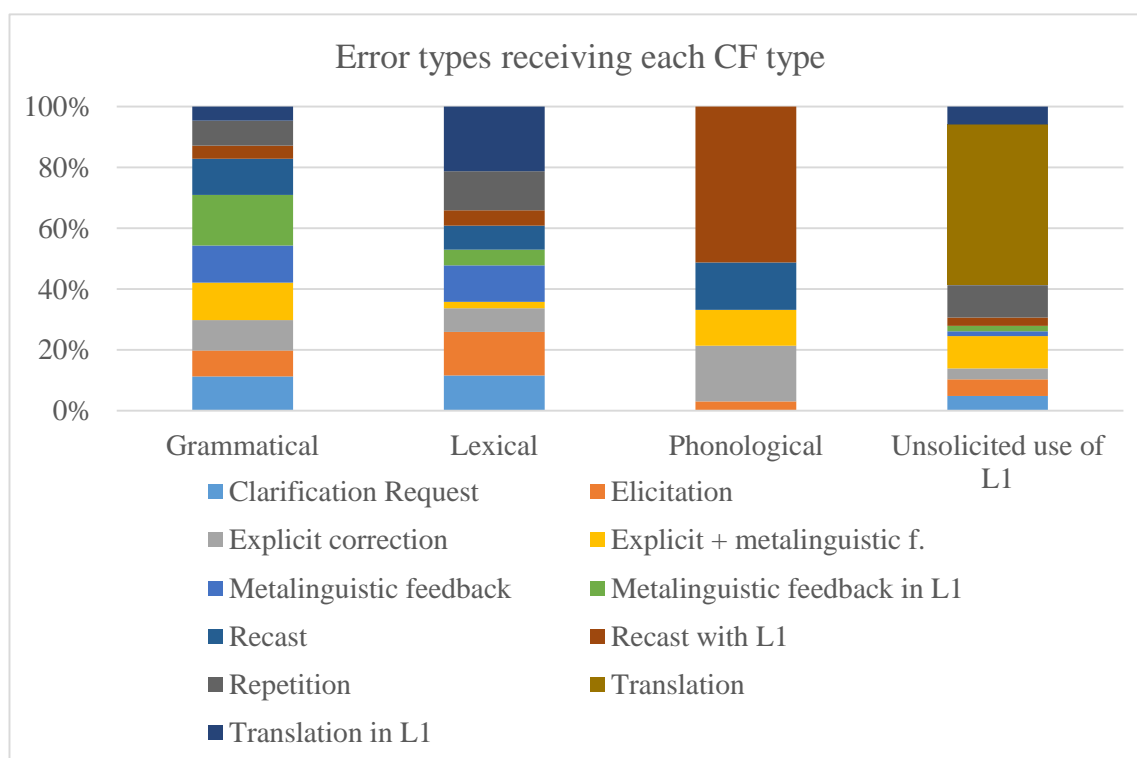


Figure 5. 6: Distribution of error types receiving each CF type

With regards to correcting phonological errors, with two thirds of the total error correction at 65%, recast achieved the highest rate, leaving the other CF types at considerably lower rates. Specifically, recast with L1 was provided in response to phonological errors at 19%. A decrease in frequency followed with explicit correction (11%), explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation (4%), and elicitation (2%). None of the remaining CF types were used by the teachers to correct phonological errors.

As far as CF types in response to unsolicited uses of L1 are concerned, an even larger gap was found between the most frequent CF type and the others. In particular, translation was by far the teachers' most preferred error technique following unsolicited uses of L1, which gained 79%. Elicitation, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation followed translation, at merely 4% each, indicating a considerably large difference in the distribution of the first and the subsequent CF techniques in response to this kind of error. Further incline was observed with metalinguistic feedback in L1, translation in L1, and explicit correction, achieving only 3% each, and with clarification request, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, and recast with L1 occurring at just 1% each. Recast was the only CF type that was not provided in response to unsolicited uses of L1, even though it was the most frequent in response to all of the other error types.

A chi-square test for independence confirmed that there was an association/dependency between the CF types that were provided in response to the error types, $\chi^2 (30, n = 488) = 478.95, p = .000$. Therefore, with a highly statistically significant probability value $p < .05$, the null hypothesis (H_o) was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis (H_a), verifying that the error type affected the choice of CF. A comparison of feedback choice for each error type confirmed that the choices of CF types following each error type were significantly different, with $p < .05$, for grammatical errors, $\chi^2 (10, n = 240) = 580.23, p = .000$; for lexical errors, $\chi^2 (10, n = 116) = 200.72, p = .000$; for phonological errors, $\chi^2 (10, n = 57) = 238.46, p = .000$; and for unsolicited uses of L1, $\chi^2 (10, n = 75) = 440.53, p = .000$.

Moreover, I performed pairwise analyses of the two most frequent error types, namely grammatical and lexical errors to determine the differences across them. I applied the Bonferroni correction to control for Type I error, therefore the significance level was

reduced to .003. The findings revealed that the teachers' choice of CF types after grammatical errors differed significantly from their choice of feedback after lexical errors, $\chi^2 (9, n = 356) = 28.46, p = .000$ (excluding translation due to low frequencies in the expected range which violated one of the assumptions of the test). Similar pairwise analyses were not conducted for the rest of the error types due to the low frequencies in expected frequencies across the eleven CF types, which violated one of the assumptions of chi-square tests.

The CF types were also classified within the taxonomy of prompts and reformulations, thus the relationships between the teachers' provisions of prompts and reformulations in response to errors were also explored. As indicated in Table 5.7, and Figure 5.7, some error-CF pairs had greater differences between them than others. Firstly, in response to grammatical errors, the teachers' preferred CF types were reformulations, with almost two thirds of the total corrections, at 62%. On the contrary, prompts were used as grammatical correction techniques for 38% of the time.

With regards to lexical errors, the choice between the use of reformulations (54%), and prompts (46%) was not of large difference. However, in response to phonological errors, reformulations were chosen almost every time, with a high 98%, leaving prompts at only 2% of the total phonological corrections. Similarly, reformulations were chosen by the teachers for addressing unsolicited uses of L1 with a substantial difference to prompts, at 87%, and 13% respectively. Overall, reformulations occurred at the highest rates compared to prompts, in response to the different error types.

CF	Grammatical <i>n</i> = 240	Lexical <i>n</i> = 116	Phonological <i>n</i> = 57	Unsolicited use of L1 <i>n</i> = 75
Prompts	38%	46%	2%	13%
Reformulations	62%	54%	98%	87%

Table 5. 7: Number and percentage distribution of error types receiving prompts and reformulations

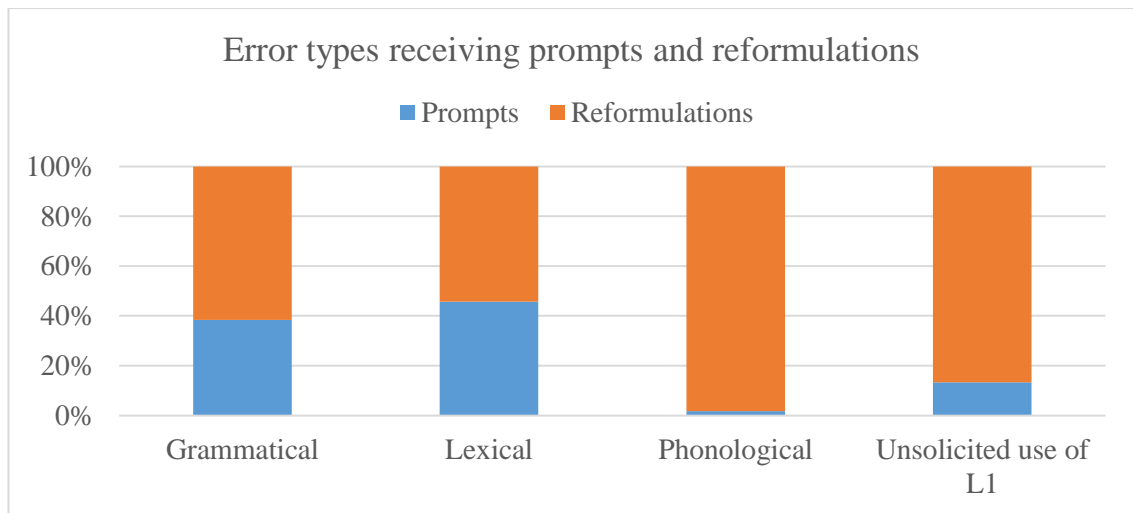


Figure 5. 7: Distribution of error types receiving prompts and reformulations

A chi-square test for independence revealed an interaction between prompts, reformulations, and error types, $\chi^2(1, n = 488) = 50.41, p = .000$. Therefore, with a highly statistically significant probability value $p < .05$, the null hypothesis claiming no dependency between CF and errors was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis, confirming that the error type affected the choice of CF. Next, I performed pairwise comparisons to determine the differences between the categories. I applied the Bonferroni correction to control for Type I error, therefore the alpha value was set to .006.

Pairwise analyses of the error types revealed that the teachers' choice of CF following grammatical errors did not differ significantly from their choice following lexical errors, $\chi^2(1, n = 356) = 1.75, p = .19$. This indicated that both prompts and reformulations were likely to follow grammatical and lexical errors. Moreover, the choice of CF following phonological errors did not differ significantly from their choice following unsolicited uses of L1, $\chi^2(1, n = 132) = 5.68, p = .02$. Such an outcome indicated that reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow phonological errors and unsolicited use of L1.

However, the teachers' choice of CF following grammatical errors differed significantly from their choice of feedback following phonological errors, $\chi^2(1, n = 297) = 28.65, p = .000$, and unsolicited uses of L1, $\chi^2(1, n = 315) = 16.31, p = .000$. Such findings confirmed that reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow phonological errors and unsolicited uses of L1. In addition, teachers' choice of CF after lexical errors differed

significantly from their choice following phonological errors $\chi^2 (1, n = 173) = 34.36, p = .000$ and unsolicited uses of L1, $\chi^2 (1, n = 191) = 31.40, p = .000$. These outcomes confirmed that reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow phonological errors and unsolicited uses of L1, whereas lexical errors welcomed both prompts and reformulations without a significant difference.

A comparison between CF for each error type, further confirmed the different patterns: reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow grammatical errors, $\chi^2 (1, n = 240) = 13.07, p = .000$; phonological errors, $\chi^2 (1, n = 57) = 53.07, p = .000$, and unsolicited uses of L1, $\chi^2 (1, n = 75) = 40.33, p = .000$. In addition, both prompts and reformulations were likely to follow lexical errors, $\chi^2 (1, n = 116) = .86, p = .35$.

In the current section the relations between two of the components of CF episodes, namely errors and CF were explored. In the next section, the interactions between teachers' CF choice and learners' production, or absence of uptake are discovered.

5.3.2 Uptake following CF

Following the investigation of the relations between errors receiving CF, the interactions between teachers' provision of CF types and learners' uptake in response to CF are explored in this section. Firstly, the distribution of the presence and absence of uptake after CF is illustrated. Then, uptake presence is explored in terms of repair and needs-repair turns, modified and unmodified output, and repair and student generated repair, attempting to find the success of different CF types to result in immediate uptake.

5.3.2.1 Presence and absence of uptake

To begin with presence and absence of uptake, as indicated in Table 5.8 and Figure 5.8, elicitation, clarification request, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback achieved the highest scores, with 100% of their total distribution resulting in uptake. Moreover, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and translation in L1 represented very large percentages resulting in uptake at 98% and 94% respectively. Following this, a very large percentage of the total distribution of recast (84%) and translation (81%) resulted in uptake. With more than half of their distribution resulting in uptake, explicit correction at 60%, and

recast with L1 at 58% were next. In contrast, the lowest rates of uptake occurred after the teachers' provision of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, at 38%.

CF type <i>n</i> = 517	Uptake % of CF type	No uptake % of CF type
Clarification request (<i>n</i> = 12)	100%	-
Elicitation (<i>n</i> = 33)	100%	-
Metalinguistic f. (<i>n</i> = 33)	100%	-
Repetition (<i>n</i> = 5)	100%	-
Metalinguistic f. in L1 (<i>n</i> = 62)	98%	2%
Translation in L1 (<i>n</i> = 18)	94%	6%
Recast (<i>n</i> = 220)	84%	16%
Translation (<i>n</i> = 24)	81%	19%
Explicit correction (<i>n</i> = 35)	60%	40%
Recast with L1 (<i>n</i> = 19)	58%	42%
Explicit with metalinguistic (<i>n</i> = 16)	38%	62%

Table 5. 8: Percentage distribution of the presence and absence of uptake following each CF type

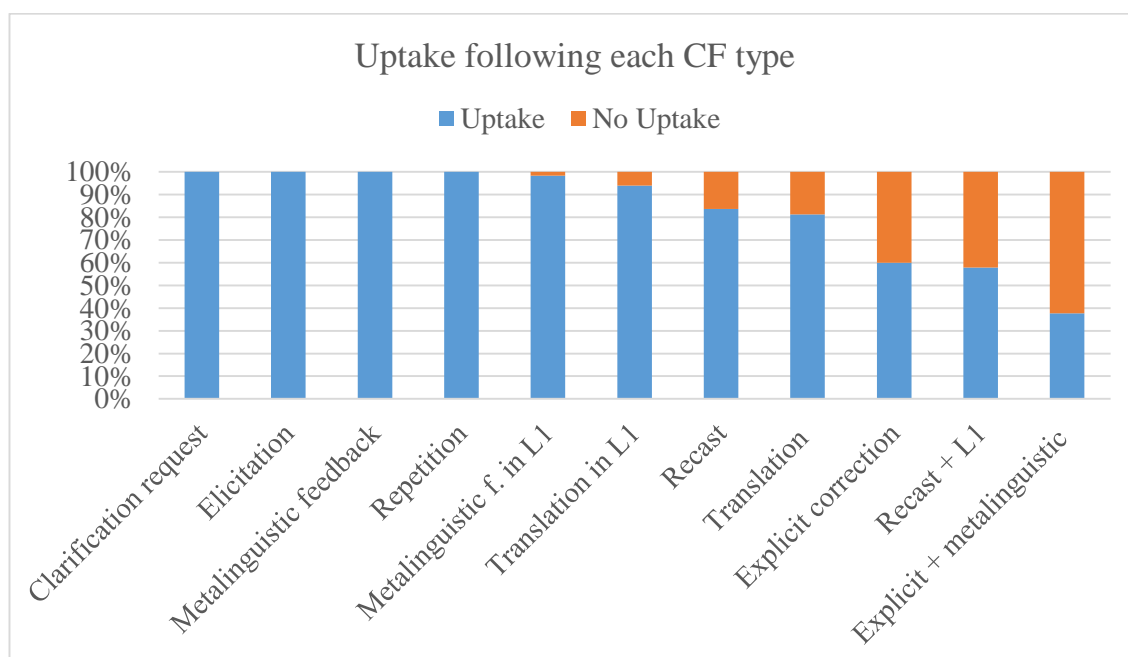


Figure 5. 8: Presence and absence of uptake following each CF type

Presence and absence of uptake attributed to CF types is shown in Table 5.9 and Figure 5.9. As is evident, the highest rates of uptake and no uptake were attributed to recast at

42% and at 44% respectively. The second highest rates of uptake came after metalinguistic feedback in L1 at 14%, followed by translation at 12%. Metalinguistic feedback and elicitation reached 8% each. The rest of the CF types achieved lower scores ranging from 5% to 1%. With respect to absence of uptake, following recast, the second highest rates came after explicit correction at 17%, followed by translation at 15%, and by explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation at 12%. Moreover, absence of uptake occurred after recast with L1 at 10%. In addition, metalinguistic feedback in L1, as well as translation in L1 accounted for 1% each of the total absence of uptake

CF type	Uptake <i>n</i> = 435	No uptake <i>n</i> = 82
Recast	42%	44%
Metalinguistic f. in L1	14%	1%
Translation	12%	15%
Metalinguistic f.	8%	-
Elicitation	8%	-
Explicit correction	5%	17%
Translation in L1	4%	1%
Clarification request	3%	-
Recast with L1	3%	10%
Explicit with metalinguistic f.	1%	12%
Repetition	1%	-

Table 5. 9: Percentage distribution of the presence and absence of uptake attributed to each CF type

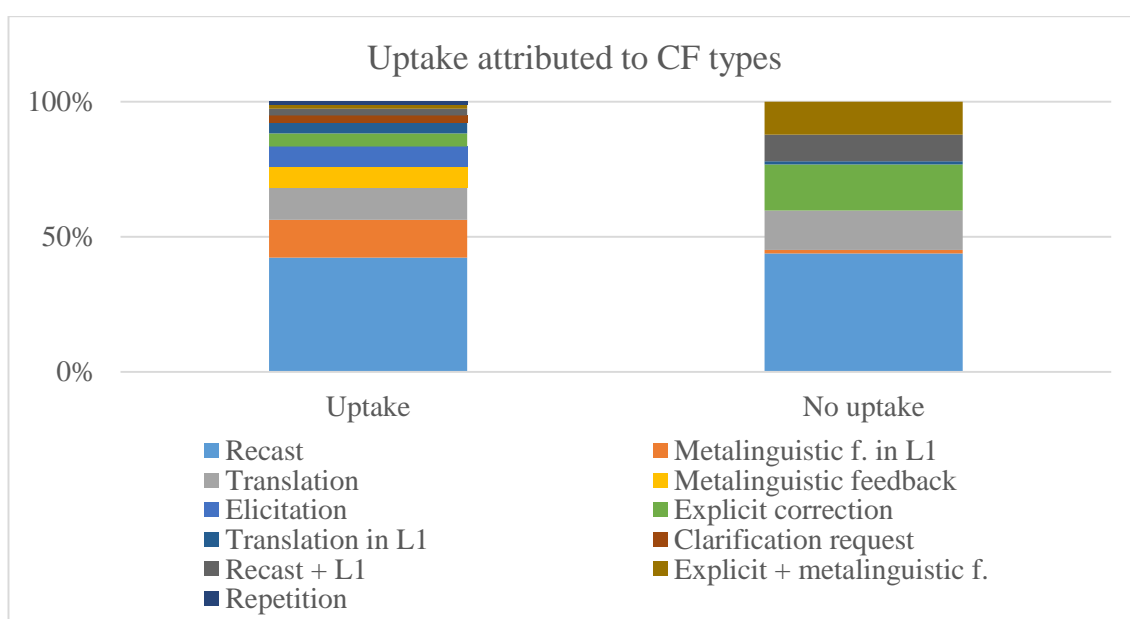


Figure 5. 9: Presence and absence of uptake attributed to each CF type

A chi-square test for independence confirmed that there was a highly significant association between the teachers' choice of CF and the presence or the absence of uptake, $\chi^2 (10, n = 517) = 78.12, p = .000$. A comparison of feedback choice for uptake/no uptake confirmed that the differences in learner uptake production following the different CF types were highly significant, $\chi^2 (10, n = 435) = 665.38, p = .000$, as well as the differences between CF and absence of learner uptake, $\chi^2 (10, n = 82) = 159.73, p = .000$.

With regards to the production of uptake following CF classified as prompts and reformulations, Table 5.10 and Figure 5.10 indicate that almost always, prompts were followed by a learner uptake (99%), whereas reformulations resulted in learner uptake at 77%.

CF <i>n</i> = 517	Uptake % of CF	No Uptake % of CF
Prompts <i>n</i> = 163	99%	1%
Reformulations <i>n</i> = 354	77%	23%

Table 5. 10: Percentage distribution of uptake following prompts and reformulations

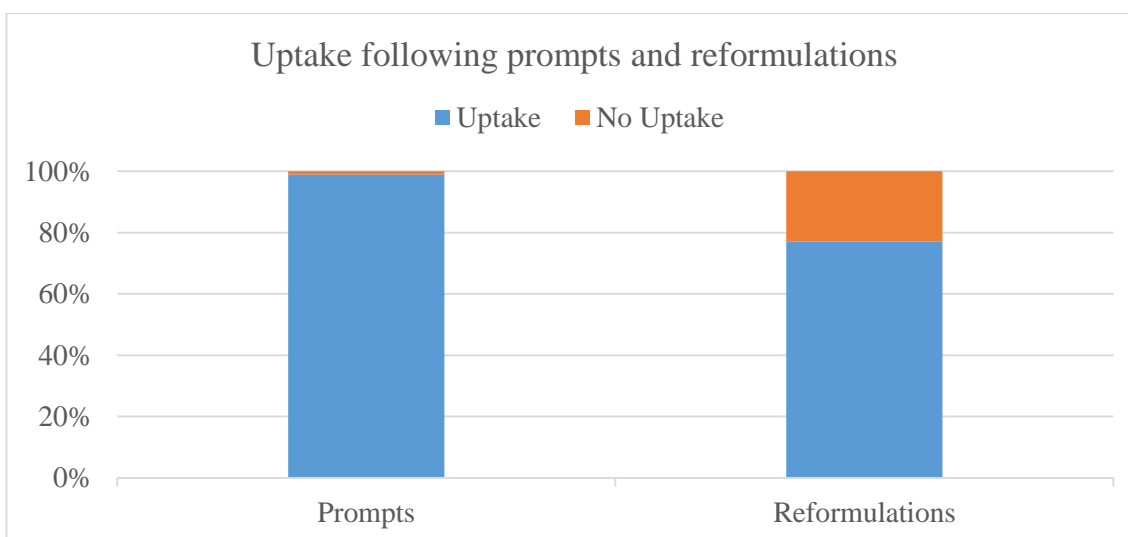


Figure 5. 10: Uptake following prompts and reformulations

Regarding uptake distribution attributed to prompts and reformulations, as indicated in Table 5.11 and Figure 5.11, the highest rates of uptake production (63%) and of absence of uptake (98%) came after reformulations.

CF	Uptake <i>n</i> = 435	No Uptake <i>n</i> = 82
Prompts	37%	2%
Reformulations	63%	98%

Table 5. 11: Percentage distribution of uptake attributed to prompts and reformulations

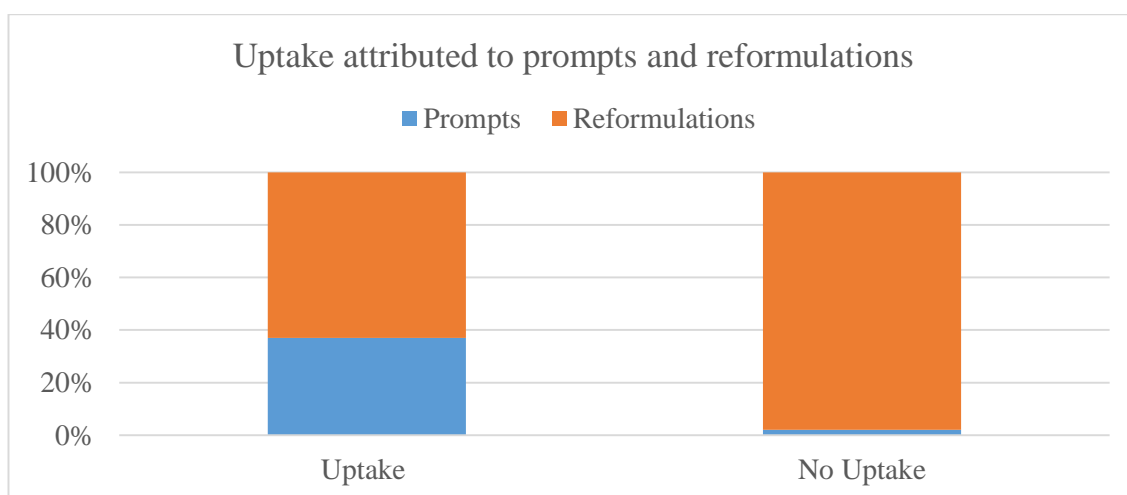


Figure 5. 11: Uptake attributed to prompts and reformulations

Following a chi-square test for independence, the interaction between the production of uptake and CF was found to be highly significant, $\chi^2 (1, n = 517) = 38.20, p = .000$, confirming an association between prompts and reformulations, and the production of uptake. A comparison of feedback choice for uptake and no uptake confirmed that reformulations were significantly more likely than prompts to result both in learner uptake, $\chi^2 (1, n = 435) = 29.35, p = .000$, and in absence of learner uptake, $\chi^2 (1, n = 82) = 74.20, p = .000$.

5.3.2.2 Repair, needs-repair, and absence of uptake

To continue with the investigation concerning the associations between CF and uptake, learners' reactions to CF were measured in terms of repair, needs-repair, and absence of uptake. Specifically, the different types of successful repairs were: a repetition of the teacher's feedback, an incorporation of the teacher's utterance into a longer one, a self-repair when the student corrects him/herself, or a peer-repair. The different types of needs-repair were: an acknowledgment of the teacher's feedback, production of the same, or of a different error, an off target utterance that avoids the teacher's linguistic focus, a hesitation, or a partial repair.

Observing the presence of uptake as repair or needs-repair moves revealed specific patterns. The first way of analysing this involved the distribution of uptake in terms of its presence or absence after each CF type. As illustrated in Table 5.12 and Figure 5.12, the highest rates of learner repairs were produced after the teachers' provision of translation at 61%, although translation was not among the CF types which produced the highest overall rates of uptake. In contrast, CF types resulting 100% in uptake, namely clarification request, elicitation, and repetition invited higher rates of needs-repair rather than repair moves, with 75% 61%, and 60% respectively.

CF <i>n</i> = 517	Repair % of CF	Needs-repair % of CF	No uptake % of CF
Clarification request (<i>n</i> = 12)	25%	75%	-
Elicitation (<i>n</i> = 33)	39%	61%	-
Explicit correction (<i>n</i> = 35)	31%	29%	40%
Explicit with metalinguistic (<i>n</i> = 16)	25%	13%	63%
Metalinguistic f. (<i>n</i> = 33)	58%	42%	-
Metalinguistic f. in L1 (<i>n</i> = 62)	48%	50%	2%
Recast (<i>n</i> = 220)	45%	38%	16%
Recast with L1 (<i>n</i> = 19)	32%	26%	42%
Repetition (<i>n</i> = 5)	40%	60%	-
Translation (<i>n</i> = 24)	61%	20%	19%
Translation in L1 (<i>n</i> = 18)	39%	56%	6%

Table 5. 12: Percentage distribution of the presence (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake following each CF type

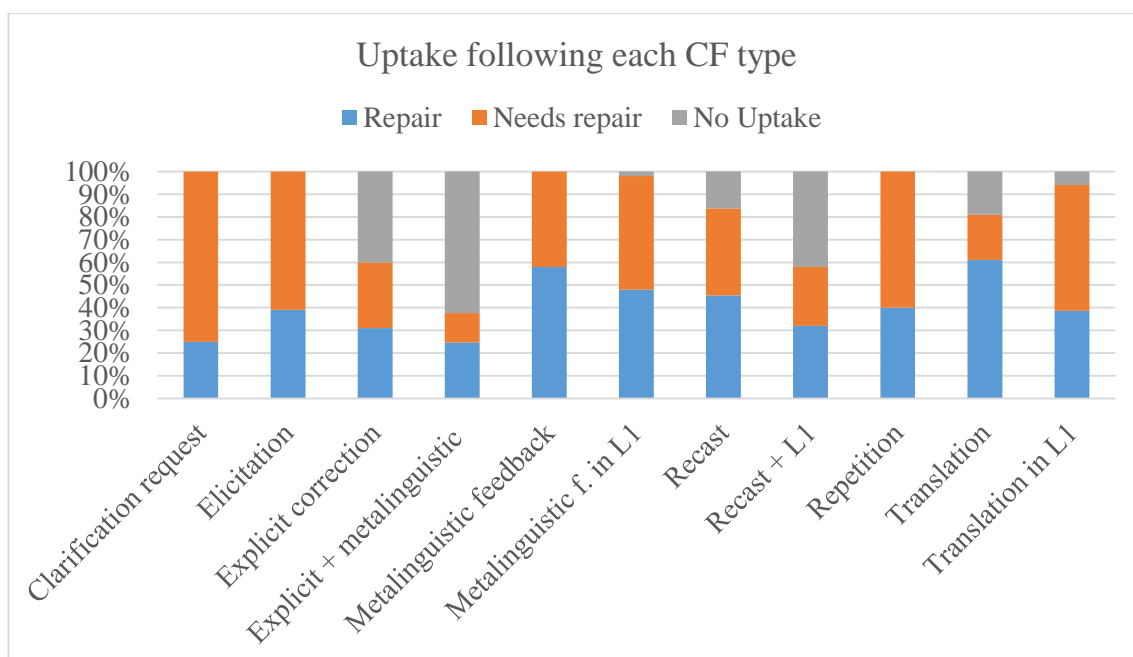


Figure 5. 12: Presence (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake following each CF type

Furthermore, metalinguistic feedback welcomed higher rates of repair rather than needs-repair moves, with 58%. Metalinguistic feedback in L1 resulted in both repair and needs-repair moves at almost equal rates with 48% and 50% correspondingly. Likewise, explicit correction which was among the CF types with the lowest uptake production rates invited almost equal rates of repairs and needs-repairs with 31% and 29% respectively. The rest of the CF types produced higher rates of repairs rather than needs-repairs, ranging from recast (45%), recast with L1 (32%), to explicit correction with metalinguistic (25%). Nonetheless, absence of uptake was still higher than repair/needs-repair production for recast with L1, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation.

Another way of analysing these data was to display the distribution of the presence (repair, needs-repair) and absence of uptake (no uptake), as attributed to CF types. As illustrated in Table 5.13 and Figure 5.13, the highest frequencies of all uptake moves, namely of repairs, and needs-repairs, as well as the highest rates of no uptake followed the teachers' provision of recasts at 43%, 42%, and 44% respectively. Such a result could be credited to the large amounts of recasts that were found in the dataset. The second highest repair rates followed translation at 17%, and the next lowest repairs were

attributed to metalinguistic feedback in L1 at 13%. The rest of the repair turns followed other CF types, and reached rates ranging from 8% to 1%.

CF	Repair <i>n</i> = 234	Needs-repair <i>n</i> = 201	No uptake <i>n</i> = 82
Clarification request	1%	4%	-
Elicitation	6%	10%	-
Explicit correction	5%	5%	17%
Explicit with metalinguistic	2%	1%	12%
Metalinguistic f.	8%	7%	-
Metalinguistic f. in L1	13%	15%	1%
Recast	43%	42%	44%
Recast with L1	3%	2%	10%
Repetition	1%	1%	-
Translation	17%	6%	15%
Translation in L1	3%	5%	1%

Table 5. 13: Percentage distribution of the presence (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake attributed to each CF type

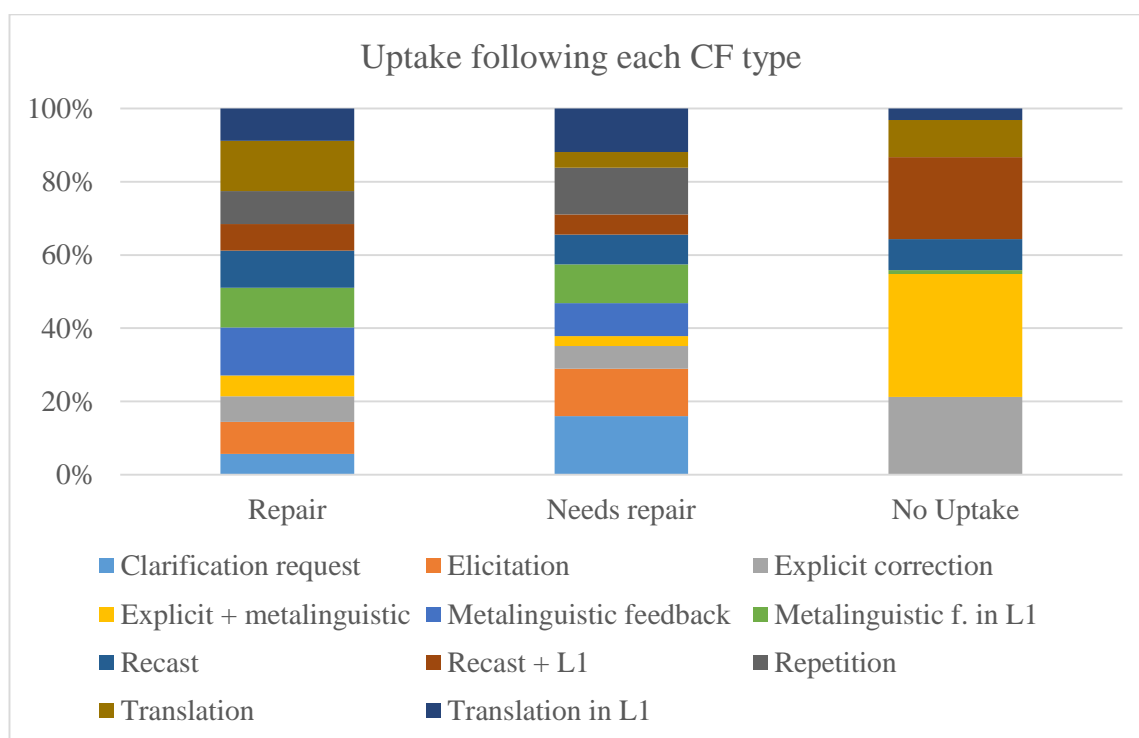


Figure 5. 13: Presence (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake following each CF type

With regards to needs-repair turns, the second highest rates (after recast at 42%) followed metalinguistic feedback in L1 at 15%, and then elicitation at 10%. The remaining needs-repairs occurred in response to the other CF types which achieved scores ranging from 7% to 1%. As far as the absence of uptake is concerned, following recast (44%), the second highest rates of no uptake were attributed to explicit correction at 17%, and then to translation at 15%. Other no uptake occurrences took place in response to recast with L1, and explicit feedback with metalinguistic explanation, at rates reaching from 10% to 1%. No percentage of the absence of uptake was attributed to elicitation, clarification request, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback. Moreover, absence of uptake followed metalinguistic feedback in L1, and translation in L1 for merely 1% of the total absence of uptake.

The interaction between CF types and the production of repair, needs-repair, and the absence of uptake was found to be highly significant, confirming that the type of CF affected the distribution of uptake, $\chi^2 (20, n = 517) = 97.96, p = .000$. A comparison of feedback choice leading to uptake revealed an interaction between uptake productions in response to CF types. Specifically, significant unequal distributions of learner repairs following the different CF types were confirmed, $\chi^2 (10, n = 234) = 385.85, p = .000$, as well as unequal productions of needs-repairs, $\chi^2 (10, n = 201) = 297.06, p = .000$, and absences of uptake, $\chi^2 (10, n = 82) = 159.73, p = .000$.

Next, I performed pairwise analyses to determine the differences between the uptake types. I applied the Bonferroni correction to control for Type I error, hence the alpha value was set to .002. Pairwise analyses indicated that repair and needs-repair did not share a significant difference, $\chi^2 (10, n = 435) = 18.79, p = .043$. In contrast, when repair was paired with no uptake, a significant difference was revealed, $\chi^2 (10, n = 316) = 56.13, p = .000$. Similarly, the pair of needs-repair with no uptake also shared a significant difference, $\chi^2 (10, n = 283) = 69.71, p = .000$. Such findings confirmed that repair production did not differ significantly from needs-repair production following different CF types, whereas the absence of uptake differed significantly from both repair, and needs-repair productions.

The next breakdown of the data involved exploring repairs, needs-repairs and no uptake in relation to prompts and reformulations. As illustrated in Table 5.14 and Figure 5.14, out of the total distribution of prompts, more than half resulted in needs-repairs (53%), whereas a little below half were followed by repairs (45%). For merely 1% of the total provision of prompts, there was absence of student uptake. In contrast, of all reformulations, 45% were followed by repairs, 32% by needs-repairs, and 23% did not result in learner uptake.

CF	Repair % of CF	Needs-repair % of CF	No uptake % of CF
Prompts (<i>n</i> = 163)	45%	53%	1%
Reformulations (<i>n</i> = 354)	45%	32%	23%

Table 5. 14: Percentage distribution of the presence (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake following prompts and reformulations

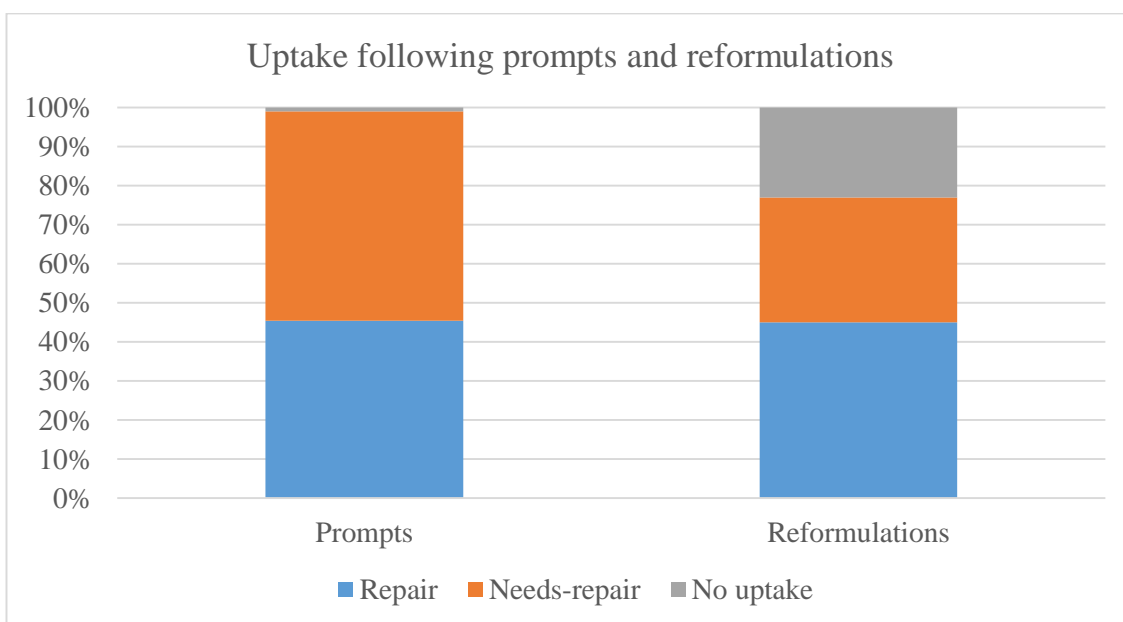


Figure 5. 14: Presence (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake following prompts and reformulations

With regards to uptake production attributed to prompts or reformulations, as Table 5.15, and Figure 5.15 show, the highest rates of repair, needs-repair, and no uptake came after reformulations. Such an outcome could be attributed to the higher number of reformulations distributed across the dataset, compared to prompts.

CF	Repair <i>n</i> = 234	Needs-repair <i>n</i> = 281	No uptake <i>n</i> = 82
Prompts	32 %	43%	2%
Reformulations	68%	57%	98%

Table 5. 15: Percentage distribution of the presence (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake attributed to prompts and reformulations

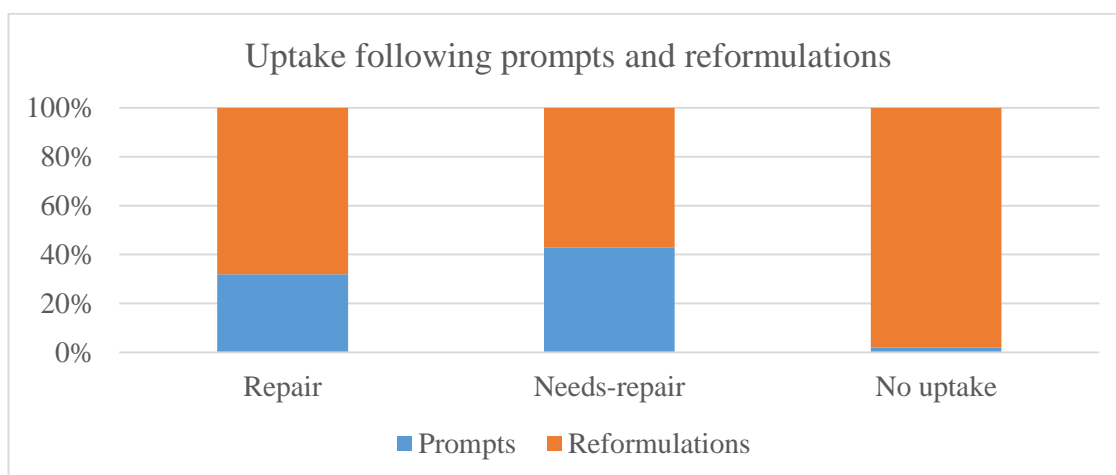


Figure 5. 15: Presence (repair/needs-repair) and absence of uptake attributed to prompts and reformulations

A chi-square test for independence revealed that the interaction between CF and uptake was highly significant, $\chi^2 (2, n = 517) = 45.01, p = .000$, confirming that the choice of CF in terms of prompts or reformulations affected the production of uptake. A comparison of uptake type following CF revealed a significant interaction between the production of repair and CF, $\chi^2 (1, n = 234) = 31.61, p = .000$, as well as between no uptake and CF, $\chi^2 (1, n = 82) = 74.20, p = .000$. However, significant interactions between needs-repairs and prompts or reformulations were not found, $\chi^2 (1, n = 201) = 3.63, p = .06$.

Next, I performed pairwise analyses to determine the differences between the uptake types. Once again, I applied the Bonferroni correction to control for Type I error, thus the alpha value was set to .013. Pairwise comparisons of uptake types indicated that all three pairs were significantly different. In particular, comparisons of repair with needs-repair productions revealed that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in repair, $\chi^2 (1, n = 435) = 6.31, p = .012$. Additionally, comparisons of repair with no uptake revealed that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in no uptake, $\chi^2 (1, n = 316) = 28.31, p = .000$. Lastly, pairing needs-repair with no uptake showed that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in no uptake, $\chi^2 (1, n = 283) = 45.07, p = .000$.

5.3.2.3 Repair, modified output, unmodified output, and absence of uptake

In addition to the distributions of uptake within the categories of repair, needs-repair, and no uptake, I also explored the distribution of uptake based on the following categories: repair, modified output, unmodified output, and absence of uptake. For this analysis, the needs-repair moves were divided between modified and unmodified output. In particular, repair turns included self-repair, repetition, incorporation and peer-repair. Modified output included the production of different error or partial repair, whereas unmodified output involved the production of acknowledgment, same error, hesitation, or an off target response (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2008; Egi, 2010).

Firstly, the analysis of the data concerned the distribution of uptake in terms of its presence or absence after each CF type. As illustrated in Table 5.16 and Figure 5.16, elicitation (39%), clarification request (25%), and repetition (40%), resulted in equal rates of repair and modified output. However, since these proportions were higher after elicitation and repetition compared to clarification request, the distribution of unmodified output in response to these feedback types was lower compared to clarification request. Nonetheless, none of these CF types resulted in absence of uptake. Other feedback types resulted in higher rates of repair than modified or unmodified output. In particular, metalinguistic feedback (58%), metalinguistic feedback in L1 (48%), recast (45%), and translation (61%) welcomed higher rates of repair rather than modified or unmodified output.

CF <i>n</i> = 517	Repair % of CF	Modified output % of CF	Unmodified output % of CF	No uptake % of CF
Clarification request (<i>n</i> = 12)	25%	25%	50%	-
Elicitation (<i>n</i> = 33)	39%	39%	21%	-
Explicit correction (<i>n</i> = 35)	31%	9%	20%	40%
Explicit with metalinguistic (<i>n</i> = 16)	25%	6%	6%	63%
Metalinguistic f. (<i>n</i> = 33)	58%	39%	3%	-
Metalinguistic f. in L1 (<i>n</i> = 62)	48%	44%	6%	2%
Recast (<i>n</i> = 220)	45%	14%	24%	16%
Recast with L1 (<i>n</i> = 19)	32%	5%	21%	42%
Repetition (<i>n</i> = 5)	40%	40%	20%	-
Translation (<i>n</i> = 24)	61%	6%	14%	19%
Translation in L1 (<i>n</i> = 18)	39%	50%	6%	6%

Table 5. 16: Percentage distribution of the presence (repair/modified/unmodified) and absence of uptake following each CF type

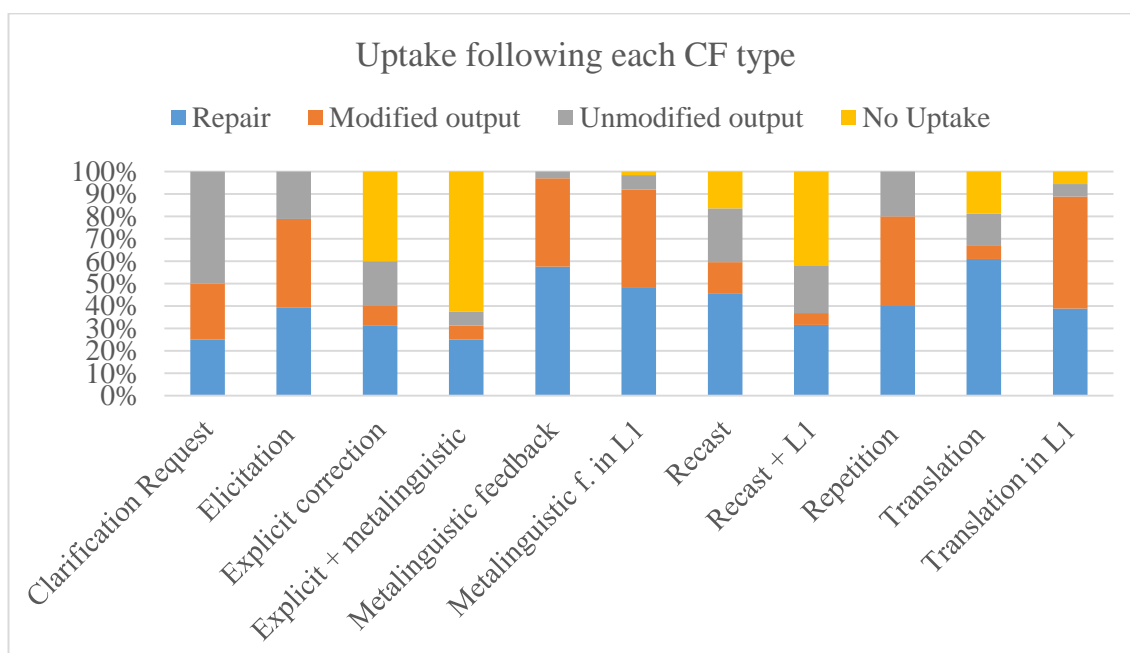


Figure 5. 16: Presence (repair/modified/unmodified) and absence of uptake following each CF type

Nevertheless, they resulted in dissimilar rates for modified, unmodified and no uptake production. Specifically, the frequencies of modified output after metalinguistic feedback (39%) and after metalinguistic feedback in L1 (44%) were very similar to the frequencies of repair moves. In contrast, recast and translation resulted in very low rates of modified

output with 14% and 6% respectively, with higher unmodified and no uptake rates. As for translation in L1, it resulted in higher rates of modified output compared to other forms of uptake (50%). Moreover, there were other types of CF which resulted in high rates of no uptake. In particular, explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, and recast with L1, achieved high rates of absence of uptake with 40%, 63%, and 42%, respectively.

Another way of analysing these data was to find the distribution of the presence (repair, modified, unmodified,) and absence of uptake (no uptake), as attributed to CF types. Table 5.17 and Figure 5.17 indicate that the highest rates of repair, modified, unmodified output, and absence of uptake followed recast, with 43%, 29%, and 56% respectively, perhaps due to the high frequency of recasts across the dataset. The second highest rates in repair came after translation, with considerably lower rates compared to recast (17%).

With regards to modified output, after recast, metalinguistic feedback in L1 achieved the second highest rates with 25%. Moreover, the third highest rates of repair came after metalinguistic feedback which alongside elicitation reached 12% each. The rest of the CF types achieved lower rates of modified output with scores ranging from 8% to 1%. With respect to unmodified output, after recast which achieved more than half of the total unmodified production (56%), the second highest rates were produced after translation (10%) with considerably lower rates. The other CF types welcomed lower rates of unmodified output with scores ranging as low as 7% to 1%. Finally, absence of uptake followed recast at considerably higher rates at 44%, compared to the second highest rates which occurred after explicit correction at 17%, and translation at 15%. The remaining CF types achieved lower percentages in absence of uptake, with scores ranging from 12% to 1%.

The interaction between CF types and the production of repair, modified, unmodified output, and the absence of uptake was found to be highly statistically significant, confirming that the type of CF affected the distribution of uptake following different CF types, $\chi^2(32, n = 517) = 151.86, p = .000$.

CF	Repair <i>n</i> = 234	Modified output <i>n</i> = 107	Unmodified output <i>n</i> = 94	No uptake <i>n</i> = 82
Clarification request	1%	3%	6%	-
Elicitation	6%	12%	7%	-
Explicit correction	5%	3%	7%	17%
Explicit with metalinguistic	2%	1%	1%	12%
Metalinguistic f.	8%	12%	1%	-
Metalinguistic f. in L1	13%	25%	4%	1%
Recast	43%	29%	56%	44%
Recast with L1	3%	1%	4%	10%
Repetition	1%	2%	1%	-
Translation	17%	4%	10%	15%
Translation in L1	3%	8%	1%	1%

Table 5. 17: Percentage distribution of the presence (repair/modified/unmodified) and absence of uptake following each CF type

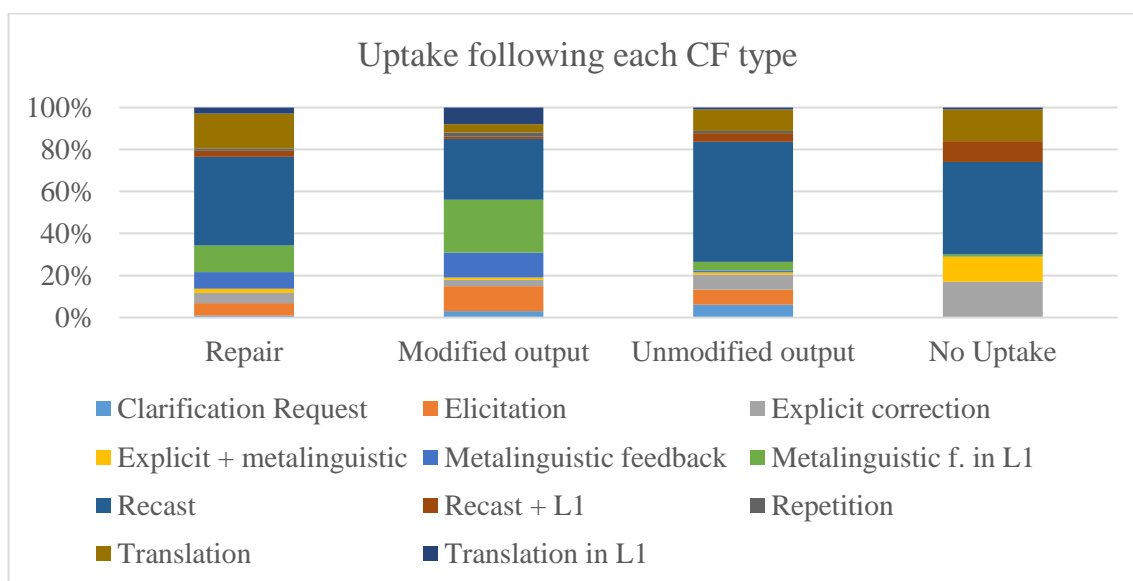


Figure 5. 17: Presence (repair/modified/unmodified) and absence of uptake following each CF type

Moreover, a comparison of feedback choice leading to uptake confirmed an interaction between uptake productions in response to CF types. In particular, highly significant unequal distributions of learner repairs following the different CF types were confirmed, $\chi^2 (10, n = 234) = 385.85, p = .000$, as well as unequal productions of modified output, $\chi^2 (10, n = 107) = 113.93, p = .000$, unmodified output, $\chi^2 (10, n = 94) = 264.09, p = .000$, and absences of uptake, $\chi^2 (10, n = 82) = 159.73, p = .000$.

Next, I performed pairwise analyses to determine the differences between the uptake types. I applied the Bonferroni correction to control for Type I error, thus the alpha value was set to .002. Pairwise analyses revealed that all pairs but one were significantly different. In particular, the only pair that did not differ significantly was repair with unmodified output, $\chi^2(10, n = 328) = 24.74, p = .006$. In contrast, repair with modified output, $\chi^2(10, n = 341) = 33.68, p = .000$, repair with no uptake, $\chi^2(10, n = 316) = 56.13, p = .000$, modified output with unmodified output, $\chi^2(10, n = 201) = 47.33, p = .000$, modified output with no uptake, $\chi^2(10, n = 189) = 84.00, p = .000$, and unmodified output with no uptake, $\chi^2(10, n = 176) = 30.83, p = .000$, differed significantly.

The next breakdown of the data involved exploring repair, modified output, unmodified output, and absence of uptake in relation to prompts and reformulations. Table 5.18 and Figure 5.18 show that a little below half of the total distribution of uptake after both prompts and reformulations resulted in repairs (45%). However, while prompts resulted in modified output at 41%, modified output after reformulation reached only 11%. Moreover, unmodified output production was higher after reformulations (21%) compared to prompts (12%). Finally, absence of uptake after prompts accounted for merely 1%, whereas no uptake after reformulations reached 23%.

CF	Repair	Modified	Unmodified	No uptake
Prompts ($n = 163$)	45%	41%	12%	1%
Reformulations ($n = 354$)	45%	11%	21%	23%

Table 5. 18: Percentage distribution of the presence (repair/modified/unmodified) and absence of uptake following prompts and reformulations

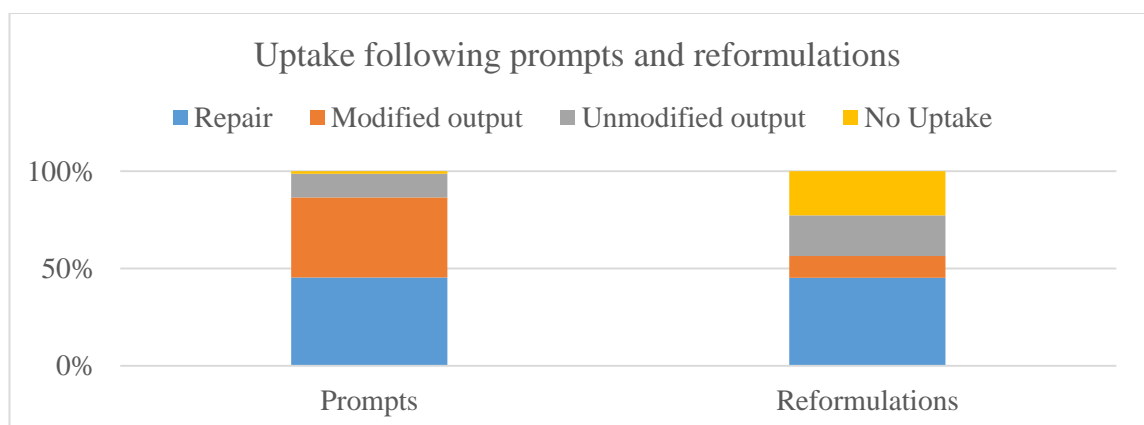


Figure 5. 18: Presence (repair/modified/unmodified) and absence of uptake following prompts and reformulations

Concerning uptake production as attributed to prompts and reformulations, Table 5.19 and Figure 5.19 show that while the highest repair rates were attributed to reformulations (68%), the highest modified output rates resulted after prompts (63%). Moreover, unmodified output as well as absence of uptake resulted after reformulations at the high rates of 79% and 98% respectively.

CF	Repair <i>n</i> = 234	Modified <i>n</i> = 107	Unmodified <i>n</i> = 94	No uptake <i>n</i> = 82
Prompts	32%	63%	21%	2%
Reformulations	68%	37%	79%	98%

Table 5. 19: Distribution of the presence (repair/modified/unmodified) and absence of uptake attributed to prompts and reformulations

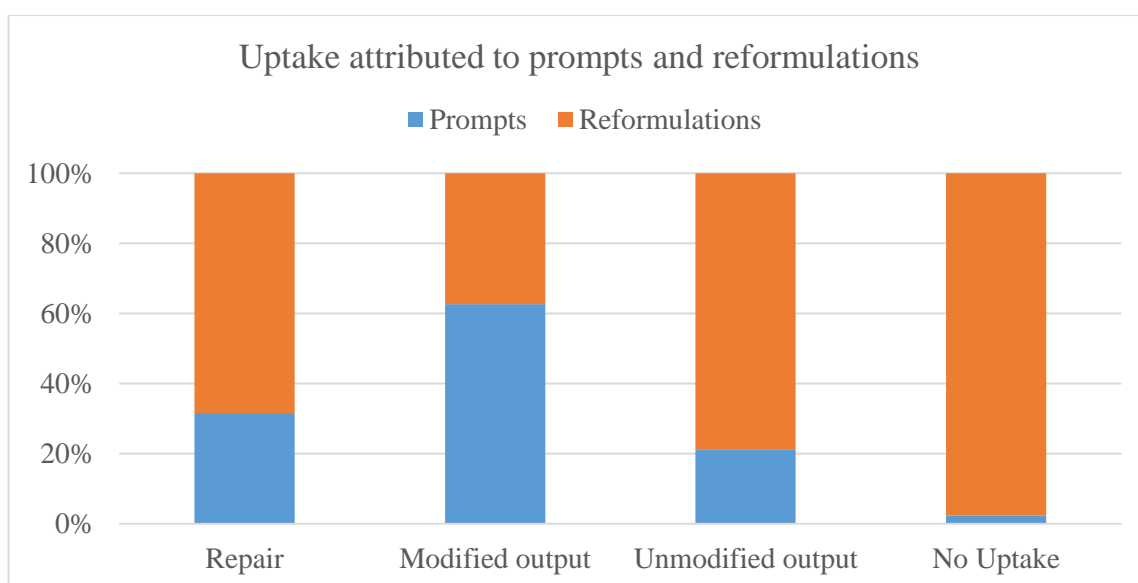


Figure 5. 19: Presence (repair/modified/unmodified) and absence of uptake attributed to prompts and reformulations

A chi-square test for independence revealed that the interaction between CF and uptake was highly significant, $\chi^2(3, n = 517) = 84.62, p = .000$, confirming that the choice of CF in terms of prompts or reformulations affected the production of uptake. A comparison of uptake type following CF revealed a significant interaction between CF and the production of repair, $\chi^2(3, n = 234) = 31.61, p = .000$, modified output $\chi^2(3, n = 107) = 6.813, p = .009$, unmodified output $\chi^2(3, n = 94) = 31.02, p = .000$, and absence of uptake

$\chi^2 (3, n = 82) = 74.2, p = .000$. Such outcomes revealed significant interactions between types of needs-repairs and prompts or reformulations, although earlier (5.3.2.2 Repair, needs-repair, and absence of uptake) a significant interaction between all needs-repairs and prompts or reformulations was not found ($p = .06$).

Post hoc pairwise comparisons were then performed to determine the differences across the categories. I applied the Bonferroni correction to the significance level, hence the alpha value was set to .013. Pairwise comparisons indicated that the only pair that did not differ significantly was that of repair with unmodified output, $\chi^2 (1, n = 328) = 3.51, p = .061$. Such an outcome indicated that reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow both repairs and unmodified output.

In contrast, when repair was paired with modified output, a significant difference was revealed, indicating that prompts were more likely than reformulations to result in modified output, $\chi^2 (1, n = 341) = 29.08, p = .000$. Furthermore, the pair of repair with no uptake was significantly different, which showed that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in absence of uptake, $\chi^2 (1, n = 316) = 28.31, p = .000$.

Additionally, modified output and unmodified output were significantly different, and this showed that prompts were more likely than reformulations to result in modified output, $\chi^2 (1, n = 201) = 34.84, p = .000$. Similarly, modified output, $\chi^2 (1, n = 189) = 72.53, p = .000$, as well as unmodified output, $\chi^2 (1, n = 176) = 14.21, p = .000$, were significantly different from no uptake. This indicated that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in absence of uptake.

The outcomes confirmed that it was more likely for modified output to follow prompts rather than reformulations, and it was more likely for repair, unmodified output, and absence of uptake, to follow reformulations rather than prompts.

5.3.2.4 Repair, student-generated repair

Following the analyses focusing on the relationship between CF and different types of uptake, a further breakdown of the data involved separating the repair moves in two categories. For the purposes of this breakdown, self-repair and peer-repair were grouped under the label of student-generated repair, whereas repetition and incorporation were grouped together under the term of repair. This division has taken place, because it has been argued that not all repair types are equally effective indicators that the learners have noticed the teachers' CF (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Thus, the distribution of all repair and student-generated repair following all CF types was also explored. This breakdown occurred in two ways. Firstly, as indicated in Table 5.20, the rates of each CF type leading to repair were counted.

CF	Repair % of CF type	Student-generated repair % of CF type
Clarification request (<i>n</i> = 12)	25%	25%
Elicitation (<i>n</i> = 33)	39%	39%
Explicit correction (<i>n</i> = 35)	31%	0%
Explicit with metalinguistic (<i>n</i> = 16)	25%	0%
Metalinguistic f. (<i>n</i> = 33)	58%	58%
Metalinguistic f. in L1 (<i>n</i> = 62)	48%	48%
Recast (<i>n</i> = 220)	45%	0%
Recast with L1 (<i>n</i> = 19)	32%	0%
Repetition (<i>n</i> = 5)	40%	40%
Translation (<i>n</i> = 24)	61%	0%
Translation in L1 (<i>n</i> = 18)	39%	39%

Table 5. 20: Percentage distribution of CF types leading to repair

As is evident in Table 5.20, when learners' repetition and incorporation repair turns were removed, the rates remained exactly the same for elicitation, clarification request, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and translation in L1. All of these belong to the category of prompts. In contrast, for all the remaining CF types, namely explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, recast, recast with L1, and translation, the rates were reduced to nil. All of these CF types belong to the category of reformulations. Consequently, since prompts aimed for student self-repair, they could not elicit student repetition or incorporation, in contrast to

reformulations which provided learners with target forms, thus they could not elicit student self-repair.

With regards to the second breakdown, the percentages of repair attributed to the CF types were calculated. As indicated in Table 5.21, in view of all repair turns attributed to CF types, recast accounted for the highest percentage (43%), followed by the substantially lower rates of translation (17%), and metalinguistic feedback in L1 (13%). The rest of the CF types accounted for rates ranging from 8% to 1%. However, when considering only student-generated repair turns, the picture was completely different. Recast did not account for any repair turns, with the highest rates attributed to metalinguistic feedback in L1 at 41%, followed by metalinguistic feedback at 26%, and elicitation at 18%. The remaining student-generated repair moves were attributed to translation in L1, clarification request, and repetition at 9%, 4% and 3% respectively.

CF	Repair <i>n</i> = 234	Student-generated repair <i>n</i> = 74
Clarification request	1%	4%
Elicitation	6%	18%
Explicit correction	5%	-
Explicit with metalinguistic	2%	-
Metalinguistic f.	8%	26%
Metalinguistic f. in L1	13%	41%
Recast	43%	-
Recast with L1	3%	-
Repetition	1%	3%
Translation	17%	-
Translation in L1	3%	9%

Table 5. 21: Percentage distribution of repair attributed to each CF type

A comparison of repairs and student-generated repairs following each CF type, firstly revealed as illustrated earlier a significant unequal distribution of repairs following the different CF types $\chi^2 (10, n = 234) = 385.85, p = .000$. Further to this, it was confirmed that there was a significant unequal distribution of student-generated repairs following the different CF types, $\chi^2 (10, n = 74) = 147.78, p = .000$.

Following the outcomes of the above described breakdowns of the dataset, the CF types were grouped under the categories of prompts and reformulations. Table 5.22 illustrates the rates of repair and student-generate repair after prompts and reformulations. It is evident that when learners' repetition and incorporation repair turns were removed, the rates for prompts remained exactly the same, whereas for reformulations, they were reduced to zero.

CF	Repair % of CF type	Student-generated repair % of CF type
Prompts <i>n</i> = 148	32%	32%
Reformulations <i>n</i> = 160	68%	0%

Table 5. 22: Percentage distribution of repair following prompts and reformulations

Moreover, Table 5.23 shows the scores of repair and student-generated repair that were attributed to prompts and reformulations. As is evident in Table 5.23, 100% of student-generated repair moves were produced as responses to the teachers' provision of prompts.

CF	Repair <i>n</i> = 234	Student-generated repair <i>n</i> = 74
Prompts	32%	100%
Reformulations	68%	0%

Table 5. 23: Percentage distribution of repair attributed to prompts and reformulations

A comparison of repairs and student-generated repairs following prompts and reformulations revealed a significant interaction between the production of repair and CF. In particular, it was confirmed that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in repair, $\chi^2(1, n = 234) = 31.61, p = .000$, and that prompts were more likely than reformulations to result in student-generated repair, $\chi^2(1, n = 74) = 74.00, p = .000$.

5.4 Summary: Distribution of the elements of CF episodes, and relations between them

To summarise, the current investigation revealed distributions of error, CF, and uptake types, as well as relations between them, as found in Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms. With regards to distributions and learners' production of error types, grammatical errors were found to be the most frequent, followed by lexical, unsolicited uses of L1, and phonological errors. The unequal distribution of errors in that order was statistically significant. Moreover, concerning the distribution of CF types, eleven different CF types were identified. A subsequent analysis of their distribution revealed that recast was by far the most frequent CF type, followed by translation and metalinguistic feedback in L1 which scored considerably lower rates. The unequal provision of different CF types was found to be statistically significant. Furthermore, reformulations were found to be significantly more frequent than prompts. As for uptake types, repairs were more frequent than needs-repairs. In addition, breaking down the different uptake moves revealed that the most frequent uptake type was a modified needs-repair type, namely different error, followed by a repair type, namely incorporation.

As far as relations between CF episode elements are concerned, the investigation focused on associations between errors and CF, as well as between uptake and CF. With regards to errors and feedback, almost all types of errors were most frequently followed by recast. Specifically, grammatical, lexical, and phonological errors received recasts in the majority of cases. Unsolicited uses of L1 on the other hand were mostly followed by translation. The relations between the choices of feedback in response to errors were found to be statistically significant. Pairwise analysis of the most frequent error types indicated that feedback type choices after grammatical errors differed significantly from choices after lexical errors.

With respect to prompts and reformulations, pairwise analyses of the error types revealed that the teachers' choice of CF following grammatical errors did not differ significantly from their choice following lexical errors, indicating that both prompts and reformulations were likely to follow both grammatical and lexical errors. Similarly, the choice of CF following phonological errors did not differ significantly from their choice

following unsolicited uses of L1, indicating that reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow phonological errors and unsolicited uses of L1.

However, the teachers' use of prompts and reformulations following grammatical errors differed significantly from their choice of feedback following phonological errors, and unsolicited uses of L1, confirming that reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow phonological errors and unsolicited uses of L1. In addition, teachers' choice of CF after lexical errors differed significantly from their choice following phonological errors and unsolicited uses of L1, confirming once more that reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow phonological errors and unsolicited uses of L1, whereas both prompts and reformulations followed lexical errors without a significant difference. In short, an additional comparison between CF for each error type, further confirmed the different patterns: reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow grammatical errors, phonological errors, and unsolicited uses of L1, whilst both prompts and reformulations were likely to follow lexical errors.

Concerning relations between CF and uptake production, investigations focused on the following: presence and absence of uptake; repair, needs-repair, no uptake; repair, modified output, unmodified output, no uptake; repair and self-generated repair.

With regards to presence and absence of uptake after CF types, it was found that elicitation, clarification request, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback achieved the highest scores of uptake production, since they always resulted in uptake. Moreover, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and translation in L1 almost always resulted in uptake. In contrast, the lowest rates of uptake occurred after the teachers' provision of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation.

In addition, presence and absence of uptake attributed to CF types revealed that the highest rates of uptake and no uptake were attributed to recast. The second highest rates of uptake came after metalinguistic feedback in L1, followed by translation. With respect to absence of uptake, following recast, the second highest rates came after explicit correction, followed by translation, and explicit correction with metalinguistic

explanation. With regards to the production of uptake following prompts and reformulations, it was found that both prompts and reformulations resulted in high rates of learner uptake. Nonetheless, uptake distribution attributed to prompts and reformulations indicated that the highest rates of uptake production and of absence of uptake came after reformulations.

As for repair, needs-repair, and no uptake, it was found that translation accounted for the highest rates in repair, followed by metalinguistic feedback, and metalinguistic feedback in L1. The highest needs-repair rates were produced after clarification request, followed by elicitation. Absence of uptake occurred mostly after explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. There was a significant interaction between CF types and the production of repair, needs-repair, and the absence of uptake, confirming that the type of feedback affected the distribution of uptake.

Moreover, repair, needs-repair, and no uptake attributed to CF types revealed that recast accounted for the highest rates for repair, needs-repair and no uptake. The second highest repair rates were attributed to translation, and the third highest repair rates came after metalinguistic feedback in L1. With regards to needs-repair turns, the second highest rates after recast were attributed to metalinguistic feedback in L1, followed by elicitation. As far as the absence of uptake is concerned, following recast, the second highest rates were attributed to explicit correction, and then to translation. Other no uptake occurrences took place in response to recast with L1, and explicit feedback with metalinguistic explanation. No percentage of the absence of uptake was attributed to elicitation, clarification request, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback. In addition, both prompts and reformulations were found to be successful in immediate uptake. Nevertheless, pairwise analyses, and a comparison of uptake type following CF, indicated that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in repair and in no uptake. Interactions between needs-repairs and prompts or reformulations were not found.

Investigations of relations between uptake and feedback also involved distributions of uptake in terms of repair, modified output, unmodified output, and absence of uptake. Findings concerning uptake production after each CF type indicated that clarification request, elicitation, and repetition welcomed equal rates of repair and modified output.

However, repetition achieved higher rates of repair, hence unmodified output was lower compared to the other two types. In addition, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, recast, and translation, welcomed higher rates of repair than any other uptake type. As for modified output, metalinguistic feedback and metalinguistic feedback in L1 welcomed rates very similar to the frequencies of repair moves. On the contrary, recast and translation resulted in very low rates of modified output, with higher scores on unmodified output and no uptake. Furthermore, translation in L1 welcomed high rates of modified output compared to other forms of uptake, whereas other feedback types such as explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, and recast with L1, achieved high scores on the absence of uptake.

As for uptake attributed to CF types, it was found that recast accounted for the highest rates of repair, modified, unmodified output, and absence of uptake. The second highest rates of repair, modified, unmodified output, and absence of uptake came after translation, metalinguistic feedback in L1, translation, and explicit correction respectively. Choice of feedback was once more found to significantly affect the distribution of uptake following different CF types.

Lastly, uptake in relation to prompts and reformulations indicated that prompts and reformulations resulted in equal rates of repairs. Moreover, prompts welcomed higher rates of modified output, whereas reformulations resulted in higher rates of unmodified output and absence of uptake. Nonetheless, pairwise comparisons of uptake attributed to CF, and a comparison of uptake type following CF, indicated that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in repair, unmodified output, and absence of uptake. In contrast, prompts were found more likely than reformulations to result in modified output.

Finally, an investigation of CF in relation to repair and student-generated repair revealed that repairs produced after prompts, namely elicitation, clarification request, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and translation in L1 were all student-generated. In contrast, none of the student-generated repairs occurred after the reformulation feedback types. With regards to repairs attributed to CF, while recasts accounted for the highest percentage of repairs, they did not account for any student-generated repairs. The highest student-generated repair scores were attributed to

metalinguistic feedback in L1. Significant interactions confirmed that the choice of feedback affected the type of repairs produced. As for prompts and reformulations, findings indicated that all student-generated repair moves were produced after teachers' provision of prompts, confirming once more a significant interaction between choice of feedback and repair types.

5.5 Discussion: Distribution of the elements of CF episodes, and relations between them

In the current section, the quantitative findings of the naturalistic classroom data are discussed in relation to relevant empirical and theoretical literature. In particular, distributions of error types, feedback types and uptake types, as well as relations between them are discussed in light of previous empirical studies and theories of learning.

With regards to *distribution of errors*, the present study found that the majority of errors were grammatical (49%). Hence, CF was mostly provided to grammatical errors compared to other types of errors. Such outcome paralleled previous studies which indicated that teachers tend to provide more CF on morphosyntactic errors than on other error types (Lyster, 1998; Mackey et al., 2000; Kim & Han, 2007). As Lyster et al., (2013) pointed out, researches have tended to focus on grammatical errors, and the same occurs with teachers. The second most frequent errors were lexical (24%), and such an outcome paralleled Lyster's (1998) findings of error production in French immersion classrooms.

As for the *relationship between errors and CF*, in the current naturalistic data it was revealed that 52% of grammatical errors, 48% of lexical errors, and 84% of phonological errors triggered teachers' recasts (recast, and recast with L1). Similarly, in other studies, morphosyntactic errors triggered the most recasts, followed by lexical and phonological errors (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey et al., 2000; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Kim & Han, 2007), or followed by phonological and lexical errors (Lyster, 1998). Moreover, unsolicited uses of L1 received translation (79%) in the majority of cases. In the same way, in Lyster's (1998) study recasts accounted for 50% of the total feedback provision after students' L1 uses. Moreover, in the present EFL context, after recasts, all types of errors tended to encourage prompts, with explicit correction having the lowest rates in

response to all types of errors. The same occurred in Lyster's (1998) study when phonological and unsolicited uses of L1 invited teachers' prompts after recasts.

Concerning the *distribution of CF types*, in this study eleven different feedback types were identified. Findings paralleled earlier investigations, because previously identified feedback types were also found in the present data. Nonetheless, the CF type list was longer compared to previous studies, since newly identified feedback types emerged from the naturalistic Greek-Cypriot EFL classroom data. Specifically, the list of CF types comprised the following: clarification request, elicitation, explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, recast, recast with L1, repetition, translation, and translation in L1. As already described in more detail in Chapter 3 (3.4.6.2 CF types), certain CF types emerged from the naturalistic data, and the common element in all of these newly identified feedback types was the use of L1, namely Cypriot Greek (CG). Therefore, metalinguistic feedback in L1, recast with L1, and translation in L1 involved CG which was the 'shared language' between the students and the teachers in the current classroom settings (Cook, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012, 2013).

The use of CG as part of teachers' CF appears to raise two noteworthy issues. Firstly, it seems to parallel observations that despite being largely absent from discussions of English language teaching methodology, the use of learners' own language as well as translation have continued to be used in language classrooms across the world (Benson, 2000; Cook, 2008; Levinson, 2011; Kerr, 2014). In fact, numerous studies have reported the use of code switching in a range of English language teaching contexts, including Cyprus (Copland & Neokleous, 2011). Nonetheless, while previous studies investigated the general functions of the L1 in the classrooms, the focus of the present study was on CF. Therefore, the uses of CG were part of teachers' focus on form, and specifically within the provision of reactive CF on students' erroneous utterances. Such a use of the L1 parallels 'medium-oriented goals', or 'core goals' that deal with the teaching of the language (Ellis, 1994; Kim & Elder, 2008), which as Hall & Cook (2013) suggested, is a common function for the use of learners' own language by teachers.

Moreover, these newly identified CF types seem to represent specific learning strategies. Particularly, translation in L1 as a CF type, appears to represent translation for which the medium is the L1 (Cook, 2010). This is different from translation without the use of L1 for which the medium is the L2, and is provided in response to students' unsolicited uses of L1 (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Furthermore, recast with L1 appears to represent 'sandwiching', a technique where the teacher uses an English word/phrase and provides a quick gloss of it in the students' own language (Dodson, 1972; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Recast with L1 as a CF technique was used by teachers in this order or in reverse, in response to students' erroneous forms (mainly phonological). Finally, metalinguistic feedback in L1 involved code switching between CG and English, taking advantage of the students' L1 proficiency, and using it as a positive resource (Widdowson, 2003).

The use of the L1 as part of CF could be attributed to the teaching context of the study. To be specific, the Greek-Cypriot EFL setting that was observed represented form-focused classrooms. Students studied the English language itself, through a combination of teaching methodologies. As discussed in more detail in Chapter 3 (3.3.2 Participants and context: Observations), the teachers used a combination of teaching methods during their lessons. One of these methodologies was the Grammar-translation method. This teaching methodology incorporates the use of the L1 in translating words/phrases/sentences. Moreover, it involves giving the students grammar rules with examples, with or without the use of the L1 (Harmer, 2007; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

With regards to the frequency of feedback types, findings were in line with previous studies which indicated teachers' preferences for providing mostly recasts. Specifically, in the current context of Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms, recast was by far the most frequent CF type (43%), followed by translation (12%). Moreover, the emergent CF type of recast with L1, comprised 4% of the total CF distribution. Hence, in total, recasts accounted for 59% of the total CF type provision. In the same way, in previous studies which were conducted in a variety of instructional contexts, recasts were in the majority of cases the most frequent feedback type. For instance, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study in French immersion primary classrooms revealed that recasts (including translation)

achieved 55% of the total distribution, and the exact same rates were found in the present data (43% for recast, and 12% for translation).

Furthermore, Panova and Lyster's (2002) study in an adult beginning ESL classroom revealed that recast was the most frequent CF type (55%) followed by translation (22%), with rates considerably higher than the ones found in the current study. High recast provision was also evident in Hong Kong secondary English classrooms at 48% (Tsang, 2004). In addition, recast rates found in the present study were similar to scores found in French immersion classrooms (54%), but lower than recast distribution in Japanese immersion contexts (65%) (Lyster & Mori, 2006). The rates of recast and translation were also similar to the percentage distribution of recasts found in content and language oriented classrooms (CLIL) (57%) in Llinares and Lyster's (2014) study. Generally, recasts have been documented to be the most frequently used CF type across most instructional contexts. Prompts usually followed recasts, whereas explicit correction came last (e.g. Lyster, 1998; Mori, 2002; Havranek, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Lee, 2007; Yoshida, 2008).

Such outcomes indicate that irrespective of instructional context and proficiency level teachers use recasts more frequently than any other form of feedback. The use of recast across different instructional contexts could be attributed to its versatility as a CF technique. To be specific, since recasts are non-monolithic and they come in various forms depending on their characteristics, they can be more or less 'explicit', although they do not involve explicit indications of their pragmatic corrective purposes (Sheen, 2006).

On the one hand, the use of recast seems to be ideal in meaning-focused classrooms, because a recast does not explicitly direct students' attention away from meaning (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Nonetheless, in the present context, both EFL teachers were found to make use of the Communicative Language Teaching method. They used activities such as role plays, picture strip stories, and scrambled sentences/dialogues/passages. Moreover, they applied the Direct method through activities such as reading aloud passages, and conversation practice using specific structures. (Harmer, 2007; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Considering these activities, the use of recast in the present EFL context

could be attributed to teachers' efforts to maintain students' focus on communicative meaning.

Moreover, teachers were previously found to express fears that the provision of CF could interrupt the flow of communication, or might impact students' confidence and anxiety levels (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Schulz, 1996, 2001; Ancker, 2000; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Brown, 2009; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010; Yoshida, 2010; Jean & Simard, 2011; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). The frequency of recasts across different instructional settings appears logical, considering the non-monolithic nature of recasts, as well as teachers' attitudes towards error correction. Teachers might feel that the versatility of recast can help them make CF appear less threatening towards students' 'positive face' (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Redmond, 2015).

Moreover, although reformulations namely recasts and explicit feedback were significantly more frequently distributed than prompts in the present EFL context, explicit correction did not account for a large amount of the total CF distribution compared to recasts or prompts. In particular, explicit correction reached 7% and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation achieved 3%. Likewise, in other instructional contexts, explicit correction followed recasts and prompts in frequency (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Llinares & Lyster, 2014). Such outcomes could be attributed to the potential threat towards students' 'positive face' due to the directness of explicit correction, compared to other feedback types (Redmond, 2015).

Concerning prompts, the present Greek-Cypriot EFL setting revealed that despite the fact that recast was by far the most frequent CF type, there was room for other techniques as well. In particular, a newly identified CF type namely metalinguistic feedback in L1 (12%) was the third most frequent feedback type across the dataset, and the most frequent among prompts. It was followed by metalinguistic feedback (6%), elicitation (6%), translation in L1 (4%), clarification request (2%), and repetition (1%). The two forms of metalinguistic feedback achieved 18% of the total feedback distribution, representing the most frequent types among prompts. The provision of metalinguistic feedback in L1 was similar to another secondary/high school EFL context which indicated that teachers provided metalinguistic feedback at 12% (Tsang, 2004). The participants of both the

present and Tsang's (2004) study were of similar ages. Specifically, in the present classrooms, students were between 12 to 16 years old, whereas in Tsang's study learners were between 11 to 17 years old.

In contrast, other settings revealed less frequent distribution of metalinguistic feedback. Specifically, teachers in French immersions classrooms (8%), and ESL settings (5%) were found to provide lower rates of metalinguistic feedback compared to the present EFL context (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). The higher rates in the Greek-Cypriot EFL context could be attributed firstly, to the fact that the naturalistic classroom data was obtained from a private EFL institute. To clarify, in immersion programmes lessons do not focus on the language itself. They study the content of the curriculum in the second language. In contrast, EFL settings are form-focused (Loewen, 2004). This could explain why teachers appeared more oriented to deal with metalinguistic information. Moreover, as discussed above, teachers used the Grammar-Translation method which involves teaching the rules of the studied language. Secondly, the intermediate level of students in the present context might have allowed teachers to use more metalinguistic feedback compared to the French immersion primary level, or to the adult ESL beginners' context (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002).

Nonetheless, considering the overall rates of prompts in contexts which also shared recast as the highest distributed feedback type, it appears that prompts in the Greek-Cypriot EFL setting (32%) were delivered by the teachers at similar percentages compared to a French elementary immersion setting (38%), and a CLIL setting (29%) (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Llinares & Lyster, 2014), and at higher percentages compared to an adult ESL beginners' setting (20%), and a Japanese elementary immersion context (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Lyster & Mori, 2006).

As for the *distribution of learner uptake*, in the present Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms, learners produced high rates of learner uptake at 84%. Such an outcome paralleled high uptake productions found in adult intermediate ESL classrooms in New Zealand (74%) (Ellis et al., 2001), and in meaning focused EFL classrooms in New Zealand (73%) (Loewen 2004). However, this outcome contradicted lower uptake rates found in French primary immersion classrooms (55%) (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), in an adult ESL beginner's

context in Canada (47%) (Panova & Lyster, 2002), and in Hong Kong EFL secondary schools (48%) (Tsang, 2004).

Concerning the *relationship between CF and uptake*, in the present study, both prompts (99%) and reformulations (77%) were successful in learner uptake. In particular, the present study indicated that clarification request, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition led to 100% of learner uptake, whereas metalinguistic feedback in L1 and translation in L1 achieved high uptake rates at 98% and 94% respectively. In various other instructional contexts, prompts led to higher scores of learner uptake compared to reformulation feedback types, indicating that prompts are successful in learner uptake production (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Lyster & Mori, 2006).

Nonetheless, in the present Greek-Cypriot EFL context, both prompts and reformulations were successful in learner uptake. Reformulations (77%) and in particular recast (84%) and translation (81%) achieved considerably high rates of learner uptake. This was in line with Japanese immersion classrooms which also achieved high rates of student uptake after recasts (72%) (Lyster & Mori, 2006). However, such outcomes contradicted other studies which indicated that recasts were not successful in learner uptake. Specifically, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that recasts were the least likely to result in uptake. Moreover, Lyster (1998) indicated that recast was the least successful type at eliciting modified output. Similarly, French immersions classrooms achieved very low percentages of learner uptake after recasts (Lyster & Mori, 2006).

The success of prompts in relation to learner uptake across instructional contexts could be attributed to the nature of the techniques. Prompts are considered output prompting techniques because they generally return the floor to the students. Therefore, it appears logical that some form of uptake would follow prompts due to the opportunities that they provide to students to produce output. Reformulations on the other hand, do not return the floor to the students. Moreover, recast in particular is considered ambiguous, because its corrective pragmatic function might be misinterpreted by students (e.g. Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey et al., 2000; Kim & Han, 2007). Thus, low presence of uptake has been attributed to the ambiguity of recast. Nevertheless, recasts are non-

monolithic in nature, and certain characteristics of a recast have been associated with the presence of uptake (Sheen, 2006). Therefore, in a following section (5.6.1 Praise), I investigate the episodes that contain recast in depth, in an attempt to find potential factors that could affect the presence or the absence of uptake.

As far as the relation between CF and learner repair is concerned, the present study revealed that reformulation feedback types were more successful compared to other contexts. In particular, in the present study, learner repair followed translation at 61%, recast at 45%, and recast with L1 at 32%. Such outcomes were in line with findings in Japanese immersion classrooms where recasts achieved 50% of learner repair (Lyster & Mori, 2006). In contrast, in French immersion primary classrooms, recasts achieved low rates of learner repair at 18%. In fact, recasts were the least successful feedback type to result in repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Likewise, in an adult ESL beginning classroom, students produced repairs only at 13% after recast, and at 4% after translation (Panova & Lyster, 2002). Moreover, in the current context, of all repair moves, 63% were attributed to recasts. In a similar way, in Japanese immersion classrooms (Lyster & Mori, 2006), and in CLIL classrooms (Llinares & Lyster, 2014) the highest repair rates were attributed to recasts. On the contrary, in French immersion classrooms (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), and in adult ESL settings (Panova & Lyster, 2002) the highest percentages of all repair moves were attributed to prompts.

However, with regards to student-generated repairs, namely self-repair or peer-repair, a different picture emerged. Specifically, when repetitions and incorporations were removed, the repair scores of all prompt feedback types remained unchanged, whilst the scores of all reformulations were reduced to nil. Hence, all student-generated repairs were attributed to prompts. Such findings paralleled Lyster and Ranta's (1997), and Tsang's (2004) outcomes, since in these studies student-generated repair occurred only after prompts. Considering the nature of prompts, such outcomes appear logical. Reformulations provide target language, thus they do not invite self-repair or peer-repair. Nevertheless, they welcome other uptake types such as repetition and incorporation. As Lowen and Nabei (2007) suggested, recast and explicit correction could be labelled 'other repair' and prompts 'self-repair'.

Nevertheless, I believe that both self-repair and other repair can help students' L2 learning processes. Firstly, for self-repair to be produced, students need to draw on their own resources, which inevitably requires more active engagement on behalf of the learners (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Swain, 1995). Secondly, when providing a reformulation, teachers give newly identified information to students, or they automatize learners' retrieval of existing knowledge, which can be stored in students' long lasting memory (Long, 2007; Goo & Mackey, 2013; Lyster et al., 2013). When learners produce an uptake in the form of a repetition or an incorporation, then on the spot processing occurs, because learners' attentional resources play a significant role in inferring negative evidence (Lyster et al., 2013). Hence, I consider both self-repair and other repair beneficial.

With regards to prompts, in the present Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms, metalinguistic feedback welcomed the highest rates of repair among prompts with 58%, followed by metalinguistic feedback in L1 which achieved 48%. Such outcomes were in line with Tsang's (2004) study which indicated that learner repair followed metalinguistic feedback at 43%. Moreover, the majority of prompts which welcomed 100% uptake production resulted in higher rates of needs-repair than repair moves. Specifically, clarification request, elicitation, and repetition invited 75%, 61%, and 60% needs-repair turns respectively. Of all uptake moves, learner needs-repair followed prompts 53% of the time. Such outcomes were in line with French immersion classrooms (50%), and Japanese immersion classrooms (47%) which also indicated that students produced higher rates of needs-repair after prompts compared to other forms of uptake.

Needs-repair moves were also divided between modified and unmodified output. Modified output included the production of different error or partial repair, whereas unmodified output involved the production of acknowledgment, same error, hesitation, or an off target response (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2008; Egi, 2010). Outcomes indicated that certain prompts produced high rates of modified output compared to other uptake types. In particular, translation in L1 welcomed high rates of modified output compared to other forms of uptake, whereas metalinguistic feedback and metalinguistic feedback in L1 welcomed modified output rates which were very similar to the frequencies of repair moves. Overall, prompts were found to welcome higher rates of modified output, whereas reformulations resulted in higher rates of unmodified output

and absence of uptake. The high rates of needs-repair modified output attributed to prompts in the current context, as well as the high scores of all needs-repair types credited to prompts both in the present study and in other settings, suggest that prompts tend to lead learners towards the production of ‘pushed output’. Concerning needs-repair modified output, although it represents untargeted language, it still signifies learners’ practicing, and can help them develop their L2 metalinguistic knowledge. As Swain suggests, output is not just a reflection of learning, but it is a crucial part of the L2 learning process (Swain, 1985; 1995; 2000; 2005).

Through classroom interaction learners can receive comprehensible input, negative evidence through feedback, as well as opportunities to produce modified output (Swain, 1995, 2005; Long, 1996). Learners can benefit from exposure to positive evidence, and from opportunities to infer negative evidence through reformulations, as well as from negative evidence and opportunities to produce modified output offered through prompts. These can benefit learners in different ways. The similarities as well as the differences that the present Greek-Cypriot EFL context shared with other classroom studies, indicated that teachers across different instructional contexts use a variety of feedback types. In the following sections, I seek to interpret and to complement the quantitative findings through a more in depth analysis of the naturalistic data.

5.6 Interpreting error-treatment interaction patterns

In the previous sections, I presented and discussed the quantitative findings of the oral classroom data, which focused on the distribution of the different elements of CF episodes, the relations between choice of CF and errors, and the success of CF in terms of uptake. The purpose of the current section is to complement those findings, seeking to increase interpretability, meaningfulness, and validity of the initial quantitative outcomes (Greene et al., 1989). The qualitative data were already coded for concept-driven codes (error types, CF types, and uptake types) based on specific taxonomies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Ranta & Lyster, 2007), and for certain data-driven codes based on emergent CF types. At this stage, I tried to understand the data through the discovery of themes, namely of patterns in the data (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009; King & Horrocks, 2010). My goal for this section is to present the findings, while discussing them, because I approached the data from a qualitative perspective.

The present section is divided in three different major themes: *praise*, *long CF episodes*, and *peer-repair as feedback*, and some of these included subthemes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Each major theme emerged out of a different idea. The quantitative analysis of the oral data revealed findings in relation to the distribution of different CF types, and their success in relation to learner uptake. Having these outcomes in mind, I approached the oral data in a search for recurrent themes, aiming to interpret certain quantitative findings. To be specific, the theme of *praise* emerged when I tried to discover the reasons for the absence of uptake after recasts, because recast was the most frequent CF type, and it scored high on learner uptake and repair. Moreover, *long CF episodes* came into view when I looked more closely at metalinguistic feedback, which was the most frequent prompt. Finally, *peer-repair as feedback* became apparent from observing different types of long CF episodes.

5.6.1 Praise

Quantitative findings revealed that teachers provided reformulations more frequently than prompts in response to students' erroneous utterances. Specifically, one type of reformulation that of recast, was by far the most frequent CF type, across all different techniques. With regards to the efficiency of recast to result in learner uptake, it was found that the majority of the total distribution of recast resulted in uptake (5.3.2 Uptake following CF). So, taking into consideration that recast was not only the most frequent CF type but also a successful technique in relation to learner uptake, I explored the CF episodes that consisted of recast, but resulted in absence of uptake. The aim was to discover whether certain patterns influenced the absence of uptake in relation to recast.

Accordingly, an examination of the instances when there was an absence of learner uptake after recast revealed a noteworthy outcome. The majority of the episodes shared a recurrent pattern, that of praise. Specifically, it was found that when teachers praised the students, before, or after providing a recast, within a single turn, no learner uptake moves were present. It was also noticeable that across the whole dataset, praise accompanied mostly recast. Teachers' use of praise alongside recasts included confirming expressions such as 'great', 'right', 'yes yes', 'yes you're right', and the exchanges are shown in Table 5.24.

<p>Episode 27 (part of a longer episode: 1:02:34 – 1:02:43):</p> <p>S: you can be volunteers like these people (error: lexical)</p> <p>T: yes yes you can become a volunteer (CF: recast)</p> <p>T topic continuation - OK question three how important is the natural... (no uptake)</p>
<p>Episode 34 (00:52 – 1:05):</p> <p>S: there are some litter in some places but it's generally clean (error: grammatical)</p> <p>T: yes there is yes some litter and OK (CF: recast)</p> <p>T topic continuation - where can we find these kinds of graffiti? (no uptake)</p>
<p>Episode 81 (12:31 – 12:50):</p> <p>S:and if Messi go to Barcelona eh he will get many money (error: grammatical)</p> <p>T: yes he would get a lot of money if he went to Barcelona you're right (CF: recast)</p> <p>T topic continuation - <u>but</u> I have a question why did they agree? (no uptake)</p>
<p>Episode 90 (13:34 – 13:38):</p> <p>S: /bɒns/ (error: phonological)</p> <p>T: to /baʊns/ the ball? Right (CF: recast)</p> <p>Other student topic continuation – <i>κύριε θικιό λεπτά να δώ ένταλως γράφετε...</i> [sir two minutes to see how it is written...] (no uptake)</p>
<p>Episode 150 (26:40 – 26:53):</p> <p>T: why should we try on clothes before we buy them?</p> <p>S: because we must see if it fits us (error: grammatical)</p> <p>T: great if they fit us or if they look good on us (CF: recast)</p> <p>T topic continuation – <i>πώς το λέμε τούτο αν μας ταιριάζουν</i> [how do we say that they suit us] it starts with an s (.) if they fit us or if they suit us(no uptake)</p>
<p>Episode 152 (06:26 – 06:47):</p> <p>S: there is lots of bad things like broken labs or blood on the windows and lots of other things like a broken café machine (error: grammatical)</p> <p>T: so yes you're right there are lots of things that are broken (CF: recast)</p> <p>T topic continuation - so that lady there...called the plumber (.) called the electrician... by the way bravo (student's name) for describing the picture...(no uptake)</p>
<p>Episode 197 (03:30 – 03:40):</p> <p>S: I have difficulty with keep safe my brother while my mother (error: grammatical)</p> <p>T: with keeping my brother safe bravo excellent (CF: recast)</p> <p>T topic continuation - <i>λοιπόν</i> [so] creativity... (no uptake)</p>

<p>Episode 279 (12:11 – 12:30):</p> <p>S: he lost in the park (error: grammatical)</p> <p>T: he got lost yes (CF: recast)</p> <p>T topic continuation - he was hit by a car <i>ε ντάξει αν θέλετε...</i> [eh OK if you want...] (no uptake)</p>
<p>Episode 283 (13:48 – 13:56):</p> <p>S: than go to the gym and get tired and sweat (error: lexical)</p> <p>T: get tired and sweaty OK great (students' name) great (CF: recast)</p> <p>T topic continuation – OK next pairing... (no uptake)</p>
<p>Episode 343 (part of a longer episode: 18:36 – 18:47):</p> <p>S: because they are phones have more battery life (error: lexical)</p> <p>T: great they'll be <u>activated longer</u> (CF: recast)</p> <p>T topic continuation - and (student's name) what about the second development? (no uptake)</p>
<p>Episode 101 (17:29 – 18:06):</p> <p>S: if I had played the lotto I would have win (error: grammatical)</p> <p>T: I could have won bravo <i>θα μπορούσα να κερδίσω</i> [I could have won] (CF: recast + L1)</p> <p>T topic continuation - T addresses other student (no uptake)</p>

Table 5. 24: Recasts accompanied by praise resulting in the absence of uptake

Recasts are often considered to be implicit, therefore students might perceive recasts as confirmation of meaning (Long, 1996; 2007; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Long & Robinson, 1998; Nicholas et al., 2001; Mackey, 2007). Nonetheless, recasts are non-monolithic in nature, thus they can be quite ‘explicit’ based on characteristics such as length, mode, number of changes, and linguistic focus amongst others (Sheen, 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Sato, 2011). Characteristics of recasts can be related to uptake, and are discussed within a general discussion between explicit and implicit recasts, and the extent to which recasts are salient to learners both linguistically and pragmatically (Nicholas, et al., 2001; Sheen, 2004; 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006). For this reason, the characteristics of recasts in the episodes in Table 5.24 were considered in detail in an attempt to discover potential patterns.

Recasts in Table 5.24 were examined with respect to their mode, scope, reduction, length, number of changes, and type of changes (Sheen, 2006). The majority of recasts shared the following characteristics: declarative (mode), incorporated (scope), reduced/non-reduced (reduction), clause (length), multiple changes (number of changes), combination of changes (type of changes), and grammar focused (linguistic focus). If recasts are to be treated within a continuum of implicit to explicit, then the majority of the characteristics of recasts in Table 5.24 have not been associated with saliency, hence success. To clarify, explicitness is defined in terms of ‘perceptual salience’ and ‘linguistic marking’ (Ortega, 2009, p. 75), and certain recast characteristics which have been associated with saliency were not found in the recasts in Table 5.24.

With regards to mode, Doughty (2001) claimed that recasts are more effective when they are of an interrogative mode, and are isolated, since they become more salient, therefore more effective. However, Sheen (2006) and Loewen (2004) found that declarative recasts appear more explicit. Moreover, short recasts as for example word/phrase (length), substitution (type of change) recasts, appeared to be more explicit compared to other types, and were associated with high rates of uptake in Sheen’s (2006) study. There are additional researchers who suggested that shorter recasts are more likely to promote accurate noticing (Philip, 2003; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Loewen, 2004). Further support for shorter recasts came from Asari’s (2017) study. Similarly, Nicholas et al., (2001) addressed the linguistic focus of recasts and argued that they are more successful when they focus on a single linguistic feature, and that learners need to be aware of the focused form. In addition, incorporated recasts which provide additional meaning to an utterance appear to make reformulations less salient, because they are incorporated in the discourse (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Lastly, pronunciation and/or lexical focused recasts were also found to result in high uptake rates compared to morphosyntactic driven recasts (Lyster, 1998; Mackey et al., 2000; Mackey et al., 2001; Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2004; Sheen, 2006).

In brief, the corrective function of recasts was found to be more salient when recasts were short, of an interrogative/declarative mode, isolated, of one change, of one type of change, single form focused, and pronunciation/lexical focused. However, most recasts in Table 5.24 shared the following features: declarative, incorporated (due to praise), reduced/non-

reduced, clause, with multiple changes, with a combination of changes, and grammar focused. Thus, they did not share the above characteristics which were associated with saliency. Adding to that, no emphasis was added through stress or intonation (apart from Episode 343), for almost all of the recasts, therefore no ‘explicitness’ was supplemented to them (Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Leeman, 2000, 2003; Sheen, 2006; Asari, 2017).

In addition, Oliver and Mackey (2003) found that when the context made recasts explicit, they were more successful in promoting learner modified output, since they became more salient. However, the discourse context of most of the episodes in Table 5.24 did not appear to aid learners to perceive the recasts as corrective. Most of the episodes occurred during discussions that were communicatively oriented, instead of discussions that were framed around for example, grammatical fill-in the gaps exercises that focus on linguistic forms. Only Episode 197 occurred within a grammar-oriented activity, when the teacher specifically asked the students to make sentences using the phrase ‘I have difficulty with’, plus the verb with an –ing suffix.

Meaning focused activities included for instance, speaking activities around a topic like in Episode 27 (environment), Episode 34 (neighbourhood), Episode 81 (footballer Messi), and Episode 343 (mobile phones). Moreover, other meaning-oriented interactions from certain episodes included teachers asking questions about a reading passage (Episodes 150, 279), or students describing pictures (Episodes 152, 283). Consequently, the discourse context of the classroom at those points was not form-oriented. On the one hand, the use of recasts in such contexts seems logical, precisely because they do not interrupt the communicative flow of the interaction (Goo & Mackey, 2013). On the other hand, the use of praise and of signs of approval alongside recasts especially in such contexts, might have affected how recasts were perceived by the students. As Asari’s (2017) findings indicated, recasts without signs of approval (‘right’, ‘yeah’) were associated with learners’ production of uptake. In the examples in Table 5.24, in addition to such signs of approval, the use of praise with expressions such as ‘excellent’, or ‘bravo’ appeared even more encouraging, to the extent that they might have caused misinterpretation when used together with implicit CF.

Finally, the absence of uptake in these instances could not be appointed to the nature of the classroom. The setting and the number of students in the observed classrooms (a maximum of four or eight students in each class) allowed for the students to receive personalised attention from the teachers, like in tutored settings (Li, 2010; Saito, 2018). In fact, a general trend that emerged across the dataset was that teachers addressed the students by their names while giving them feedback (e.g. Appendix K: Episode 283). Consequently, it should have been evident to students when CF was addressed to them, and absence of uptake could not be attributed to a lack of individualised attention.

In short, the episodes in Table 5.24 suggest that teachers' use of praise alongside the provision of recasts might have affected how students comprehended the feedback. As illustrated in section 5.3.2 Uptake following CF, in general, recasts without student praise were associated with high rates of learner uptake production, and this suggests that students were more likely to recognise the corrective function of recasts when they did not coincide with praise. Moreover, the characteristics of recasts that accompanied praise did not appear to help students to infer the negative evidence in the feedback. Therefore, it might be the case that students missed the corrective function of recasts in Table 5.24, due to the fact that praise co-occurred with recasts in teachers' single turns.

Nevertheless, in the way that real life is composed of different perspectives that do not always coalesce, real data can also involve examples which contradict an emerged pattern (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Accordingly, in addition to the examples presented in Table 5.24 when the use of praise alongside recasts resulted in the absence of learner uptake, there were cases that resulted in the presence of uptake. As indicated in Table 5.25, in Episode 22 the learner produced an acknowledgment, in Episode 106 the student repeated the teacher's feedback, and in Episodes 133 and 137 the learners produced off target responses.

However, taking into consideration students' uptake types, it could be argued that only Episode 106 indicates that the learner noticed the negative evidence in the teacher's recast, because by repeating the teacher's reformulation, the learner indicated that s/he noticed the teacher's recast. Of course, it is not certain whether the student understood the teacher's feedback, or if the repetition represented merely 'parroting' of the teacher's

utterance (e.g. Gass, 2003). Nonetheless, learner uptake implies noticing of the corrective function of recasts (Lyster & Mori, 2002), and a close relationship between uptake and perception was found, which suggests that learners' responses could signal that they perceived the corrective function of recasts (Mackey et al., 2000; Révész, 2002; Egi, 2010).

Episode 22 (54:29 – 54:41):
S: because we know that if we planting trees we save the planet (error: grammatical)
T: yes you're right if we keep on planting them we're going to save the planet (CF: recast)
S: yes (needs-repair: acknowledgment)
Episode 106 (21:42 – 21:46):
S: went near to the sun (error: lexical)
T: yes close to the sun (CF: recast)
S: close to the sun (repair: repetition)
Episode 133 (08:59 – 09:13):
S: wall climbing because it has an equipment (error: lexical)
T: yes you have to buy expensive equipment (CF: recast)
S: and cycling... (needs-repair: off target)
Episode 137 (13:10 – 13:20):
S: if she falls eh the equipment it will save him (error: grammatical)
T: yes the equipment will save her (CF: recast)
S: I think tennis because... (needs-repair: off target)

Table 5. 25: Recasts accompanied by praise resulting in the presence of uptake

Furthermore, students' acknowledgment and off target needs-repairs that were found in the episodes in Table 5.25 cannot confirm that the students noticed or perceived the negative evidence in recasts. Since they represent unmodified output, they do not provide indications of students' attempts to modify the problematic forms. For instance, a student's acknowledgment could simply indicate agreement in relation to the meaning of the teacher's utterance. It does not necessarily indicate that the student has perceived the corrective function of recast. Similarly, a student's off target response avoids the focus of teacher's feedback. In both cases, there is no evidence in students' uptake moves that the

teachers' corrective reformulations were noticed (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2008; Egi, 2010).

In order to indicate the differences between praise alongside recast, and praise combined with other reformulation CF types, examples of praise combined with translation, explicit correction, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation are presented in Table 5.26. Praising phrases such as 'very nice', 'bravo', 'excellent', and 'great' accompanied teachers' CF.

Episode 26 (1:00:56 – 1:01:15):
S: I think one day the earth is going to be ... <i>ένα σκουπίδι</i> [a garbage] (error: unsolicited use of L1)
T: yes it will turn out into a landfilled into a wasteland you're right (CF: translation)
T topic continuation - yes we do see a lot of garbage in the streets... (no uptake)
Episode 38 (24:02 – 24:25):
S: As a result the people they will be stop throwing litter on the beach (error: grammatical)
T: OK <i>πολλά ωραίο</i> [very nice] as a result <i>έν θέλει το</i> [doesn't need the] the <i>γιατί έν μιλάς συγκεκριμένα για κάποιους</i> [because you don't talk about specific people] as a result people OK? <i>και</i> [and] will stop <i>μετά το</i> [after] will <i>απλό ρήμα</i> [simple verb] (CF: explicit + metalinguistic)
T topic continuation - T addressing other student (no uptake)
Episode 92 (17:20 – 17:40):
S: at the end of 18 lots of teenagers in Cyprus waste time for to be soldiers (error: grammatical)
T: bravo G. excellent example <i>απλά εκεί μετά το</i> [just there after the] waste time <u>being soldiers</u> (CF: explicit correction)
Other student topic continuation - asks student to explain what he said (no uptake)
Episode 96 (09:28 – 09:45):
S: I will be the delivery guy for you as long as give to me 10 euros (error: grammatical)
T: excellent as long as <u>you</u> give me <i>μετά από το</i> [after the] as long as <i>τούτες τις προτάσεις εδώ</i> (.) <i>ξεκινά καινούργια πρόταση</i> [these sentences here (.) it starts a new sentence] as long as <u>you</u> (CF: explicit + metalinguistic)
T topic continuation – <i>λοιπόν είμαστε εντάξει με τους</i> [so are we OK with the] temporals? (no uptake)

Episode 221 (part of a longer episode: 46:08 – 46:53):

S: I wish I could answer about the questions for the Corealist great world theories the biggest galaxy in our dimension (error: grammatical)

T: OK it's really good effort but I wish I could have all the answers *μακάρι να είχα όλες τις απαντήσεις* [I wish I had all the answers] (CF: explicit)

T topic continuation – *πάμε στο επόμενο* [let's go to the next one] (no uptake)

Table 5. 26: Explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, and translation accompanied by praise

In Episode 26, teacher's translation offered a substitution to the student's unsolicited use of L1. This type of change was found to promote noticing of recasts, thus it might have helped the student to perceive translation as CF here (Sheen, 2006). However, the teacher's feedback was a long utterance, and this might have impeded the student from producing uptake, since it has been found that shorter reformulations produce more accurate noticing (Philip, 2003; Loewen, 2004; Sheen, 2006).

With regards to the rest of the episodes in Table 5.26, the teachers provided explicit correction, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation alongside praise, in response to students' errors. Teachers' feedback also included instances of emphasis in intonation (the underlined words/phrases in Episodes 92, 96, and 121). Therefore, although praise accompanied teachers' feedback, it should be the case that students were aware of the corrective function of teachers' utterances because it was explicitly signalled. For this reason, although students did not produce an uptake in response to teachers' feedback, praise did not seem to affect students' perceptions of the corrective function of explicit correction; hence it does not appear to be the main reason affecting students' absence of uptake in these cases.

Prompts were also found to co-occur with praise. As illustrated in Table 5.27, in the limited instances when praising complemented clarification request and elicitation, students produced uptake.

Episode 43 (part of a longer episode: (45:33 – 46:01):
S: got up and I saw your father to make a scary movie and I'm like huh (error: grammatical)
T: OK bravo when I saw your? I didn't quite get that (CF: clarification request)
S: when I saw his father YouTube videos (needs-repair: different error)
Episode 303 (07:29 – 07:37):
S: stir (error: grammatical)
T: bravo stir <i>ανακατεύω</i> [stir] but <i>βάρτο στο σωστό χρόνο</i> [put it in the right] tense? is? (CF: elicitation)
S: stirring (self-repair)

Table 5. 27: Prompts accompanied by praise

To conclude, considering all the examples shown in Tables 5.24 – 5.27 of praise accompanying different CF types, it can be suggested that not all CF types were equally affected by the use of praise. In particular, explicit correction provides both positive and negative evidence, because both an explicit indication that an error has occurred, and the correct reformulation of a student's erroneous utterance are given. Prompts on the other hand, provide only negative evidence, since they invite students to self-correct, when they return the floor to the students. Thus they welcome modified output, and they also draw students' attention to form, targeting mutual comprehension through accuracy (Lyster, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Gass, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Consequently, teachers' praise alongside either explicit correction or prompts, appears to have limited impact on students' absence of uptake, because it is less likely that it would cause misinterpretation of their corrective function.

However, while recasts provide positive evidence through teachers' reformulations of students' erroneous utterances, they do not constitute clear negative evidence. The corrective function of recasts contrary to other CF types is not explicitly signalled in any way. It is up to the learners to recognise the negative evidence in teachers' feedback. Therefore, recasts are considered ambiguous, because they are often indistinguishable from non-corrective repetitions (Gass, 1997; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Sheen, 2006).

Consequently, it seems more likely that praise affects the absence of uptake when it is provided together with recasts.

Based on the above examples, it can be suggested that the ambiguity of the corrective function of recasts might be enhanced when paired with student praise. The discourse context might have added to the ambiguity, since recasts were provided mainly in meaning focused activities. Moreover, as discussed already, recasts can be more or less implicit depending on a number of characteristics. Previous findings indicated that the corrective function of recasts was found to be more salient when recasts were short, of an interrogative or a declarative mode, isolated, of one change, of one type of change, single form focused, and pronunciation/lexical focused (e.g. Lyster, 1998; Philip, 2003; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Loewen, 2004; Sheen, 2006; Egi, 2007).

Nevertheless, in the current study, praise occurred alongside recasts that shared the following characteristics: declarative, incorporated (due to praise), reduced or non-reduced, clause, multiple changes, combination of changes, and grammar focused. Such features along with the fact that no explicitness was added via stress might have enhanced the influence of praise, and might have prohibited the recognition of the corrective purpose of the technique. Accordingly, it could be suggested that pairing praise with word or short phrase recasts that focus on a single linguistic form, like a pronunciation error, through substitution, might not affect learners' recognition of the corrective function of teacher's feedback, because they would likely come across to students as more explicit, thus more salient, contrary to the recasts that were found in the current dataset. Moreover, it seems a better practice to use confirming expressions alongside other CF types, such as explicit correction, or prompts. As already pointed out, due to the nature of such techniques students are more aware of their corrective purpose, contrary to simple reformulations like recasts.

The benefits of the use of praise are not denied. Praising students for good performance is believed to increase motivation, and to foster positive attitudes towards learning (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). As Ur (2012) claims, indicating that a learner has produced proper language in a particular instance is likely to benefit not only the individual student, but also the other students in class who pay attention to the linguistic forms produced by the

student. Praising students when producing accurate utterances will likely offer possible learning gains to different members of a class. Moreover, it could help learners distinguish the corrective purpose of recasts when they receive them.

The discussion about praise and CF emerged when certain quantitative outcomes were taken into consideration. Specifically, the fact that recast was the most frequent CF type and was generally successful in learner uptake. Similarly, the frequency of a prompt was the initial reason to search the data and to discover long CF episodes which are discussed in the next section.

5.6.2 Long CF episodes

Quantitative findings indicated that metalinguistic feedback in L1 was the most frequent prompt. Metalinguistic feedback and elicitation were also frequent prompts (5.2.2 Distribution of CF). Moreover, along with other prompts, metalinguistic feedback in L1 and metalinguistic feedback were associated with high rates of uptake (5.3.2 Uptake following CF). In an attempt to discover potential patterns that influenced the presence or the absence of uptake in relation to these frequent prompts, long CF episodes became apparent. Particularly, there were plenty of CF episodes that consisted of metalinguistic feedback and were longer than the basic three turn sequence, namely a triadic dialogue of error trigger, teacher feedback and learner uptake.

It is generally known that prompts might lead to additional student and teacher turns within a CF sequence, hence to longer episodes, and that is why they are also known as ‘negotiation of form’ techniques (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In fact, previous studies that dealt with such long episodes used the term “scaffolded feedback” (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994), which referred to episodes that involved “different corrective mediations in the form of prompts” (Rassaei, 2014, p. 422). However, they did not distinguish between different types of prompts, and they measured the effectiveness of scaffolded feedback *versus* recasts, in experimental studies using staged dyadic interactions.

However, in the current naturalistic classroom data, long episodes which consisted of students’ additional errors, and of teachers’ extra feedback, encompassed combinations

which went beyond only prompts. Specifically, episodes that were longer than the basic three-turn sequence included the teachers' provision of either several prompts (23 episodes), or a combination of prompts and reformulations (46 episodes), or several reformulations (27 episodes). Therefore, it seemed noteworthy to investigate both students' and teachers' efforts within these long feedback sequences. I tried to interpret and to discover specific patterns in relation to all kinds of long episodes, starting with the next section which concerns long episodes that consisted of only prompts.

5.6.2.1 Long prompt episodes

Giving to the students opportunities to self-correct can motivate them, contribute to the dynamics of the classroom, and make it more interactive (Li, 2013). Nevertheless, it is not always the case that a student self-corrects immediately after the provision of CF. Sometimes, additional feedback might be needed for a student to produce modified output or to self-correct. Such a dynamic process can be achieved when a CF episode is longer than the basic three-turn sequence of student-teacher-student interaction.

Looking at long prompt episodes, which as their name implies, consisted of only prompt feedback turns revealed some outcomes worth mentioning. Specifically, twenty-two prompt episodes ended in learner repair, and only one episode resulted in no uptake. With regards to their characteristics, firstly, metalinguistic feedback and metalinguistic feedback in L1 appeared to be the 'protagonists' in long prompt episodes. In almost all long prompt episodes there was either metalinguistic feedback or metalinguistic feedback in L1. Nevertheless, there was a difference in the length of the episodes. Some episodes comprised two different techniques, whilst others involved as many as five or six feedback turns. In addition to dissimilar lengths, these episodes differed in terms of feedback quality, namely in the combinations of techniques.

In particular, in the long prompt episodes the teachers mixed different prompts, and/or different features of a specific type of prompt, in different turns in a single episode. For instance, metalinguistic feedback involves comments, information, or questions pointing to the well-formedness of a student's utterance, and metalinguistic comments in the form of rules, or actions that point to the location and/or the nature of the error. Metalinguistic feedback in L1 represents all of these techniques when using the L1 (see 3.4.6.2 CF types

for more details). In the long prompt episodes, these different features of metalinguistic feedback were found in different patterns, and these are described below.

Firstly, a recurrent pattern that emerged from the naturalistic classroom data was the teachers' provision of **a rule after another rule**. Specifically, metalinguistic feedback was provided in the form of 'rules', in several turns within a single CF episode. For instance, in Episode 94 the teacher's initial feedback move was a repetition of the learner's erroneous form, and the student's response was a different grammatical error. Then, the teacher started to give hints in the form of grammatical rules, in order to guide the student towards the right direction. Specifically, the teacher's rules concerned modals and the formation of one side of the first conditional. However, the student produced another error in response to these. Next, the teacher gave additional rules concerning the tenses that are needed for the formation of both sides of the first conditional (i.e. If clause, result clause). Then again, the student produced an erroneous utterance. The teacher continued with another attempt, pointing to the error, and giving the student an example to think of. The student did not manage to repair the error though. Nonetheless, the teacher continued to guide the student. S/he pointed out the position of the error, and as a result, the student was finally able to self-repair.

Episode 94 (41:35 – 43:47):

S: If I will came (error: grammatical)

T: *Παναγία μου* [Saint Mary] will came (CF: repetition)

S: If I will come (needs-repair: different error: grammatical)

T: *ένας κανόνας μετά το* [one rule after] will *θέλει ρήμα απλό ο πρώτος* [it needs a simple verb the first] conditional *λέει* [it says] if plus simple present *εάν πάω* [if I go] (CF: metalinguistic f. in L1)

S: If I will come (needs-repair: different error: grammatical)

T: *άτε πάλε με το θα* [come on again with will] if plus simple present *και απ'την άλλη μεριά* [and on the other side] will (CF: metalinguistic f. in L1)

S: If I don't didn't (needs-repair: different error: grammatical)

T: *γιατί να βάλεις* [why put] didn't *σκέφτου με το πάω αργοπορημένος* (.) *ο προπονητής* [think with going late (.) the coach]

S: If I don't (needs-repair: different error: grammatical)

T: *έν χρειάζεται το* [you don't need] don't *αν πάω* [if I go] (CF: metalinguistic in L1)

S: If I come late for practice the coach will not let me play (repair: self-repair)

Episode 94 shows that the teacher's effort to push the learner to produce modified output was worth it. Even when the student produced plenty of untargeted responses, the teacher's persistence to lead the student towards self-repair paid off. In a way, it seems that the teacher guided the learner by giving one rule after another based on the student's needs until s/he was able to repair the error. Such an exchange indicated both the teacher's and the student's efforts. The teacher took the time to focus on the individual student and to lead the way towards a self-repair, by repeatedly exposing the learner to negative evidence. The student's efforts were evident from the several turns of modified output, after s/he was given the opportunity to notice L2 linguistic forms. Moreover, the fact that the teacher used the L1 (CG) to provide metalinguistic information might have helped the students to produce 'pushed output', because it might have helped them understand the information better (Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Considering that at the interpsychological level users were found to use their own language for collaborative talking during tasks, which helped them solve tasks, and maintain focus (Antón & DiCamila, 1999), then the teacher's use of CG could represent a cognitive tool in scaffolding, with the shared language acting as a positive resource (Widdowson, 2003).

It seems important to note though that the student's successful performance could be attributed to the provision of negative evidence through prompts, the opportunities to produce modified output over already internalised forms (Swain, 1985, 1988), and to the student's zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). In particular, the student benefitted from this interaction because s/he appeared to be already proficient in the necessary linguistic forms on how to form the tenses in question. The interaction appeared to occur within the student's ZPD, and the teacher's guidance ended in a successful 'assisted performance' by the student. This assisted performance was at a higher level compared to what s/he initially performed without the teacher's help. Therefore, the student progressed because of the interaction with the teacher. Furthermore, the teacher's code switching between CG and English might have enabled the learner to work with the teacher at a level that would otherwise be beyond his/her reach (Hall & Cook, 2012).

Like Episode 94, Episode 155 is a slightly shorter student-teacher exchange when the teacher provided metalinguistic feedback in L1 according to the needs of the student.

Firstly, the teacher referred to the nature of the error and explained why the chosen linguistic form was inappropriate, i.e. wrong tense. Then, the teacher helped the student by pointing out the required tense, withholding the correct reformulation. Teacher's metalinguistic aid was enough for the student to repair the error, perhaps because the student was already proficient in the necessary linguistic forms on how to form the future tense. The interaction appeared to occur within the student's personal ZPD, therefore s/he self-repaired when given the opportunity to produce modified output through feedback.

Episode 155 (09:58 – 10:51):

S: should have gotten (error: grammatical)

T: *γιατί* [why] should have gotten *μιλούμε για το παρελθόν*; [are we talking about the past?] *το* [the] should have *τρίτη στήλη έν για κάτι που μετανιώνω για το παρελθόν* [third column is for something that I regret about the past] (CF: metalinguistic f. in L1)

S: *θα πρέπει να τα έχει καθαρισμένα πριν να ανοίξει* [he will have to have them cleaned before he opens] (different error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: *άρα μιλά για το μέλλον (.) ποió μιλά για το μέλλον*; [so it talks about the future (.) which one talks about the future?] (CF: metalinguistic f. in L1)

S: will

T: *ναι* [yes]

S: will get the windows cleaned (repair: self-repair)

Episode 57 is an even shorter student-teacher exchange when a student felt that s/he was not able to provide the correct answer. However, the teacher's provision of metalinguistic information emphasising the meaning of the missing word was enough for the student to self-repair.

Episode 57 (44:56 – 45:18):

S: about his advice (error: lexical)

T: *ενδιαφέρεται για τη συμβουλή του*? [he cares about his advice?] (CF: translation L1)

S: *έν το ξέρω έν μου έρκεται* [I don't know it I can't remember it] (needs-repair: different error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: (student's name) chooses to buy trendy clothes because he cares about the way he looks (CF: metalinguistic feedback)

S: ahh his appearance (repair: self-repair)

Like Episodes 94, 57, and 155, Episodes 63, 156, 158, 206, 253 and 258 followed similar patterns, with the teacher providing metalinguistic feedback in the form of rules that either pointed to the nature of the error, or directed the students towards certain actions that led to self-repair (see Appendix K for the Episodes).

The importance of the opportunities for pushed output that prompts offer, and of a student's personal ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978; Swain, 1995, 2005) can also be illustrated in Episode 9. Contrary to students' repairs in the Episodes described above i.e. Episodes similar to 94, Episode 9 shows a case when a student appeared to be non-proficient in the necessary linguistic forms to repair his/her lexical error. In this example, regardless of the teacher's assistance through numerous prompts, it appears that in Vygotskian terms the problem was not accessible to the learner's ZPD.

Episode 9 (25:18 – 26:04):

S1: the only problem is that plastic is unharmed to the environment (error: lexical)

T: plastic is something we need an adjective here ok? (metalinguistic in L1)

S: harmless? (different error: lexical)

T: we say that smoking is *αυτή η λέξη* [this word] to your health (error: elicitation)

S2: *τζίνο που είπες το αντίθετο* [the opposite of what you said]

T: δηλαδή προκαλεί ζημιά [namely it causes damage] (CF: translation in L1)

S1: *ε ναι κύριε* [eh yes sir] harmless *έννεν τζίνο που προκαλεί ζημιά;* [isn't the one that causes damage?] (different error: lexical)

T: harmless *είναι τζίνο που δεν προκαλεί ζημιά* [is the one that doesn't cause damage] (CF: translation in L1)

S1: huh unharmed (different error: lexical)

T: harmless *είναι τζίνο που δεν προκαλεί ζημιά* (.) *τζίνο που προκαλεί;* [is the one that doesn't cause damage (.) what's the one that causes damage?] (CF: translation in L1)

S1: *ναι έν το άλλο που θέλουμε* [yes it's the other one that we want] (different error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: Harmless? (CF: elicitation)

S1: harmful? (different error: lexical)

T: *B. ζέρεις;* [(student's name) do you know?] (CF: elicitation)

S3: harmful (peer-repair)

It seems that the student understood the corrective purpose of teacher's provision of feedback, because the student's effort to repair the error was apparent through the production of modified output in relation to the error. Nevertheless, the linguistic problem appeared to be outside of his/her ZPD, because the student was not able to provide the correct answer, even with the teacher's help in the form of prompts. After continuous prompting the teacher appeared to realise that his/her attempts to retrieve the student's existing knowledge (Goo & Mackey, 2013) were not effective, therefore s/he elicited the correct answer from another student.

An additional outcome that surfaced from Episode 9 was in relation to peer-repair. The episode was a dyadic interaction between a student and the teacher, but it was evident that another student paid attention to the focused linguistic form. The teacher simply asked Student 3 "(student's name) do you know?" without specifying 'what', and Student 3 was able to provide the correct answer. If Student 3 did not pay attention to the interaction between Student 1 and the teacher, then s/he would not be able to participate and repair the error.

Student 3 might have been able to provide the correct answer either because he already knew the word in the first place, or because s/he paid attention to the interaction between the teacher and Student 1, and benefitted from teacher's feedback because the problem was in principle accessible to his/her ZPD. Therefore, this example shows that a teacher's assistance through feedback can benefit not only the student who produces an error, but also other students in the classroom who focus on form. Peer-repair is a topic that is discussed later in more detail in section 5.6.3 Peer-repair as feedback.

To continue, another pattern that emerged from the naturalistic classroom data within long prompt episodes was **indication before help**. In particular, this involved the provision of metalinguistic feedback in the form of a simple indication, followed by comments pointing to the nature of the error. To be exact, teachers used words/phrases such as 'be careful', or 'no', both in English and in CG, as well as the filler 'umm' to indicate to the students that their utterances were erroneous. When the indications were not enough for the students to self-repair, the teachers provided additional metalinguistic feedback which pointed to the nature of the error. This pattern also occurred vice versa.

For example, as illustrated in Table 5.28, in Episode 66, the teacher with ‘no no’ indicated that the students’ utterance was problematic. Thus, the student tried to reformulate part of the original utterance, but his/her attempt was unsuccessful. Then, the teacher pointed out the nature of the error, turning the student’s focus towards the right direction i.e. the need to form the negative. After the teachers’ assistance the student was able to self-repair.

Episode 3 (03:46 – 03:56):
T: every year the U.S. S: produce (error: grammatical) T: be careful (student’s name) (CF: metalinguistic) S: produced (different error: grammatical) T: it's (error: metalinguistic f.) S: <i>με</i> [with] s (needs-repair: partial repair) T: come again (CF: elicitation) S: produces (self-repair)
Episode 66 (21:18 – 21:45):
S: according to the notice the tennis tournament is going not to be held until the end of June (error: grammatical) T: no no (CF: metalinguistic f.) S: is going to be held? (different error: grammatical) T: <i>πώς θα γίνει άρνηση δαμέ; Απλά είναι θέμα μορφής δαμέ έν χρειάζεται να σκεφτείς κάτι</i> [how will this become a negative here? It is simply a matter of form you don't need to think of anything] (CF: metalinguistic f. in L1) S: isn't going to be held (self-repair)
Episode 154 (09:22 – 09:52):
S: Harry getting the walls painted by a professional painter (error: grammatical) T: umm (CF: metalinguistic f.) S: was getting (different error: grammatical) T: <i>όι</i> [no] (CF: metalinguistic f.) S: Harry is getting the walls painted by..... (self-repair)
Episode 207 (11:11 – 11:23):
S: if only the film hadn’t be so scary (error: grammatical) T: <i>η τρίτη στήλη του</i> [the third column of] be? (CF: metalinguistic f. in L1) S: was (different error: grammatical) T: no (CF: metalinguistic f.) S: been (self-repair)

Episode 248 (53:56 – 54:06):
S: virtual (error: lexical)
T: something else (CF: metalinguistic f.)
S: another word (different error: lexical)
T: it's not difficult and it's not complicated (CF: metalinguistic f.)
S: or complex (self-repair)
Episode 250 (1:01:40 – 1:02:10):
S: he has a way (error: lexical)
T: he gets what he wants? We have three left think about it (CF: metalinguistic f.)
S: goes out (different error: lexical)
T: it's not that one (CF: metalinguistic f.)
S: his own way (self-repair)

Table 5. 28: Long prompt episodes that included indications of errors and other techniques

Like Episode 66, Episodes 3, 154, 248, and 250 included metalinguistic feedback in the form of simple indications of errors. In particular, in Episode 3 the teacher provided an indication that there is an error with “be careful (student’s name)”, then a metalinguistic clue, and then an elicitation which acted as a final ‘push’. Similarly, in Episode 248 the teacher provided an indication with “something else”, and then a metalinguistic explanation of the lexical error. However, the exact opposite occurred in Episodes 207 and 250, when the teachers’ indications with “no” and “it’s not that one” were provided after the metalinguistic information about the necessary verb form, and the explanation for the required word respectively.

Moreover, there was only one long prompt episode when the teacher’s feedback consisted of solely indications. In Episode 154, the teacher’s filler ‘umm’ was followed by the student’s untargeted modified output. Then, the teacher said ‘*óí*’ with emphasis, which means ‘no’ in CG. After the second indication, the student repaired the error. Nonetheless, the use of simple indications were more frequent in short episodes, namely in basic three-turn episodes across the dataset. Such an outcome appears rational, because when a student produces untargeted modified output in response to an indication that signals an error, it makes more sense to follow up with a feedback technique that helps the student

to turn towards the right direction. Simple indications appear not to assist the students like other techniques, and maybe that was the reason teachers were found to generally provide indications with other CF techniques in long CF episodes.

Overall, teachers used indications as general hints before moving to more supportive techniques that pointed to the nature of the error (metalinguistic feedback in the form of linguistic rules), or elicited modified output (elicitation). Indications were also used in the opposite order, namely after the provision of such supporting techniques. The patterns that emerged in long prompt episodes appear similar to what was previously referred to as scaffolded feedback. The term scaffolded feedback is associated with students' needs in that teachers should depend on a students' needs, or more specifically to a learner's ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978) when providing feedback, in the form of negotiation moves (Rassaei, 2014). However, scaffolded feedback is associated with a sociocultural approach which does not make the rigid distinctions between feedback types within the process of scaffolded feedback, whereas I distinguish between different CF types within long prompt episodes. Moreover, I do not believe that addressing students' needs can be achieved *only* through prompts.

Scaffolded feedback was previously explored as one feedback type, and it was compared to recasts. However, I do not agree that it should always be a case of scaffolded feedback *versus* recasts. In contrast, I believe that different CF types can be used by teachers as complementary techniques in order to assist students to progress, and this is what I attempt to illustrate in the following section.

5.6.2.2 Long combination episodes

The current naturalistic classroom data revealed that there were instances of long combination episodes, which as their name implies, consisted of a combination of prompts and reformulations. This outcome came to illustrate a different picture to the previously staged dyadic interactions that were associated with the term scaffolded feedback, and only contained corrective mediations in the forms of prompts. Consequently, the current dataset revealed outcomes in relation to the quality of long CF episodes, in terms of CF types. It also provides evidence to illustrate that assisting students to progress through interaction could also involve a combination of prompt and

reformulation techniques. In addition to long prompt episodes that emerged from the present data, it was found that teachers provided both prompts and reformulations within single episodes, which I refer to as long combination episodes.

The majority of combination episodes started with the provision of a prompt. In particular, the most frequent long combination episodes included a prompt followed by a reformulation (29 episodes). The next most frequent feedback type combination was a prompt, followed by another prompt, followed by a reformulation (five episodes). Among other types of combinations which occurred less frequently were the following:

- several prompts, a reformulation
- two prompts, two reformulations
- a prompt, a reformulation, two prompts
- a prompt, two reformulations
- a reformulation, a prompt
- two reformulations, a prompt, a reformulation

Overall, the most frequent combination episodes comprised two or three CF types.

The most frequent type of combination, that of a prompt and a reformulation, half the times resulted in an uptake, and the other half in no uptake. From those episodes that ended in learner uptake, nine ended in repair, and five in needs-repair. Such an outcome suggests that this combination could be equally beneficial and non-beneficial for students, in terms of producing an uptake or not producing an uptake. Episode 23 is an example of the most frequent combination, namely of one prompt and one reformulation. In this Episode, the student produced a lexical error with 'do kids'. The teacher provided a clarification request, but the student responded to the teacher's feedback using the L1. Then, the teacher provided explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, since s/he did not simply provide the correct word, but also explained the student's error, which was associated with the use of the phrase 'do kids' in the L1. Finally, the student repaired the error by repeating the teacher's reformulation.

Episode 23 (57:50 – 58:24):

S: ...or 50 ok I won't live but if I do kids my kids will live in that year (error: lexical)

T: what do you mean I do kids? (CF: clarification request)

S: *αν κάμω παιδιά εν τα παιδιά μου που θα ζήσουν* [if I make children it's my children who will live] (different error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: if I have children maybe do kids is a Greek phrase (CF: explicit + metalinguistic)

S: if I have children (self-repair)

Nonetheless, this type of combination namely of a prompt followed by explicit correction, resulted in student uptake only one more time, and it was an off target needs-repair. This is indicated in Episode 203 (see Appendix K for all Episodes). In fact, Episode 23 was the only case when this type of combination resulted in learner repair. Moreover, it was one of the two episodes when explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation was combined with a prompt. The other episode resulted in no uptake (Episode 304). Similar episodes consisting of a prompt and explicit correction, without metalinguistic explanation, also resulted in the absence of uptake (Episodes 54, 212, 221, and 263).

Such outcomes contradicted the quantitative findings which revealed generally high levels of learner uptake in response to explicit correction (60% uptake, 40% no uptake for explicit correction), but lower rates of uptake for explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation (38% uptake, 62% no uptake) (see section 5.3.2 Uptake following CF for more details). Generally, explicit correction provides both positive and negative evidence, which means that students received both the target forms of their errors, and information that their utterances were erroneous. Consequently, students' absences of uptake could not be attributed to matters of noticeability in relation to the corrective purpose of teachers' feedback, because students are more likely to notice explicit CF than implicit CF (Mackey et al., 2007; Nassaji, 2009).

The absences of learner uptake in these types of combination episodes could be attributed to matters relating to the concept of 'face' (Goffman, 1955; 1967). Every individual's 'face' represents feelings of self-worth or self-image, which can be damaged, maintained, or enhanced through interaction (Thomas, 1995). The two aspects of face namely

'positive' (desire to be liked, approved) and 'negative' (desire not to be impeded) can be threatened by certain illocutionary acts known as 'face-threatening acts' (FTAs) (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Factors that influence the degree of a threat include issues of directness, roles, as well as power differences with the person who threatens one's face (Redmond, 2015). Therefore, in relation to feedback, implicit CF techniques appear less face-threatening compared to explicit correction. Moreover, in relation to the classroom environment, explicit feedback might threaten students' positive face in front of their teachers and peers.

Nevertheless, as already pointed out, quantitative findings revealed generally high rates of uptake in response to explicit correction, which contradicted the absence of uptake found in response to combination episodes that consisted of a prompt and explicit correction. Consequently, it appears that explicit correction appeared face threatening when used as part of this particular combination. To clarify, teachers' initial attempts to prompt students to self-correct were unsuccessful. However, the fact that students produced untargeted modified output made their efforts evident to the rest of the class. The directness of teachers' explicit correction that followed in response to students' untargeted modified output, might have acted as a threat towards their positive face. As a result, perhaps in defence, students chose not to produce an uptake.

In addition to explicit correction, other reformulation types that were found within the prompt reformulation combination episodes included recast, recast with L1, or translation. The episodes that included a prompt and a recast were the most frequent. Episodes that combined a translation were less frequent, whereas those which incorporated recast with L1 were the least frequent. Regarding their success in terms of uptake, the prompt recast episodes resulted in higher rates of learner uptake than no uptake. Moreover, uptake moves consisted of more repairs than needs-repairs. Such findings did not contradict the general quantitative findings which revealed high rates of learner uptake production (84%) and repair moves (45%) after recasts. However, the prompt translation episodes resulted equally in uptake and no uptake, when quantitative findings indicated a generally high distribution of uptake and repair after translation (see section 5.3.2 Uptake following CF for more details).

As already discussed, the combination of a prompt and explicit correction did not successfully result in learner uptake/repair. In contrast, the combination of a prompt and a recast revealed a different outcome, with the majority of episodes ending in learner repair. Episode 108 is one of the examples when the combination of prompt and recast resulted in learner repair. In this case, the teacher initially provided an elicitation in response to the student's lexical error 'fell over'. However, the student responded to teacher's feedback by producing the same error. Then, the teacher provided a one word recast, which appeared to increase the saliency of its corrective function. As a result, the student appeared to notice the target word and produced an incorporation.

Episode 108 (22:05 – 22:21):

S: got burnt from the sun and the Icarus fell over I think (error: lexical)

T: he did what? He? (CF: elicitation)

S: fell over (same error: lexical)

T: fell (CF: recast)

S: fell in the sea (repair: incorporation)

Such a successful example illustrates the benefits of combining a prompt with a recast. The teacher's initial prompt was unsuccessful, therefore, the teacher decided to reformulate the student's error, instead of pushing him/her to attempt self-correction. By doing so, the teacher appeared to save both time and the student's 'positive face', because recasts are considered to be time saving techniques and not as face-threatening as explicit CF, since they are implicit techniques and do not interrupt the flow of communication (Loewen & Philip, 2006; Gass & Mackey, 2013). Similar exchanges that ended in repair were Episodes: 20, 43, 107, 205, 225, and 371.

In view of the above, recasts can be an important element of scaffolding, when scaffolding is viewed as a process through which teachers help students to progress through interaction. Like prompts, recasts can also act as scaffolds, but different types of scaffolds; those that assist students by "controlling those elements that are beyond learners' capacity" (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976, p. 89) by presenting target models in immediate juxtaposition. Students appear to complete elements that are within their range

of competence, when they infer negative evidence and repair their errors by producing repetitions or incorporations. Such a process appears to represent one paramount condition of scaffolding set by Wood et al., (1976) that needs to be fulfilled if teachers' assistance is to be beneficial for students. The condition is that "comprehension of the solution must precede production" (p. 90). The presupposition that learners must recognise teachers' negative evidence through the provision of positive evidence suggests that learners and teachers co-construct knowledge.

Students' attentive resources play an important role in the prompt reformulation episodes that include recasts. Having been unable to self-correct after being prompted to do so, students must notice the corrective purpose of recasts, and must recognise the mismatch between their interlanguage and the target language, in order to modify their original erroneous utterances using the provided L2 models (Lyster et al., 2013). A student's repair in response to a reformulation allows him/her to practice and to automatize the retrieval of target language relevant to a conversational context, and provides evidence for on the spot language processing (Clarke et al., 2017).

I believe that long prompt episodes are beneficial for learners, because they assist students to self-repair. Nonetheless, sometimes providing prompts when a student is not ready to self-correct can appear face-threatening. Sometimes a learner might need a reformulation rather than a prompt, simply because regardless of the hints that could be offered by the teacher, a linguistic form might be outside of a learner's ZPD (like in long prompt Episode 9). By providing a reformulation, a teacher can still assist the learner, giving newly identified information, or automatizing retrieval of existing knowledge, which can be stored in student's long lasting memory (Long, 2007; Goo & Mackey, 2013; Lyster et al., 2013). The quality of other repair namely a repetition or an incorporation of given target language does differ from a self-repair, but the importance of the one does not override the significance of the other. I trust that combining prompts with reformulations, particularly recasts, could also be advantageous for learners.

Focusing on how teachers and students interact shows that every situation can be different. Similar to how a student's error cannot be predicted, teachers do not always know a priori how they would react to a student's error. Of course, teachers are familiar

with different feedback techniques, but every situation is different. Every episode, every student, the timing of an error, how much time a teacher can afford to spend on a single episode, all affect teachers' CF. With immediate oral CF needs-analysis happens on the spot. As shown already, in the present naturalistic classroom data teachers were found to use solely prompts, or a combination of prompts and reformulations in single episodes. In addition to these, there were instances of long episodes that consisted solely of reformulations, and these are discussed in the following section.

5.6.2.3 Long reformulation episodes

Long reformulation episodes as their name implies consisted of a combination of different reformulation CF types, ranging from explicit correction and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, to translation, recast, and recast with L1. A total of 29 long reformulation episodes were found in the data. 22 reformulation episodes ended in learner uptake, from which 16 episodes ended in learner repair, and six in needs-repair. Only seven episodes resulted in the absence of student uptake. Such outcomes indicated that in the majority of cases long reformulation episodes resulted in students' production of modified output.

From the reformulation episodes that resulted in repair, the most frequent combination types were recast followed by translation, and different turns of recasts. With regards to learner repair types in relation to these two patterns, recast with translation always resulted in repetition, whereas different turns of recasts led to both repetition and incorporation. Other types of combinations that occurred with less frequency included the following:

- recast, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation that resulted in incorporation
- explicit correction, translation that resulted in incorporation
- recast, explicit correction which resulted in repetition

Similar to prompts, there are more or less explicit or implicit reformulations. Therefore, the different combination patterns in the long episodes appeared to serve different roles to teachers' feedback turns. Moreover, looking at the long reformulation episodes more

closely revealed that not all of them focused on a single form. In particular, half of the reformulation episodes focused on a single linguistic item from beginning to end, whereas the other half dealt with more than one linguistic form before the episodes ended. Therefore, I decided to investigate the role of the different reformulations in the long episodes for both the single form and multiple form focused episodes.

With regards to episodes that focused on a single form, namely the student's initial error, as was expected, the second reformulation was provided because the student did not indicate that s/he noticed the initial target reformulation provided by the teacher. Thus, in some cases like in Episode 7, the second reformulation appeared to help the student notice the teacher's L2 model. To illustrate, in Episode 7 the teacher's reformulation of the student's erroneous verb form was not fully noticed by the student. S/he appeared to notice half of the teacher's recast, namely 'will', and used the same error 'won' once again. Therefore, the teacher provided explicit feedback with metalinguistic explanation, with added stress emphasis ('will win') on the target forms which helped the student to incorporate a repair.

Episode 7 (18:30 – 18:50):

S: there's no way Cyprus national team won the (error: grammatical)

T: will win (CF: recast)

S: will won (same error: grammatical)

T: (student's name) *όταν έχουμε* [when we have] *will θέλουμε ρήμα απλό* [we want a simple verb] will win (CF: explicit + metalinguistic)

S: will win the Euro world cup 2018 (repair: incorporation)

Similarly, in Episode 369 the student did not indicate that s/he noticed the teacher's recast, but s/he produced a different error which was unrelated to the initial error. Therefore, there was no indication that the student noticed the teacher's feedback, because there was no effort from the student to produce modified output related to the error. Nonetheless, when the teacher provided explicit correction in response to the student's second error, s/he produced a different error, while repeating the teacher's correction. The student's repetition indicated that s/he noticed the targeted form of explicit correction. After this,

the student focused on the form and the teacher's one word recast was also noticed by the student, as it was incorporated in his/her uptake.

Episode 369 (43:37 – 43:59):

T: they can?

S: released (error: grammatical)

T: they can release (CF: recast)

S: and when someone increase *να το ξεπεράσει* [to exceed] (different error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: the factories not someone exceed (CF: explicit correction)

S: exceed this limit he paid (repair: repetition)

T: they (CF: recast)

S: they paid (repair: incorporation)

Such episodes suggest that although no negotiation moves were present, feedback started implicitly with the provision of a recast, and then came to be explicit. One of the features of scaffolded feedback is that it offers negotiation moves that start from the most implicit and gradually become explicit (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Rassaei, 2014). These examples show that reformulations could also represent some kind of scaffolding learning that starts implicitly and becomes explicit. Since reformulations offer L2 models, long reformulation episodes could represent scaffolding of learners' erroneous productions (Clarke et al., 2017). Consequently, students' progress would take the form of repetitions or incorporations of teachers' L2 models.

In addition to combinations of implicit and explicit reformulations within a single episode, there were also cases when episodes consisted solely of implicit CF. For instance, in episode 171, the teacher provided a recast, and then a translation. The student did not seem to pay attention to the teacher's initial recast. Nonetheless, after the learner's unsolicited use of L1, the teacher provided a translation which the student repeated, even though within his/her uptake there was a different error as well. Episode 171 differs from Episodes 7 and 369 above, in that both reformulations are implicit feedback types. However, what appears to be similar is the fact that students once again indicated that they noticed the corrective function of the additional reformulation turns. In particular,

students produced modified output related to their errors, only after the teachers' provision of an additional reformulation. Similar episodes that included a recast followed by a translation which resulted in learner repetition were Episodes 11, 37, 129 and 145.

Episode 171 (58:09 – 58:26):

S: ... and he give me the console (error: grammatical)

T: oh he gave it to you as a present (recast)

S: because I have a big *μεγάφωνο* [speakers] (different error: unsolicited use of L1)

T: speakers (CF: translation)

S: *ντάξει βασικά* [OK basically] speakers *εννοώ τα μικρά* [I mean the small ones]
(repair: repetition)

The most frequent long reformulation episodes though comprised different turns of a recast. As discussed earlier, recast is considered an ambiguous CF technique, because students might perceive its pragmatic function as non-corrective. Although different characteristics of a recast can help its corrective function to appear more evident, it does not contain explicit corrective phrases. Long reformulation episodes which consisted solely of recasts revealed specific patterns in relation to inferring their negative evidence.

To demonstrate, in Table 5.29, in Episode 12 the student noticed the mismatches between his/her production and the teacher's reformulations, thus s/he repeated the teacher's short recasts both times after his/her initial lexical errors. Nonetheless, in the majority of cases students appeared to perceive the corrective purpose of recasts only after the provision of a second recast. For instance, in Episode 270, the student did not indicate that s/he noticed the target linguistic focus of the teacher's initial interrogative recast, since s/he produced another error-related to the initial one. However, the additional recast which was in a declarative mode, and shorter, appeared to help the student notice the mismatches between his/her erroneous productions and the target form, because at this point, the student repeated the teacher's target form. Then, the teacher provided an additional recast in an effort to help the student to produce his/her full initial erroneous utterance, this time containing the correct L2 forms. The teacher's effort paid off, because the student produced an incorporation based on the teacher's reformulation. Perhaps such an outcome would not be possible without effortful time allocation from the teacher, and without the

provision of an additional recast which appeared to help the student to progress, and to produce targeted modified output. The student's initial untargeted modified output, turned out to be a repetition, and eventually an incorporation.

Episode 12 (48:16 – 48:26):
S: ... garbage and she puts it to a recycle bag (error: lexical)
T: to a recycling (CF: recast)
S: recycling (repair: repetition)
T: bag (CF: recast)
S: bag <i>vai</i> [yes] (needs-repair: acknowledgment)
Episode 270 (05:55 – 05:22):
S: advantages there are cinemas and museums (error: grammatical)
T: ok one advantage is that there are? (CF: recast)
S: one advantages (different error: grammatical)
T: one advantage (CF: recast)
S: one advantage (repair: repetition)
T: come on one advantage is that (CF: recast)
S: one advantage is that there are cinemas and museums at the area and we can visit... (repair: incorporation)
Episode 282 (12:42 – 12:55):
S: they are trying to run on the roadway (error: lexical)
T: the treadmill (CF: recast)
S: tread (needs-repair: hesitation)
T: treadmill (CF: recast)
S: treadmill and become fit because they want to eh have more stamina eh (repair: incorporation)
Episode 312 (28:18 – 28:40):
S: I suited to me (error: grammatical)
T: you think you're suited for this job (CF: recast)
S: yes (needs-repair: acknowledgment)
T: so I'm suited for this job (CF: recast)
S: I'm suited for this job because I like to teach others (repair: incorporation)

Table 5. 29: Reformulation episodes consisting of solely recasts targeting a specific linguistic form

Similar to Episode 270, in Episodes 282 and 312, teachers provided additional recasts because students were not able to repair their erroneous productions in response to the initial recasts. In Episode 282, the learner initially hesitated in his/her uptake, whereas in Episode 312, the student simply acknowledged the teacher's recast. In both cases, in the end, students produced incorporations based on the teachers' final recasts. Analogous case was Episode 44.

Recasts lack prompts' encouragement for the production of output, and students need to pay attention to both form and meaning in order to notice the corrective purpose of recasts (Clarke et al., 2017). Nevertheless, recast episodes such as the above suggest that the additional CF turns might have signalled to the students that an error has occurred, because more effort and more time was allocated to a specific linguistic form by the teachers. Students appeared to benefit from repeated exposure to positive evidence, and from the opportunities to infer negative evidence due to their attempts to produce modified output (Swain, 1995; Lyster et al., 2013).

Further to the episodes that consisted of a combination of recasts targeting a specific linguistic form, namely the form which triggered the episodes in the first place, there were also instances when students did not show that they noticed the teachers' initial recast in response to their erroneous utterances. They noticed the second recast, which was however directed at a different error that was unrelated to the initial error. For example, in Episode 324, the teacher's recast was followed by the student's response which contained a different error that was unrelated to the original one. The teacher's recast in response to the student's additional error was noticed by the student, as evident in his/her incorporation move. Such an example suggests that the provision of an additional reformulation in response to a student's utterance might have signalled to the student that its function was corrective. Similar cases were Episodes 233, and 347.

Episode 324 (02:30 – 02:55):

S: for example smoking damage the lungs (error: grammatical)

T: damages the lungs (CF: recast)

S: and it hurts all the heart (different error: lexical)

T: so it causes heart disease (CF: recast)

S: it causes heart disease and it's a bad habit (repair: incorporation)

While the majority of long reformulation episodes ended in repair (16 episodes), there were also few episodes (Episodes 24, 146, 147, 325, 336, and 368) that ended in learner needs-repair. In all of these episodes but one, teachers' feedback was provided in response to errors which were unrelated to one other. Moreover, the final needs-repair turns were acknowledgments which could not indicate with certainty whether students noticed or not the corrective function of recasts, because acknowledgments represent unmodified output. Therefore, it is not certain whether students agreed with teachers' reformulations in relation to the targeted forms, or if they simply acknowledged meaning.

To summarise, the majority of long reformulation episodes ended in learner repair. The above examples indicated that although students did not seem to notice the corrective function of initial recasts, when teachers provided additional reformulations for a different error, either related or unrelated to the initial erroneous linguistic form, students produced modified output, based on the L2 models in the additional reformulations. The provision of several reformulations within a CF episode appeared to have attracted students' attentional resources, which helped them to notice target language, and to produce modified output.

Taking into consideration previous findings indicating that participants spent more time processing feedback that relayed the correct answer (Hancock, Stock, & Kulhavy, 1992), feedback that contains the correct answer, like a reformulation, appears constructive. Furthermore, students' repairs in response to reformulations allowed them to process and to practice target language. Although different from prompts, reformulations appeared to help students achieve something that was initially difficult for them without their teachers' support through the provision of L2 target models; hence suggesting some form of scaffolding learning. To be specific, learners' attempts to reformulate their original erroneous utterances, regardless of whether they are target-like or not, trigger the noticing of mismatches between their interlanguage and the target language. Moreover, reformulations encourage students to perform hypothesis testing, strengthen their existing knowledge representations, and promote automaticity (Swain, 1995; 2005; Sheen, 2008).

Recasts were either followed by explicit correction, translation, or other recasts. The corrective purpose of explicit correction is unambiguous, and translation appears less

ambiguous than a recast, because it is an L2 reformulation of a student's L1 utterance. Thus, the mismatch between a student's L1 utterance and the teacher's L2 reformulation appears more evident compared to mismatches between students' and teachers' L2 utterances. Nevertheless, when episodes consisted of ambiguous recasts, additional recast turns were usually shorter than the initial turns, and this is a characteristic that might have helped students to notice target L2 forms. Generally, regardless of whether teachers' provision of additional reformulations were more implicit or less implicit, they appeared to act as more obvious forms of CF. Therefore, irrespective of what signalled the perception of the corrective function of additional recasts, whether it was teachers' allocation of time, or students' repeated exposure to positive evidence, the essence is that students progressed through interactional feedback. Interaction is so dynamic that students can benefit not only from their teachers, but also from their peers, and this is what I discuss in the following section.

5.6.3 Peer-repair as feedback

In the present study, the CF episodes comprising the dataset were reactive, namely the first turn of each episode was a student's error which triggered the teacher's feedback. Therefore, typically, dyadic exchanges between the student who produced the error and the teacher emerged. Ellis et al., (2001) reported that the complexity of pre-emptive focus-on-form episodes affected the rates of uptake. On a similar note, in this study, the complexity of reactive CF episodes revealed the participation of peers, hence of more uptake turns, when other students joined the dyadic interactions between students who produced errors and their teachers, in order to provide all or part of the correct answer. In particular, half of peer-repairs across the dataset occurred within long episodes. Moreover, in all kinds of episodes when peer-repair occurred, namely in basic three-turn episodes, prompt long episodes, combination long episodes, and reformulation episodes, peer-repair occurred after teachers' provision of prompts.

Peer-repairs were not always the final turns in long episodes. In particular, in Episodes 9 and 158, peer-repairs were the final turns of the episodes. However, in all other cases, like in Episodes 5, 19, 44, 29 and 191, peer-repairs were not the final turns of the episodes. For instance, in Table 5.30, in combination Episodes 5, 19 and 44, other students joined the exchanges between the students who produced errors and their teachers, and appeared

to assist the teachers' efforts to lead the students towards repair. Nonetheless, the students who produced the errors did not indicate that they paid attention to their peers' repairs, since they only produced incorporations based on their teachers' feedback.

Episode 5 (15:56 – 16:27):

- S1: I walked all the way from Cyprus to England (error: lexical)
T: that's not possible (CF: metalinguistic f.)
S1: eh OK sir (needs-repair: acknowledgment)
T: maybe you can use a different word (CF: metalinguistic f.)
S1: *πώς λένε?* [how do they say?]
S2: flew by plane (peer-repair)
T: yes you can use that or travel by plane (CF: explicit correction)
S1: travel by plane all the way from Cyprus to England (repair: incorporation)

Episode 19 (53:13 – 53:37):

- S1: ...because we want the planet *ε προσπαθώ νάβρω τζίντη λέξη* (.) *πώς λέμε το διοξείδιο του άνθρακα;* [I'm trying to find that word (.) how do we call the carbon dioxide?] (error: unsolicited use of L1)
S2: carbon dioxide (peer-repair)
T: that's a different word carbon dioxide (CF: explicit correction)
S1: because we want to (pause) (needs-repair: hesitation)
T: reduce (CF: recast)
S3: *πέ* [say] *CO2 τζαι κανεί* [and it's fine] (peer-repair)
S1: *τι εννοείς κύριε* [what do you mean sir?] reduce (different error: unsolicited use of L1)
T: *να μειώσουμε* [to reduce] (L1)
S1: *ναι* [yes] (needs-repair: acknowledgment)
T: CO2 (CF: recast)
S1: reduce the CO2 (repair: incorporation)

Episode 29 (1:05:44 – 1:05:59):

- S1: with our *χημικά απόβλητα* [chemical waste] (error: unsolicited use of L1)
T: *χημικά; Εμάθαμε το* [chemical? we learned this] (CF: repetition)
S2: chemical (peer-repair)
T: waste (translation)
S1: chemical waste and the cars because the... (repair: incorporation)

Episode 44 (46:05 – 46:35):
S1: when does your head /hʌrt/ (error: phonological)
T: /hɜ:t/ (CF: recast)
S1: /hert/ /hʌrt/ (same error: phonological)
T: /hɜ:t/ (CF: recast)
S2: <u>/hɜ:t/</u>
S1: /hert/ /hʌrt/ (same error: phonological)
T: G μου your head /hɜ:t/ (CF: recast)
S1: head /hɜ:t/when does your head /hɜ:t/? (repair: incorporation)
Episode 191 (40:20 – 40:42):
S1: one thousand nine eight (error: lexical)
T: <i>όπα πως είπαμε ότι χωρίζουμε τις ημερομηνίες;</i> [opa how did we say that we split the dates?] (CF: metalinguistic in L1)
S1: one thousand (same error: lexical)
T: <i>όϊ σε δύο μέρη</i> [no in two parts] (CF: metalinguistic in L1)
S2: nineteen eighty seven (peer-repair)
S1: nineteen eighty seven when he has just turned... (repair: incorporation)

Table 5. 30: CF Episodes that included non-final peer-repair turns

On the other hand, in the long combination Episode 29, Student 2 seemed to assist the teacher's efforts to lead Student 1 towards self-repair. Specifically, after the teacher's repetition of one of the L1 words produced by Student 1, Student 2 provided the translation, and then the teacher provided the second word. As a result, Student 2 incorporated both the peer's and the teacher's feedback into a repair. Irrespective of the fact that the student did not discover the correct form alone, and although acknowledging that a repetition or an incorporation repair are of different quality compared to a self-repair, teacher's feedback and peer-repair appeared beneficial for the learner, since s/he produced modified output based on both their reformulations. It seems that Student 1 perceived the peer-repair as a type of feedback, since s/he repaired the error based on both the teacher's and the peer's L2 models. Such an outcome firstly suggests that during dyadic CF episodes other students pay attention to the focused form, and secondly, that students can benefit from both their teachers' and peers' feedback.

In addition, in Episode 191, after the teacher's metalinguistic feedback, Student 1 provided the correct reformulation, but it seems that Student 1 repaired his/her error by producing an incorporation based only on the peer-repair of Student 2. It is not certain whether Student 2 was able to self-repair after teacher's second metalinguistic turn. Nevertheless, since the correct reformulation was provided by a peer, the uptake produced by Student 1 was coded as incorporation. Overall, from the examples, it can be suggested that peer-repair could also function as a form of CF for the student who produced an error. Such examples suggest that peer-repairs were perceived as a form of feedback for students who produced the errors in the relevant exchanges.

In brief, long episodes that included peer-repairs indicated that during CF episodes both the student who produced the error and other students in the classroom who paid attention to the exchange focused on form. Consequently, it is not only the students who produce the errors that might benefit from teachers' feedback, but also other students in the classroom who might notice teacher's feedback. Moreover, when another student pays attention to the CF episode and joins the interaction to provide the correct linguistic form, this might benefit the student who produced the error, because the peer-repair could be interpreted as feedback by the student, and could help him/her to notice the difference between their interlanguage and the target forms. Such examples show the importance of interactional feedback, and how both the interlocutors of a CF episode as well as classmates who are simply observers can learn from other students' errors, benefit from teachers' feedback, and from each other.

5.6.4 Summary: Qualitative findings

To summarise, an investigation of the naturalistic classroom data of Greek-Cypriot EFL learners and teachers revealed some patterns in relation to the quality and success of CF episodes. Three major themes emerged: *praise*, *long CF episodes*, and *peer-repair as feedback*. In this section, the main findings as well as their theoretical and practical implications are summarised.

The use of *praise* was found mostly alongside recasts. Recasts are considered implicit CF, and certain features tend to make them appear more salient. However, the features of recasts that accompanied praise in the present dataset have not been associated with

saliency. In particular, short, isolated, single form focused, and substitution recasts were previously associated with saliency, and these are characteristics that were not shared by the majority of recasts that accompanied praise. Moreover, no stress emphasis was added to most of these recasts, thus no explicitness was supplemented to them in this way either. In the few cases when students produced uptake after recasts accompanied praise, it was not indicated whether students focused on form, because students' needs-repairs were unmodified. Considering the ambiguity of the corrective purpose of recasts due to their implicitness, it could be suggested that praising students should be avoided alongside the provision of recasts. Nevertheless, if praise is to be used together with recasts, it seems a better practice to use it with recasts which share characteristics that have been associated with making their corrective purpose more evident.

Another suggestion that can be made for using praise together with CF is to use praise alongside explicit correction or prompts, because they differ from recasts in the provision of positive and/or negative evidence. To be specific, explicit correction offers both positive and negative evidence, and it follows that the corrective function of explicit correction is obvious. Although it does not trigger learner uptake, when compared to a recast it is less likely that praise affects the absence of uptake in response to explicit feedback, because its corrective function is obvious. Moreover, praise might help explicit correction appear less threatening towards students' 'positive face'. Furthermore, prompts offer negative evidence and tend to return the floor to the students. They are also considered to be more explicit than recasts, hence their corrective function is easier to be noticed by students compared to recasts. In contrast, recasts provide solely positive evidence, are implicit, and their corrective purpose is sometimes misinterpreted for other pragmatic functions. Therefore, it can be suggested that using praise alongside explicit correction or prompts is less likely to affect an absence of learner uptake compared to recasts. Finally, teachers should of course praise students when they produce target language. By doing so, apart from motivating to the students, this could also help them distinguish the corrective purpose of implicit reformulation techniques.

Turning to long episodes, the three types that were identified were: *prompt*, *combination*, and *reformulation* episodes, which consisted of solely prompts, both prompts and reformulations, and only reformulations respectively. Pedagogical implications of long

episodes are summarised below from both an interactionist perspective and a sociocultural viewpoint, because my goal is to show that all long interactional CF episodes represent some type of scaffolding learning through CF.

The concept of scaffolding refers to a process of assisting students to progress through interaction with someone with a better knowledge, as for example through interaction with a teacher (Harmer, 2007). Long episodes show both teachers' assistance via CF, and students' efforts to progress using the received feedback. Different types of feedback offer different kind of support to students, but they all aim to help students' L2 learning process. Therefore, all long episodes inevitably represent supportive dialogues between students and teachers.

With regards to *long prompt episodes*, certain frequent feedback patterns emerged. In particular, 'a rule after another rule' pattern emerged out of the provision of several turns of metalinguistic feedback and/or metalinguistic feedback in L1 within single episodes. Moreover, the 'indication before help' pattern was developed from the provision of metalinguistic feedback and/or metalinguistic feedback in L1, in the form of a simple hint indicating that an error has been produced, followed by assistance through metalinguistic feedback in the form of metalanguage such as rules, or followed by elicitation, representing general to specific feedback. This later pattern also occurred vice versa, with the provision of assistance before the indications, representing specific to general feedback. Overall, long prompt episodes were successful in learner repair.

From a cognitive-interactionist perspective, long prompt episodes are of great value to L2 students. Firstly, prompts provide negative evidence which can help learners to notice a problem. They draw students' attention to form, and specifically to the "gap" between their interlanguage and the target language (Schmidt, 2001; Mackey, 2007). Moreover, prompts return the floor to the students, giving them opportunities to produce modified output and to practise using the target language, which is crucial for the L2 learning process (Swain, 1985, 1995, 2000, 2005). Moreover, considering the frequency of metalinguistic feedback in L1 in long prompt episodes, and its success in terms of modified output, it seems that the use of CG helped students to produce 'pushed output'

because they might have understood teachers' metalanguage better (Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

From a sociocultural perspective, long prompt episodes are beneficial for learners when a linguistic problem occurs within their personal ZPD, and teachers' assistance helps them to progress. When the necessary linguistic forms to repair the error are within students' individual ZPD, then students can benefit from teachers' prompts. With regards to teachers' use of CG as part of metalinguistic feedback in L1, it might have enabled learners to work with the teacher at a level that would otherwise be beyond their reach (Hall & Cook, 2012). Nonetheless, when a problem is outside a student's ZPD, then continuous prompting could appear face threatening. That is when long combination episodes enter the picture.

The most frequent pattern of *long combination episodes* was the provision of a prompt followed by a reformulation. From a cognitive-interactionist perspective, combination episodes offer the students both positive and negative evidence due to the provision of both prompt and reformulation techniques. Specifically, when teachers reformulate students' erroneous forms, after students are unable to self-repair, then students are given the opportunity to produce target modified output in the form of a repetition or an incorporation. Although they differ from a student generated repair, both repetition and incorporation indicate students' processing of teachers' L2 target models.

From a sociocultural perspective, such a combination appears to be beneficial for students because when a linguistic problem is outside of a student's ZPD, then they cannot benefit from continuous provision of prompts. Moreover, when the time is limited, providing explicit correction could save time. However, saving time can come with a cost, because explicit correction provided after a prompt could damage a student's 'positive face', and in response the student might choose not to produce an uptake. In contrast, when a recast is provided after a prompt, then it cannot only save time if the student infers negative evidence quickly, but it can also save the student's 'positive face', because recast is implicit CF.

As far as *long reformulation episodes* are concerned, feedback provision patterns that emerged within single episodes included recast followed by either explicit correction, or translation, or recast. In all cases, students' uptakes did not indicate that they noticed the teachers' linguistic focus provided in the initial recasts of each episode, but the majority of reformulation episodes ended in learner repair. In particular, in the limited cases when explicit correction followed recast, the learners repaired their errors. Moreover, when translation followed recast, students repaired their subsequent errors. In addition, when recast(s) followed recast, students were once again found to produce modified output. It is important to note that the corrective purpose of recast is often considered to be ambiguous, thus its function can be misinterpreted for other pragmatic functions. Nonetheless, in the present data, students produced modified output in response to additional recasts, even when there were no indications that the corrective purposes of the initial recasts were noticed. As previously found, learner uptake implies noticing and perception of the corrective function of recasts (Mackey et al., 2000; Lyster & Moris, 2002; Révész, 2002; Egi, 2010). Additional recasts appeared to attract students' attentional resources, and might have helped them notice the mismatches between their interlanguage and the target language. Hence, it can be suggested that teachers' provision of additional recasts in a single episode can signal their corrective purpose to the students.

From a cognitive-interactionist perspective students can benefit from repeated exposure to positive evidence, and from opportunities to infer negative evidence (Lyster et al., 2013). Learners' attentional resources play a significant role in inferring negative evidence, because a dual processing of form and meaning is required in order to perceive the corrective purpose and the focus of implicit reformulations. From a sociocultural viewpoint, reformulation episodes can help students to co-construct knowledge in collaboration with their teachers. Specifically, teachers' scaffolding of students' utterances can help them produce target language which goes beyond what they would have produced without the teachers' CF.

A student's repair in response to a reformulation allows him/her to practise and to automatize the retrieval of target language relevant to a conversational context, and provides evidence for on the spot language processing (Clarke et al., 2017). Moreover, newly identified information can be stored into students' longer lasting memory, since it

has been found that when feedback provided the correct answer students showed an increase in retention (Pashler, Cepeda, Wixted, & Rohrer, 2005). Furthermore, participants were previously found to spend more time processing feedback that relayed the correct answer (Hancock et al., 1992). If time spent is a measure of effort (Finn & Metcalfe, 2010), then feedback that contains the correct answer, like a reformulation, could be fairly constructive. The correct answer could be integrated into the students' memory, and memory benefits have been found to accompany more active elaborate processing (Anderson, Kulhavy, & Andre, 1971; Butler, Karpicke, & Roediger, 2007; Finn & Metcalfe, 2010).

A sociocultural approach is mainly concerned with when and how CF in an L2 classroom is appropriate and timely (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Moreover, it is relevant to how assistance from a teacher, or an expert, or a peer can help students exceed their current level of development, and perform tasks that they cannot perform on their own (Nassaji & Swain, 2000). It does not make the rigid distinctions between different CF types. Nonetheless, there are different feedback techniques, and when social context is taken into account then a complex picture emerges, which includes different types of feedback, from a prompt to a reformulation, from explicit to implicit, all offering 'assistance' to the students with a common goal the students' progress. With oral immediate CF, needs analysis happens on the spot. Every situation can be different, depending on the error, the student, and the timing. All kinds of long episodes show some collaborative manner, at least to an extent, because it takes both interlocutors to turn a basic CF episode to a long CF episode.

As far as *peer-repair* is concerned, it occurred after prompts in all different types of long episodes. Most peer-repairs occurred in non-final positions in long CF episodes and their importance appeared twofold. Firstly, peer-repairs indicated that other students pay attention to form and can benefit from interactional feedback, even when feedback is not directed at them. Secondly, students who produce errors can benefit from peer-repair, because it can function as a form of feedback for them. As was indicated in the examples from the present chapter, students used peer-repairs as feedback because they repeated or incorporated them in their uptake moves.

5.7 Summary

The goal of this chapter was to answer Research Question 2, namely to present error-treatment interactional patterns emerging from naturalistic Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms. In particular, I discovered distributions of errors, CF, and learner uptake, as well as relations between them. Moreover, I tried to interpret the quantitative outcomes by looking at the data from a qualitative perspective. In the present section, I summarise both the quantitative and the qualitative outcomes.

With respect to learners' production of error types, grammatical errors were found to be the most frequent, followed by lexical errors, unsolicited uses of L1, and phonological errors. With regards to provision of CF, in the present Greek-Cypriot EFL setting eleven CF types were identified. Specifically, the list of CF types comprised the following: clarification request, elicitation, explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, recast, recast with L1, repetition, translation, and translation in L1. Accordingly, the present EFL context paralleled Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy of CF types which appears to be influential in the literature of interactional feedback, and it also identified some new CF techniques. Recast was by far the most frequent CF type, followed by translation, and metalinguistic feedback in L1. Moreover, reformulations were more frequent than prompts. As for uptake types, repairs were more frequent than needs-repairs. In addition, breaking down the different uptake moves revealed that a modified needs-repair type namely different error was the most frequent, followed by a repair type namely incorporation.

Investigations of the relations between errors and feedback revealed that almost all types of errors were most frequently followed by recast. Specifically, grammatical, lexical, and phonological errors received recasts in the majority of cases. However, unsolicited uses of L1 were mostly followed by translation. The choice of CF after the most frequent error types, namely grammatical and lexical errors, were found to differ. Moreover, prompts and reformulations were likely to follow both grammatical and lexical errors. However, reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow phonological errors, and unsolicited uses of L1.

With regards to relations between CF and learner uptake, elicitation, clarification request, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback achieved the highest scores of uptake production, since they always resulted in uptake. Moreover, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and translation in L1 almost always resulted in uptake. In contrast, the lowest rates of uptake occurred after the teachers' provision of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. In addition, learner uptake attributed to CF types revealed that the highest rates of uptake and no uptake were attributed to recast. The second highest rates of uptake were attributed to metalinguistic feedback in L1, followed by translation. With respect to absence of uptake, following recast, the second highest rates were attributed to explicit correction, followed by translation, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. Furthermore, both prompts and reformulations were found to be successful in immediate uptake. Nonetheless, uptake attributed to CF revealed that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result both in learner uptake, and in absence of learner uptake.

With respect to repair, needs-repair, and no uptake, translation accounted for the highest rates in repair, followed by metalinguistic feedback, and metalinguistic feedback in L1. Clarification request welcomed the highest rates of needs-repair, followed by elicitation. Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation resulted in the highest rates of no uptake. Furthermore, repair, needs-repair and no uptake attributed to CF revealed that recast accounted for the highest rates. The second highest repair rates were attributed to translation, followed by metalinguistic feedback in L1. The second highest rates of needs-repair after recast were attributed to metalinguistic feedback in L1, followed by elicitation. As for no uptake, following recast, the second highest rates were attributed to explicit correction, and then to translation. With respect to prompts and reformulations leading to uptake, they were both found to be successful in immediate uptake. Nevertheless, reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in repair and in no uptake.

Regarding relations between repair, modified output, unmodified output, no uptake and CF, findings indicated that clarification request, elicitation, and repetition welcomed equal rates of repair and modified output. In addition, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, recast, and translation, welcomed higher rates of repair

than any other form of uptake. Moreover, metalinguistic feedback and metalinguistic feedback in L1 welcomed modified output at high rates. In contrast, recast and translation welcomed high rates of unmodified output, and no uptake. Furthermore, explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, and recast with L1, achieved high scores on the absence of uptake. As for uptake attributed to CF types, it was found that recast accounted for the highest rates of repair, modified, unmodified output, and absence of uptake. The second highest rates of repair, modified, unmodified output, and absence of uptake came after translation, metalinguistic feedback in L1, translation, and explicit correction respectively.

Moreover, prompts and reformulations welcomed equal rates of repair. Prompts welcomed higher rates of modified output, whereas reformulations resulted in higher rates of unmodified output and absence of uptake. Nonetheless, uptake attributed to CF indicated that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in repair, unmodified output, and absence of uptake, whereas prompts were more likely than reformulations to result in modified output. Finally, an investigation of CF in relation to repair and student-generated repair revealed that prompts accounted for all student-generated repairs. The highest student-generated repair scores were attributed to metalinguistic feedback in L1.

Furthermore, in this Chapter it was revealed that both teachers used the L1 as part of CF. The 'new' CF types namely metalinguistic feedback in L1, recast with L1, and translation in L1, involved the use of CG, which was the 'shared language' between the students and the teachers (Cook, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012, 2013). The use of the L1 as part of teachers' CF appeared to be beneficial with respect to immediate uptake. In particular, metalinguistic feedback in L1 was the second most successful prompt in terms of self-repair, and also welcomed very high rates of modified output. Moreover, translation in L1 welcomed high rates of modified output. However, recast with L1 did not achieve high rates of repair or modified output. Nonetheless, its similarity to 'sandwiching', a technique where the teacher uses an English word/phrase and provides a quick gloss of it in the students' own language implies learning benefits (Dodson, 1972; Butzkamm & Caldewell, 2009).

An English-only approach is not supported by any research at all (Kerr, 2015). I agree with Stern (1992) that the use of crosslingual and intralingual techniques and practices can complement each other. In Chapter 4 (4.3.1.3 Influence of L1 knowledge), it was revealed that more than half of the Greek-Cypriot students (56%) believed that their L1 knowledge can help the L2 learning process. Teachers could take advantage of students' proficiency in L1 and use it as a positive resource in the provision of CF, along with only-English CF. The inevitable and natural use of the L1 in the classroom could be turned into a pedagogical advantage, because of students' L1 proficiency (Widdowson, 2003).

Furthermore, in the present Chapter, it was indicated that the use of praise could impact the interpretation of the corrective purpose of recast. Based on the findings of the current Chapter, it could be suggested that pairing praise alongside word/short phrase recasts that focus on a single linguistic form, like a pronunciation error, through substitution, might be a better practice because such characteristics add to the saliency of the corrective purpose of recast. Furthermore, it could be suggested that teachers could use praise alongside other CF types, such as explicit correction, or prompts, because due to the nature of these techniques students appear to be more aware of their corrective purpose. In addition, explicit correction could appear less threatening towards students' 'positive face' when used alongside praise.

Additional findings illustrated the use of CF types as part of long CF episodes. Long prompt, long combination, and long reformulation CF episodes appeared to represent different types of supportive dialogues between the students and the teachers. The potential values of these episodes for immediate uptake were discussed from both a cognitive-interactionist perspective and a sociocultural viewpoint. All kinds of long episodes appeared to show the teachers' assistance via CF, and the students' efforts to progress using the received feedback. Different types of feedback offered different kind of support to students, but they all aimed to help students' L2 learning processes.

Firstly, the use of several prompts within a CF episode could offer students negative evidence which could draw their attention to the 'gap' between their interlanguage and the target language. Hence, students could notice the problematic forms, and produce 'pushed output', since prompts generally return the floor to the students (Swain, 1985;

1995; 2000; 2005; Schmidt, 2001; Mackey, 2007). Such collaborative dialogues could be beneficial especially when they occur within a student's ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). As for the use of L1 in metalinguistic feedback, CG could act as an 'efficient shortcut', helping the communication between the teachers and the students, while functioning as a kind of cognitive tool in scaffolding that might aid students' production of modified output/repair (Stren, 1992; Swain, 1995; Cook, 2001).

Secondly, the use of both prompts and reformulations within single CF episodes could help learners respond to CF due to the provision of both positive and negative evidence. In particular, when a linguistic problem appears outside of a student's ZPD, teachers could provide target language which could help learners produce other repair i.e. repetition or incorporation. Such a move could save time, and in the case of the provision of a recast it could also save a student's 'positive face'.

Thirdly, the use of solely reformulations within single long CF episodes could benefit learners from repeated exposure to positive evidence, and from opportunities to infer negative evidence. As illustrated in the present study, the provision of an additional reformulation helped the learners to notice the corrective purpose of reformulations, whether explicit or implicit, and consequently assisted them to notice the teachers' L2 models. Accordingly, it could be suggested that when learners produce unmodified output after a reformulation, teachers could provide an additional reformulation, whether explicit or implicit, because additional reformulations might act as more obvious forms of CF.

For both combination and reformulation episodes, other repairs that can result from the provision of reformulations allow learners to practice and to automatize the retrieval of target language, and provide evidence for on the spot language processing (Clarke et al., 2017). This suggests that students can progress through the provision of interactional feedback irrespective of whether they end up producing self-repairs, or other repairs. Consequently, I believe that teachers should allocate time and incorporate such collaborative dialogues with their students during their lessons, because as the current Chapter suggested they could all offer support to the students.

Lastly, the present Chapter suggested that peer-repair could function as a form of feedback for students who could benefit not only from their teachers but also from each other. This shows once again the dynamics of interaction and how CF could benefit both recipients and observers in an EFL classroom. As was indicated in the current Chapter, students used peer-repair as a form of feedback, because they repaired their errors based on their peers' repairs. However, it seems important to note that none of the students who took part in the observation study shared a negative stance towards peer-correction. Peer-repair could benefit both the students who produce it, who might pay attention to teachers' feedback even if they are not the recipients of it, as well as their classmates, who could use peer-repair as CF. In the present classrooms, students took into consideration peer-repair, and used their peers' L2 models to produce target language. This suggests that teachers could ask students' beliefs about peer-repair/correction, and perhaps they could highlight the benefits of this. By doing so, when teachers provide CF, observers might pay attention to the CF addressed to their classmates. As a result, they could potentially produce peer-repair, which would benefit both themselves and their classmates.

To conclude, CF informs learners about the success of their utterances. It also helps learners to notice the 'gap' between their interlanguage and the target language (Schmidt, 2001; Mackey, 2007). Learners' attention to key features could be achieved either by prompting them to try new language, or by reformulating what students have said, more or less implicitly or explicitly. These different types of feedback welcome different types of learner uptake. While prompts welcome self-repair and reformulations invite other repair, the benefits of one type do not override the benefits of the other.

As the present naturalistic classroom data revealed, all types of feedback could be used in both short and long feedback exchanges between students and teachers, with beneficial outcomes. Learning a second language is a process, and education is about progress. Thus, when it comes to CF, teachers could take advantage of all kinds of techniques, and use them not only in basic three turn feedback sequences, but also in longer exchanges to help students to progress, taking into consideration the situation, and the interlocutor's abilities. It should not be a matter of one *versus* the other, it should be a matter of one *and* the other. My goal was to show that all feedback techniques could offer assistance to learners depending on the situation. Each step of the way reveals new elements that might

influence the success of CF, and as the next chapter explores Research Question 3, the influences of individual differences and attitudes on the success of CF come into light.

6. Findings and discussion: Students' attitudes, other individual differences, and the success of CF

6.1 Introduction

This Chapter explores the success of Corrective Feedback (CF) based on immediate uptake, in relation to students' attitudes towards CF types, and other individual differences: motivation variables and personality traits. In order to conduct such an investigation both the student questionnaire and the naturalistic classroom data were used as information sources. The data from the questionnaires and from the uptake performances were taken from the same students, the ones who participated in the observations. Moreover, specific outcomes from Chapters 4 and 5 were taken into consideration.

In Chapter 4, Greek-Cypriot English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' attitudes towards error production and CF were explored through a questionnaire. Students' attitudes were firstly considered for the sample as whole, presenting a general picture of students' attitudes towards error-related matters. Moreover, learners' individual differences were taken into consideration and were explored in relation to students' attitudes. By doing so, certain relations between students' individual differences and their attitudes towards error production and CF were revealed. Amongst these outcomes were the relations between motivation variables and personality traits, as well as students' attitudes towards different CF types. These findings are taken into consideration in the present Chapter.

In Chapter 5, CF episodes were explored for distributions of error, CF and uptake types, as well as for relations between them, through quantitized naturalistic classroom data. The oral data were examined as a whole, presenting a descriptive picture of error-treatment interaction patterns that emerged in Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms, the effect of the choice of CF in response to errors, and the success of CF on immediate uptake.

However, in Chapter 5, students' individual differences were not taken into consideration as potential influencers for the success of CF types, and this is exactly what took place in order to answer Research Question 3, and the findings are presented in the current Chapter.

In this Chapter, I seek to answer Research Question 3, hence to present and discuss the relationship between Greek-Cypriot EFL learners' individual differences and the production of uptake in response to CF types. I mixed relevant questionnaire data (information about students' attitudinal, motivational, and personality concepts) together with their uptake performances in response to CF from naturalistic classroom data. Accordingly, by merging the two data sources, the success of CF was approached from two different perspectives compared to Chapter 5 when the oral data was approached as a whole.

Firstly, I studied the relation between individual differences that were found through the questionnaire (4.3.2 The effect of students' individual differences on their attitudes towards CF) to be significantly associated with positive attitudes towards CF types, and the success of these techniques. Therefore, I focused on students' individual differences and uptake performances from the naturalistic classroom sample. The purpose was to discover whether students who shared individual difference concepts that were found to have a significant association to positive attitudes towards specific CF types, also performed well in response to the relevant feedback techniques.

Secondly, I investigated the relationship between single students' attitudes and the success of CF types. Hence, I focused on single students' uptake productions, and specifically to the relation between each student's attitudes and the success of CF. The purposes of looking at each individual student separately were to discover the following: whether individual students' attitudes influenced the quality of uptake production in response to different CF types; other factors that could affect the quality of uptake production regardless of students' attitudes, and finally, recurrent patterns amongst different students.

6.2 The success of CF in relation to students' attitudes, extroversion, and intrinsic motivation

In the present section, specific questionnaire findings from Chapter 4 were taken into consideration, and the naturalistic classroom data were explored from a different perspective compared to Chapter 5. In particular, in Chapter 4, questionnaire findings indicated that high extroversion, and high intrinsic motivation were associated with positive attitudes towards specific CF types. Specifically, it was found that highly extroverted students were significantly more likely to express positive attitudes towards clarification request, elicitation, and recast compared to low extroverted students. Moreover, highly intrinsically motivated students were significantly more likely to express positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback compared to students with low intrinsic motivation.

Taking into account such outcomes and based on the performance of students from the naturalistic classroom data, the present section explores whether highly extroverted students who expressed positive attitudes towards elicitation, clarification request, and recast performed well in response to these CF types, and whether highly intrinsically motivated students performed well in response to metalinguistic feedback. In addition, students' attitudes towards these CF types were considered as relevant. Students were asked to rate CF techniques based on descriptions of the techniques, accompanied by examples (see Appendix H: Student questionnaire, section C, question 9).

Students' uptake performances are presented in tables according to the type of feedback, and the relevant individual difference concepts. In all the tables, *n* represents the number of teacher feedback turns that the students received. The tables include all students who received the relevant feedback type, from the three different EFL classroom groups. With regards to uptake types, each table provides information about students' repair and needs-repair moves, and the needs-repair moves were divided between modified and unmodified output. In particular, repair turns included self repair, repetition, incorporation and peer repair. Modified output included the production of different error or partial repair, whereas unmodified output involved the production of acknowledgment, same error, hesitation, or an off target response (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2008; Egi, 2010) (see 3.4.6.2 CF types for more details). Moreover, students' extroversion, introversion, and

intrinsic motivation scores were measured on five-point Likert scales, and the larger the number the higher the representation of the concept (see 3.4.1 Questionnaire: Quantitative analysis for more details).

6.2.1 Clarification request

With regard to clarification request, positive attitudes were expressed by the few highly extroverted students who received this technique. Table 6.1 presents students' uptake types in the form of repair, modified output and unmodified output. It also provides students' ratings for clarification request, and their extroversion scores. As evident in Table 6.1, the quality of students uptake moves were analogous to their attitudes. Student 1 rated the technique as excellent and s/he produced only repair and modified output, whereas Student 2 who rated it as good produced higher rates of unmodified output, compared to repair and modified output. Nonetheless, due to the low number of extroverted students who received this technique, substantial suggestions cannot be made.

Student	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	Clarification request rating	Extroversion score
S1 <i>n</i> = 2	50%	50%	-	Excellent	4
S2 <i>n</i> = 8	13%	38%	50%	Good	4

Table 6. 1: Uptake types of students who received clarification request, their attitudes towards clarification request, and their extroversion scores

6.2.2 Elicitation

Concerning elicitation and extroversion, Table 6.2 presents all of the extroverted students who received elicitation as part of their teachers' feedback. A total of eleven learners received elicitation, and the majority (82%) expressed positive attitudes rating it as good, very good, or excellent. Specifically, only 18% of the students expressed negative attitudes towards elicitation, rating the technique as fair or poor. Most students' highest uptake scores were repairs. In particular, 55% of the students who received elicitation produced repairs more than any other type of uptake. 27% of the students responded mostly with modified output, 9% responded equally with repair or modified output, and 9% produced mostly unmodified output. Moreover, all students who produced mostly

repairs after teachers' elicitations expressed positive attitudes towards elicitation, with evaluations ranging from good to excellent. The one student who rated elicitation as poor (Student 4), was also the only learner who produced only needs-repair moves, and mostly unmodified output, in response to teacher's elicitation. The second student who was less negative towards elicitation (Student 11, rating: fair) produced mostly needs-repair modified output. Such outcomes suggest a relation between highly extroverted students, positive attitudes towards elicitation, and production of repair in response to elicitation.

Student	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	Elicitation rating	Extroversion score
S1 <i>n</i> = 2	50%	50%	-	Very good	4
S2 <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	Very good	3.5
S3 <i>n</i> = 13	15%	54%	30%	Excellent	4
S4 <i>n</i> = 4	-	25%	75%	Poor	4.5
S5 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	Very good	3.5
S6 <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	Excellent	5
S7 <i>n</i> = 2	-	100%	-	Very good	4.5
S8 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	Good	4
S9 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	Very good	5
S10 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	Good	4.5
S11 <i>n</i> = 3	33%	67%	-	Fair	3.5

Table 6. 2: Uptake types of students who received elicitation, their attitudes towards elicitation, and their extroversion scores

6.2.3 Recast

With regards to findings related to recast and extroversion, Table 6.3 shows the uptake responses of all students who received recast, their attitudes towards recast, as well as their extroversion scores. In total, fifteen students received recast and most of them (67%) expressed positive attitudes towards the technique, rating it as good, very good, or excellent, whereas 33% of the students evaluated recast as fair or poor. The majority of extroverted students who received recast produced repairs more frequently than modified or unmodified output. Specifically, 67% of the students who received recasts produced repairs more frequently than modified or unmodified output. Furthermore, the majority of students (70%) who produced higher rates of repair rather than modified or unmodified needs-repair expressed positive attitudes towards recast. The rest of the students (30%)

rated recast as fair, but still produced higher rates of repair compared to modified or unmodified output. However, looking at students' scores more closely revealed that for students who expressed positive attitudes towards recast a clearer difference between their repair rates and their modified or unmodified output existed, contrary to most students who expressed negative attitudes towards recast, whose repair rates did not differ vastly from modified or unmodified output. Consequently, it can be suggested that extroverted students who also expressed positive attitudes towards recast performed better than those who expressed negative attitudes, in terms of repair.

Student	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	Recast rating	Extroversion score
S1 <i>n</i> = 9	66%	11%	-	22%	Good	4
S2 <i>n</i> = 8	50%	-	-	50%	Good	3.5
S3 <i>n</i> = 57	52%	18%	-	30%	Good	4
S4 <i>n</i> = 55	35%	29%	24%	12%	Fair	4.5
S5 <i>n</i> = 3	33%	-	-	67%	V. good	3.5
S6 <i>n</i> = 4	50%	-	50%	-	Excellent	5
S7 <i>n</i> = 6	34%	17%	17%	33%	Fair	4.5
S8 <i>n</i> = 3	66%	-	-	33%	Excellent	4
S9 <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	-	Fair	5
S10 <i>n</i> = 6	67%	17%	17%	-	Good	5
S11 <i>n</i> = 3	33%	33%	-	33%	V. good	4.5
S12 <i>n</i> = 7	71%	-	28%	-	Poor	5
S13 <i>n</i> = 30	37%	13%	25%	13%	Fair	3.5
S14 <i>n</i> = 14	50%	29%	14%	7%	V. good	4
S15 <i>n</i> = 13	46%	-	54%	-	V. good	4

Table 6. 3: Uptake types of students who received recast, their attitudes towards recast, and their extroversion scores

As for introversion, although questionnaire findings indicated that it was not only highly extroverted students, but also highly introverted students who expressed significantly positive attitudes towards recast, due to the fact that the majority of student participants scored high on extroversion, I worked with that because I had a larger sample.

6.2.4 Metalinguistic feedback

Concerning metalinguistic feedback, questionnaire findings revealed a statistically significant relation between high intrinsic motivation and positive attitudes. In particular, it was found that highly intrinsically motivated students were more likely to express positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback compared to students with low intrinsic motivation. Taking such an outcome into account, I studied the naturalistic classroom data to discover potential relations between positive attitudes, high intrinsic motivation, and success of metalinguistic feedback in terms of uptake.

Table 6.4 presents all of the students who received metalinguistic feedback, their uptake moves, and their intrinsic motivation scores. As Table 6.4 shows, students who produced higher rates of repair rather than modified or unmodified output were intrinsically motivated, and expressed positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback, with evaluations ranging from good to excellent. Moreover, dividing intrinsically motivated students from students with low intrinsic motivation showed that 44% of intrinsically motivated students produced higher rates of repair rather than modified output, 33% produced higher rates of modified output, and only 11% produced higher rates of unmodified output.

Student	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	Metalinguistic f. rating	Intrinsic m. score
S1 <i>n</i> = 5	20%	80%	-	-	Excellent	4.5
S2 <i>n</i> = 5	80%	-	20%	-	V. good	4
S3 <i>n</i> = 7	43%	57%	-	-	Excellent	5
S4 <i>n</i> = 3	100%	-	-	-	Excellent	3.75
S5 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	Good	3.25
S6 <i>n</i> = 2	50%	50%	-	-	Excellent	4.5
S7 <i>n</i> = 3	33%	66%	-	-	Excellent	3
S8 <i>n</i> = 3	67%	33%	-	-	Excellent	4
S9 <i>n</i> = 1	-	100%	-	-	V. good	2.5
S10 <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	-	Excellent	1
S11 <i>n</i> = 1	-	100%	-	-	Excellent	1.5

Table 6. 4: Uptake types of students who received metalinguistic feedback, their attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback, and their intrinsic motivation scores

In contrast, only 33% of students with low intrinsic motivation produced higher rates of repair rather than modified output, and 67% produced higher rates of modified output rather than repair. Since all students who received metalinguistic feedback expressed positive attitudes towards the technique, the difference in producing higher rates of repair rather than modified output could be attributed to intrinsic motivation. Highly intrinsically motivated students produced higher rates of repair compared to students with low intrinsic motivation, even though they all expressed positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback.

Along with metalinguistic feedback, as described in section 3.4.6.2 CF types, metalinguistic feedback in L1 emerged in the present naturalistic classroom data. However, because data collection took place simultaneously, and metalinguistic feedback in L1 was an emergent code and not a predetermined code in the way that metalinguistic feedback was, students were not asked about their attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback in L1. Nonetheless, considering that both feedback types represent the same correction techniques but differ in the language, students' attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback and their intrinsic motivation scores were studied in relation to students' uptake moves, in response to metalinguistic feedback in L1.

As Table 6.5 indicates, all students who received metalinguistic feedback in L1 expressed positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback. Moreover, they were all more or less intrinsically motivated, since their scores ranged from three to five. In terms of repair production, 50% of the students produced higher rates of repair than modified or unmodified output. 25% produced higher rates of modified output, 13% produced higher rates of unmodified output, and another 13% produced equal rates of repair and modified output. Consequently, most students performed well in terms of repair after metalinguistic feedback in L1.

Student	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	Metalinguistic f. rating	Intrinsic m. score
S1 <i>n</i> = 7	71%	29%	-	-	Excellent	4.5
S2 <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	-	V. good	4
S3 <i>n</i> = 39	36%	62%	-	3%	Excellent	5
S4 <i>n</i> = 6	50%	17%	33%	-	Excellent	3.75
S5 <i>n</i> = 1	-	100%	-	-	Good	3.25
S6 <i>n</i> = 4	25%	25%	50%	-	Excellent	4.5
S7 <i>n</i> = 3	67%	33%	-	-	Excellent	3
S8 <i>n</i> = 4	50%	50%	-	-	V. good	4

Table 6. 5: Uptake types of students who received metalinguistic feedback in L1, their attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback, and their intrinsic motivation scores

6.2.5 Summary

To summarise, the goal of section 6.2 was to complement questionnaire findings which indicated that specific individual difference concepts had a statistically significant association with positive attitudes towards certain CF types. Therefore, I took into account students' scores of the relevant individual difference concepts, and investigated their relation to students' uptake productions in response to the relevant feedback techniques. Findings revealed that there were relations between individual difference concepts, attitudes towards CF types, and CF success based on uptake.

In particular, questionnaire outcomes indicated that extroversion was associated with positive attitudes towards elicitation, namely that highly extroverted students were more likely to express positive attitudes towards elicitation as a feedback technique. From the current investigation, a relation between repair and extroverted students who shared positive attitudes towards elicitation was revealed. Specifically, extroverted students who expressed positive attitudes towards elicitation produced high rates of repair. In contrast, extroverted students who shared negative attitudes towards elicitation produced only needs-repair moves, and specifically, mostly unmodified or modified output. While I do acknowledge the importance of modified output, it seemed noteworthy that such a connection between extroversion, positive attitudes, and repair production emerged.

In addition, questionnaire findings indicated a significant association between extroverted students and positive attitudes towards recast, namely extroverted students were more likely than students with low extroversion to report positive attitudes toward recast. Considering this, I investigated the relation between extroverted students, their attitudes towards recast, and their uptake production in response to recast. Findings indicated that most extroverted students produced higher rates of repair, than any other form of uptake. Moreover, the majority of them who shared positive attitudes toward recasts produced repair rates with a higher difference compared to other needs-repair moves, whereas students who expressed negative attitudes produced repair rates which did not differ considerably to other needs-repair uptake types. Consequently, it appeared that extroverted students who shared positive attitudes towards recast performed better than extroverted students who expressed a negative stance about recast, in terms of repair.

Furthermore, the questionnaire revealed a significant association between intrinsic motivation and metalinguistic feedback, namely highly intrinsically motivated students were more likely than learners with low intrinsic motivation to express positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback. Taking this outcome into account, I investigated students' uptake production in response to metalinguistic feedback, their intrinsic motivation scores, and their attitudes towards the technique. Findings indicated that highly intrinsically motivated students produced higher rates of repair compared to students with low intrinsic motivation, even though they all rated metalinguistic feedback positively. As for metalinguistic feedback in L1, high intrinsic motivation was related to high repair productions, compared to other needs-repair moves.

In this section, I took into account significant findings from the questionnaire which was distributed to a large sample of Greek-Cypriot EFL students. I tried to show that students' individual characteristics and their attitudes towards CF techniques could impact students' uptake production in response to different CF types, and as a result to shape their learning behaviour within a classroom environment. The next section takes the investigation of the naturalistic classroom data a step further. It deals with uptake performances of individual students, and explores relations between single students' attitudes towards CF types, and other relevant error correction related issues, and CF success.

6.3 The success of CF types in relation to single students' attitudes

Taking the analysis of the naturalistic classroom data another step further, the present section explores uptake performances of single students, and the relation between the success of CF, their attitudes towards CF types, and other relevant error production or correction matters. The goal of this investigation was to approach the naturalistic data from a different perspective, attempting to discover whether students' attitudes influence their behaviour in the classroom, and whether other recurrent patterns could affect the success of CF. Accordingly, while in Chapter 5 the oral data was studied as a whole, and in the previous section the focus was on specific individual difference concepts based on questionnaire findings, in the present section the focus is on every single student. Hence, the attitudes of a total of sixteen students from three different EFL classroom groups were studied in relation to the success of each received feedback type in terms of uptake. The findings and the discussion of this section are accompanied by examples of CF episodes. All episodes can be found in Appendix K.

6.3.1 Student 1

Student 1 expressed positive attitudes towards most CF types, including clarification request, elicitation, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and recast. As indicated in Table 6.6, the student produced repair moves in response to all of these CF types. However, not all repair rates were equally high, since elicitation resulted only in repair (100%), whereas clarification request (50%), explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation (50%), metalinguistic feedback in L1 (71%), and recast (66%) reached high rates of repair, with at least half of the total uptake production in response to these CF types resulting in repairs. Moreover, explicit correction resulted in repair at 40%.

Concerning the student's positive stance towards metalinguistic feedback, it was analogous to the high repair rates that followed the provision of metalinguistic feedback in L1 (71%). However, in response to metalinguistic feedback, the rates of modified output (80%) were higher than the repair moves. Thus, I decided to study the episodes that involved metalinguistic feedback, and metalinguistic feedback in L1, to discover whether specific characteristics of the feedback turns welcomed repair, or modified needs-repair moves.

Student 1					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Clarification request <i>n</i> = 2	50%	-	50%	-	Excellent
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	-	V. good
Explicit <i>n</i> = 5	40%	-	-	60%	Excellent
Explicit + metalinguistic e. <i>n</i> = 4	50%	-	25%	25%	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 5	20%	80%	-	-	Excellent
Metalinguistic in L1 <i>n</i> = 7	71%	29%	-	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 9	66%	11%	22%	-	Good
Repetition <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	Fair
Translation <i>n</i> = 4	75%	-	25%	-	--

Table 6. 6: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 1

Common elements between most of the turns of metalinguistic feedback, and metalinguistic feedback in L1 that resulted in repair and modified output were length and specificity. In particular, those feedback turns that did not simply indicate an error, namely that consisted of metalanguage relevant to the student's error, were in the majority of cases short, direct, and explicit. They signified to the learner either what was wrong with his/her utterance, or identified what kind of action was needed (Episodes 3, 155, 156, 191, 210, and 219). These characteristics appeared to effectively lead to the production of self-repair, or to 'pushed' output when the student was not able to self-correct immediately after the provision of feedback. The importance of modified output emerging from interaction lies in the triggering of processes such as noticing and restructuring of L2 language (Swain, 1985, 1993; Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1995, 2001; Long, 1996).

Regarding recast, considering the student's positive stance towards the technique and the high repair rates, I examined the episodes that involved recast and repair to search for potential recurrent features. I found that all recast turns shared aspects in common: mode,

scope, reduction, length, number of changes, type of change, and almost all shared linguistic focus (Episodes 67, 68, 87, 91, 216, and 219). Specifically, recasts were declarative, isolated, reduced, short, involved a single error change, used substitution, and were grammatically focused. Such characteristics minus the linguistic focus, were previously associated with efficiency of recasts (Nicholas, et al., 2001; Sheen, 2004; 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Sheen & Ellis, 2011). As for linguistic focus, Student 1 expressed a preference for having his/her grammatical errors corrected very frequently compared to other types of errors, for which s/he expressed a less frequent preference. Such a preference could relate to the student's committed effort in response to grammar focused recasts.

With regards to explicit feedback, an association between the learner's attitudes towards error type correction, and the student's high rates of absence of uptake was revealed. Looking over the episodes that consisted of explicit correction indicated that they involved pronunciation and lexical errors (Episodes 8, 55, and 74), for which the student expressed a preference to have them corrected sometimes, as opposed to grammatical errors for which s/he expressed the preference to have them corrected very frequently. Moreover, within two of these explicit feedback turns, the teacher addressed the student by his/her name. Considering that the student disagreed with statements claiming that s/he produces oral errors in English, it could be the case that the student felt self-conscious, and perhaps perceived the teacher's directness as a threat towards his/her 'positive face' (Goffman, 1955; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Thomas, 1995; Redmond, 2015). Hence, the learner might have preferred not to produce an uptake, even though s/he expressed positive attitudes towards explicit correction. As for explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation which resulted in higher repair rates compared to explicit correction, it was found that the majority of those feedback turns that were short were also successful in repair (Episodes 2 and 23), whereas the longer turn resulted in unmodified output (Episode 214).

Finally, the only instance when the student's stance towards a feedback type was not analogous to his/her uptake production was with repetition. The one time that the student received a repetition, a repair followed, even though s/he expressed negative attitudes towards the technique. However, generally, the student's attitudes towards feedback

techniques, and towards other error-related issues, were relatively analogous to the quality of his/her uptake production after different CF types. Nonetheless, certain features of feedback types appeared to affect the presence/absence of uptake, or the production of repair/needs-repair.

6.3.2 Student 2

Student 2 expressed positive attitudes towards elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and repetition, rating them as very good. The positive attitudes that Student 2 showed towards these techniques appeared to parallel their success in terms of uptake. As Table 6.7 illustrates, the learner produced high rates of repair after receiving these feedback techniques, with rates ranging from 67% to 100%, meaning that the student repaired his/her errors more frequently than producing any other form of uptake, in response to these CF techniques. I decided to look over the episodes that included metalinguistic feedback to search for recurrent patterns in relation to repair production.

Student 2					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	-	V. good
Explicit <i>n</i> = 3	67%	33%	-	33%	V. good
L1 <i>n</i> = 3	100%	-	-	-	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 5	80%	-	20%	-	V. good
Metalinguistic f. in L1 <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 8	50%	-	-	50%	Good
Repetition <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	V. good
Translation <i>n</i> = 2	50%	-	%	50%	--

Table 6. 7: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 2

I found that the majority of metalinguistic feedback turns were simple indications of the presence of errors, for example with the provision of 'no' (Episodes 5, 115, and 143), suggesting that the interactional opportunities that the student received to modify his/her non-target utterances were enough for the learner to self-correct (Swain, 1993; Long, 1996). As for the rest of the feedback turns, all included some sort of metalanguage related to the error that directed the learner to the kind of actions needed for repairing the error. Some were relatively short in length (Episodes 4 and 143), but the long metalinguistic feedback in L1 turn also resulted in repair (Episode 97), suggesting that it was not the length that was influential, but the directness of the content of the feedback move.

A slightly different outcome emerged in relation to recast. Specifically, the student rated recast as good, but in response to recast half the times s/he produced a repair, and half the times there was no uptake. Looking at the episodes that contained recast and resulted in no uptake revealed certain patterns. In particular, in one of the episodes (Episode 59), although the recast was short in length, the teacher immediately changed the topic with 'close your books', therefore the student's absence of uptake could be attributed to conversational constraints and the teacher's immediate topic continuation. Moreover, in the episodes that Student 2 did not produce an uptake after recasts, praise accompanied recast (Episode 34). As already discussed in more detail in section 5.6.1 Praise, the use of praise appeared to affect the saliency of the corrective purpose of recast, hence its success in terms of uptake. In brief, the CF types that were evaluated as very good were more successful in terms of repair compared to recast which was rated slightly lower as good. However, the lower repair rates after recasts could be attributed to the use of praise by the teacher, even though the student rated recast as of slightly lower quality compared to the other feedback types, because the student's stance towards the technique was still positive.

6.3.3 Student 3

Attitudes towards CF types that were expressed by Student 3 were also related to the success of feedback. As Table 6.8 shows, in response to almost all of the CF types that Student 3 rated as excellent, namely elicitation, metalinguistic feedback (and metalinguistic feedback in L1), and repetition, s/he produced higher rates of modified than unmodified output. The production of modified output indicated the student's effort in repairing his/her errors, since modified output suggests that the student noticed the

teacher's feedback, and tried to work towards achieving the target form. Moreover, in response to metalinguistic feedback, and metalinguistic feedback in L1, Student 3 produced only repair and modified output. Looking over the episodes that involved metalinguistic feedback, and metalinguistic feedback in L1, indicated once more that the teacher turns were either simple indications that utterances were erroneous, or provisions of metalanguage in two different forms, namely identification of what was wrong, or clues that pointed to needed actions (e.g. Episodes 20, 21, 57, 62-64, 71, 94, and 105). There were both short and long turns, having the specificity of the content as a common element.

Student 3					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Clarification request <i>n</i> = 8	26%	25%	51%	-	Good
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 13	15%	54%	30%	-	Excellent
Explicit <i>n</i> = 11	27%	-	-	45%	Excellent
Explicit + metalinguistic e. <i>n</i> = 5	20%	-	-	80%	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 7	43%	57%	-	-	Excellent
Metalinguistic f. in L1 <i>n</i> = 39	36%	62%	-	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 57	52%	18%	18%	12%	Good
Repetition <i>n</i> = 1	-	100%	-	-	Excellent
Translation <i>n</i> = 17	52%	6%	18%	23%	--

Table 6. 8: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 3

Nonetheless, a different picture emerged in relation to explicit correction and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. Although Student 3 rated explicit correction as excellent, the absence of uptake was higher than any other type of produced uptake by the student. The difference was much larger for explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, therefore I studied the episodes in which the teacher provided Student 3 with

this technique in order to search for recurrent patterns. Similar to the performances of Student 1 and Student 2, the absence of uptake occurred in response to long teacher turns of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. Specifically, in Episodes 38, 96, and 117, the teacher provided long explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation turns, and the student did not produce any form of uptake in all of these instances. In contrast, in Episode 7, the teacher provided the technique within a shorter turn, and Student 3 repaired his/her error. However, this was not the case for Episode 32, even though a shorter turn was provided by the teacher. Nonetheless, considering that in all long turns of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation the student did not produce an uptake, and in view of the similarities that were found in relation to the performances of Students 1 and 2, it could be the case that length might have affected students' uptake and repair moves in response to explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback, regardless of students' positive attitudes towards the technique.

6.3.4 Student 4

Further support on the relation between students' attitudes and the success of CF in terms of uptake came from the performance of Student 4. As shown in Table 6.9, Student 4 expressed negative attitudes towards clarification request, elicitation, and repetition, evaluating them as poor feedback techniques. Such attitudes appeared to parallel the quality of the student's uptake moves after receiving these CF types. Specifically, the learner scored the highest rates of unmodified output in response to these feedback techniques, which ranged from 67% to 100%. Clarification request was the only type that also resulted in low rates of repair. Elicitation also resulted in lower rates of modified output, and repetition did not result in any other form of uptake. Comparing such outcomes with the student's performance in response to metalinguistic feedback which s/he rated as excellent, revealed a different outcome. In particular, Student 4 always produced high rates of repair after metalinguistic feedback (75%), and half the times s/he received metalinguistic feedback in L1 (50%).

Examining the episodes that consisted of metalinguistic feedback, and metalinguistic feedback in L1 revealed certain recurrent patterns in relation to the production of repair or modified output. In particular, repair and modified output moves came after simple indications of erroneous utterances, or short and specific teacher turns. This suggests that

in some cases the opportunities that were given to the student to modify his/her original utterances were enough (Episodes 93, 164, and 202), other times not enough (Episode 116), whereas in most cases, short (e.g. short question) or relatively longer indications (e.g. two short questions) of what was wrong in the student's utterance, and/or clues of what actions were needed to repair the utterance, helped the learner to produce repair or modified output (Episodes 158, 159, 161, and 191). Overall, considering the quality of the uptake moves that Student 4 produced in response to the other feedback types that were rated as poor, metalinguistic feedback techniques seemed more successful for Student 4, and his/her positive attitudes appeared to parallel his/her performance.

Student 4					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Clarification request <i>n</i> = 3	33%	-	67%	-	Poor
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 4	-	25%	75%	-	Poor
Explicit <i>n</i> = 6	34%	33%	17%	17%	V. good
Explicit + metalinguistic e. <i>n</i> = 4	-	25%	-	75%	--
L1 <i>n</i> = 4	50%	50%	-	-	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 3	75%	25%	-	-	Excellent
Metalinguistic f. in L1 <i>n</i> = 6	50%	17%	33%	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 55	29%	35%	20%	16%	Fair
Recast + L1 <i>n</i> = 7	14%	-	42%	43%	--
Repetition <i>n</i> = 1	-	-	100%	-	Poor
Translation <i>n</i> = 17	46%	12%	24%	18%	--

Table 6. 9: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 4

However, this was not the case for explicit correction. Although the student rated explicit correction as a very good CF technique, s/he did not produce considerably higher rates of repair compared to other forms of uptake (34%). Moreover, in response to explicit

correction with metalinguistic explanation, the student's highest rates were attributed to the absence of uptake (75%). Such outcomes did not parallel the student's positive attitudes towards explicit correction, therefore I considered the student's affective responses towards CF in an attempt to discover potential explanations for this. It emerged that Student 4 expressed strong agreement towards the statement of feeling 'uneasy' when the teacher corrects his/her errors. Such a characteristic could explain why explicit correction was not successfully resulting in high rates of repair, despite the student's positive attitudes towards the technique. Specifically, the directness of explicit feedback could potentially make him/her feel 'uneasy', and could appear threatening towards his/her 'positive face' when delivered in the classroom environment (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Redmond, 2015).

Furthermore, considering other students' unsuccessful performances in response to explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation despite their positive attitudes towards explicit correction (Students 1 and 3), I studied the episodes that included the technique for a potentially recurrent pattern. Once again, what emerged was related to the length of the teacher's turn. In particular, in the only instance that the teacher produced a short turn of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, the student produced modified output (Episode 118: first feedback turn). However, in all other instances when the teacher provided longer turns of this feedback technique, Student 4 did not produce any form of uptake (Episodes 116, 118: second feedback turn, and 142). The concept of length in relation to explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation emerged from different episodes that involved different students. Such an outcome suggests that irrespective of students' attitudes towards the technique, length might influence the presence or absence of uptake in response to this CF type.

6.3.5 Student 5

Regarding the attitudes towards different CF types expressed by Student 5, they were also found to mostly parallel the quality of his/her uptake production. As Table 6.10 shows, Student 5 rated explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback as good techniques, and elicitation as well as recast as very good techniques. In response to all of these CF types, including metalinguistic feedback in L1, the student repaired his/her errors. However, the rates of repair were not equally high across all of these CF types. Specifically, while the

student always repaired his/her errors when the teacher provided elicitation or metalinguistic feedback (100%), and half the times after explicit correction (50%), repair rates were lower after recast (33%).

Student 5					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	V. good
Explicit <i>n</i> = 2	50%	-	-	50%	Good
Explicit + metalinguistic e. <i>n</i> = 1	-	-	-	100%	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 1	-	100%	-	-	Good
Metalinguistic f. in L1 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 3	33%	-	-	67%	V. Good
Translation <i>n</i> = 1	-	-	100%	-	--

Table 6. 10: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 5

Taking into account recurrent features of metalinguistic feedback resulting in repair/modified output, I studied the relevant episodes of Student 5. It was found that apart from the simple indication, a long metalinguistic feedback in L1 turn also resulted in modified output. What appeared vital though was not the length, but the fact that the teacher provided specific metalanguage in relation to what the student needed to do to repair the error, and this is what appeared to trigger the student's attempt to modify his/her initial utterance (Episodes 255 and 256). Moreover, I decided to once again look at the episodes that included recasts, in an attempt to find the reasons of the high rates of absence of uptake (Episodes 277 and 283). The outcomes were analogous to the issue that emerged with Student 2, namely the influence of praise, which appeared to affect the corrective function of recasts, irrespective of the positive stance towards it.

In addition to this recurrent matter in relation to recast, another emergent issue that corresponded to previous students' absences of uptake production was associated with explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. The student expressed positive attitudes towards both explicit correction, and metalinguistic explanation, which were the elements of this technique. Moreover, the student did not express agreement with regards to feeling embarrassed, or uneasy, when receiving CF during a lesson. Considering these, I looked at the teacher's turn of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation to discover potential reasons for the absence of uptake production. As it appeared, the teacher's turn in providing this technique was long, and as already found with previous students, shorter teacher turns (e.g. Student 1) which comprised explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation were more successful than longer ones (e.g. Students 3 and 4). In the same way, the Episode that included explicit correction but did not result in uptake was also found to consist of a long teacher turn (Episode 251). Consequently, bearing in mind both the student's positive attitudes, as well as the emerged issues in relation to specific CF types, it appears that the student's attitudes could have influenced his/her uptake/repair production. However, issues such as praise and length might have affected his/her performance with respect to recast and explicit correction accordingly.

6.3.6 Student 6

Student 6 expressed positive attitudes towards all of the CF types that s/he received, rating them as excellent. Such positive attitudes corresponded to the student's uptake moves. As illustrated in Table 6.11, for at least half of the total uptake production in response to almost all of these CF types, the student repaired his/her errors. Specifically, 50% of the student's responses to metalinguistic feedback and recast resulted in repairs, and 100% of the student's productions after elicitation also resulted in repairs. However, in response to recast, and metalinguistic feedback in L1, the student produced unmodified output 50% of the time. Looking at the episodes that included recasts revealed that the characteristics of recasts have been previously associated with decreased saliency of their corrective purpose. In particular, in one case (Episode 281), the teacher's recast was long, non-reduced, incorporated, with multiple changes, and a combination of alterations, which are all characteristics that have not been associated with saliency, hence success in terms of repair/uptake (Doughty, 2001; Philip, 2003; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Sheen, 2006; Loewen, 2004; Asari, 2017). Moreover, in another instance, the student appeared to

comprehend the teacher's interrogative recast as non-corrective (Episode 286), because as Sheen (2006) and Loewen (2004) found, declarative recasts can appear more explicit.

Student 6					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	-	Excellent
Explicit + metalinguistic e. <i>n</i> = 1	-	-	-	100%	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 2	50%	50%	-	-	Excellent
Metalinguistic f. in L1 <i>n</i> = 4	25%	25%	50%	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 4	50%	-	50%	-	Excellent
Recast + L1 <i>n</i> = 2	50%	-	-	50%	--

Table 6. 11: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 6

Concerning metalinguistic feedback in L1, student's unmodified output did not coincide with the success of metalinguistic feedback which resulted only in repair and modified output of the original erroneous linguistic forms. Checking the episodes that consisted of metalinguistic feedback in L1 and unmodified output, revealed that in one case (Episode 254), the teacher's feedback was a long turn that provided an example and a question that directed the student to the location of the error. In another case (Episode 263), the student did not modify the original error, but produced the same erroneous linguistic form, perhaps because the interaction within this long combination episode occurred outside of the student's ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). Finally, with regards to the absence of uptake in response to explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, despite the student's positive attitudes towards explicit correction, length of the feedback turn appeared once again to be relevant (Episode 263). Considering that the student indicated a neutral stance towards feeling embarrassed and uneasy when receiving CF during a lesson, it seems more likely that it was the length of the CF technique that affected the student's absence of uptake, as found with other students as well (Students 1, 3, 4, and 5). Such outcomes suggest that although a student can share positive attitudes towards feedback types, characteristics of feedback can appear influential.

6.3.7 Student 7

Student 7 expressed positive attitudes towards elicitation, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback, rating the first two as very good techniques, and the latter as excellent. In contrast, the student believed that recast was a fair CF technique. As shown in Table 6.12, the student's attitudes coincided with repair or modified production in response to most of these CF types. Nonetheless, although recast was favoured the least by the student, it was also the only feedback type, together with metalinguistic feedback in L1 which was rated as excellent, that led to repair moves, for 34% and 67% respectively. Nevertheless, recast resulted in similar rates in absence of uptake. Elicitation (100%) and metalinguistic feedback (66%) led to high rates of modified output, however explicit correction (100%) only led to an absence of uptake. I decided to review the episodes that involved metalinguistic feedback, and metalinguistic feedback in L1 to search for potential recurrent patterns. Once more, the short and specific turns of metalinguistic feedback in L1 that directed the student to the required actions led to repairs (Episodes 253 and 260), as well as to modified output (Episodes 249, 253, and 304).

Student 7					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 2	-	100%	-	-	V. good
Explicit <i>n</i> = 1	-	-	-	100%	V. good
Explicit + metalinguistic e. <i>n</i> = 1	-	-	-	100%	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 3	33%	66%	-	-	Excellent
Metalinguistic f. in L1 <i>n</i> = 3	67%	33%	-	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 6	34%	17%	17%	33%	Fair
Recast + L1 <i>n</i> = 1	-	-	-	100%	--

Table 6. 12: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 7

With regards to recast, the student's evaluation of the technique as fair appeared to reflect the fact that s/he produced all different types of uptake, as well as no uptake in response to recast. Recast turns that were followed by repair or modified output were all short, declarative, and involved only one change (Long Episode 270). As far as explicit feedback is concerned, regardless of the student's positive attitudes, there was an absence of uptake in response to explicit correction, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation (Episodes 299, and 304). In contrast to the recurrent pattern that emerged which concerned short turns resulting in repair production (Students 1 and 3), and long turns resulting in absence of uptake (Students 3, 4, 5 and 6), Student 7 did not produce uptake after shorter teacher turns. Overall, it appears that the attitudes expressed by Student 7 corresponded to the success of half of the feedback types that s/he received, contrary to other students.

6.3.8 Student 8

Student 8 rated elicitation and recast as good and excellent techniques respectively. Table 6.13 shows that in response to both of these techniques, the student produced high rates of repair, with 100% and 66% accordingly. Concerning recast, the one turn that led to repair shared characteristics that have been associated with saliency (Episode 290), but the other one did not share such features (Episode 267). As for the case when recast led to an absence of uptake, inspection of the episode revealed that the teacher provided recast alongside praise (Episode 279). Consequently, it can be suggested that the attitudes expressed by Student 8 paralleled his/her performance. However, as with other students, features such as the use of praise alongside recasts influenced the success of uptake, regardless of the student's position towards the technique.

Student 8					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	Good
L1 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 3	66%	-	-	33%	Excellent
Recast + L1 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	--
Translation <i>n</i> = 3	100%	-	-	-	--

Table 6. 13: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 8

6.3.9 Student 9

Student 9 expressed positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback rating it as excellent. In contrast, the learner rated recast as a fair technique. Nonetheless, as indicated in Table 6.14, both metalinguistic feedback and recast led to repair moves by the student, with rates as high as 67% and 100% respectively. I looked over the episodes consisting of both CF types, and to start with metalinguistic feedback, the student's production of repair and modified output came after teacher turns that gave the student direct metalinguistic clues (Episodes 247, and 250). Student 9 appeared to pay attention to the teacher's feedback, and took advantage of the provided opportunities to produce 'pushed' output (Swain, 1985, 1999).

Student 9					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
L1 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 3	67%	33%	-	-	Excellent
Recast <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	-	Fair
Translation <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	--

Table 6. 14: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 9

As for recast, despite the student's negative attitudes towards the technique, it appeared that the characteristics of recasts influenced the success of the feedback. To be specific, the fact that the teacher provided short recasts, not accompanied by praise, might have helped the student to produce repairs after them, despite the low evaluation that was expressed towards the technique (Episodes 273 and 288). Such examples appear to illustrate the importance of the characteristics of recasts in relation to its success as an implicit CF type, irrespective of students' attitudes. It was previously indicated that some students who shared positive attitudes towards recasts did not produce uptake, with common emerged patterns relating to the absence of uptake, specific features of recasts, and the use of praise. Subsequently, it appears that despite students' attitudes towards recasts, there are other factors that can also influence its success.

6.3.10 Student 10

Student 10 rated metalinguistic feedback as very good, and recast as good. Accordingly, the learner produced high rates of repair after both techniques. In particular, Table 6.15 indicates that when the learner received metalinguistic feedback in L1, half the times s/he produced a repair, and the other half s/he produced modified output. After recasts, the student produced a repair in the majority of cases (67%).

Student 10					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Metalinguistic f. in L1 <i>n</i> = 4	50%	50%	-	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 6	67%	34%	-	-	Good
Recast + L1 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	--

Table 6. 15: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 10

Studying the episodes that involved metalinguistic feedback in L1, revealed that there were instances of both short and long turns (Episodes 252, and 261), pointing to required actions, whereas recast turns were all short, reduced, of one change, and included substitution (Episodes 245, 252, 262, and 282). Such indications suggest that the student

noticed the teacher’s feedback, whether an implicit reformulation, or a prompt, and used it accordingly to progress within interactions that involved a scaffolding process, since they were part of long combination, or long reformulation episodes. The positive attitudes that were expressed by Student 10 did not appear to contradict his/her uptake performance.

6.3.11 Student 11

In a similar way, positive attitudes expressed by Student 11 towards elicitation coincided with the quality of his/her uptake production. Specifically, as Table 6.16 shows, the student believed that elicitation was a very good CF technique and s/he produced 100% of repair moves in response to it.

Student 11					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 4	100%	-	-	-	V. good
Translation <i>n</i> = 6	100%	-	-	-	--

Table 6. 16: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 11

6.3.12 Student 12

Student 12 expressed positive attitudes towards the feedback types that s/he received. Table 6.17 shows that elicitation was rated as good, whereas metalinguistic feedback and recast were evaluated as very good. However, the learner repaired his/her errors only after elicitation and recast without equivalent high rates, since s/he produced repair rates at 100% after elicitation, but only at 33% after recast. Moreover, s/he only produced modified output after a short and specific turn of metalinguistic feedback which indicated the required tense. However, since it was a partial repair, it demonstrated that the student took into consideration the teacher’s feedback (Episode 297).

Student 12					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	Good
Explicit + metalinguistic e. <i>n</i> = 1	-	-	-	100%	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 1	-	100%	-	-	V. good
Recast <i>n</i> = 3	33%	-	33%	33%	V. good

Table 6. 17: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 12

Concerning unmodified output produced after recast, it was found that the teacher's turn was a long, non-reduced clause with multiple substitutions, and the student's off target response did not show that s/he noticed the corrective focus of the teacher's reformulation. As previously indicated with other students from the present study, as well as in previous studies (e.g. Sheen, 2006), long recasts appear less successful compared to shorter recasts. The student's absence of uptake in response to a short recast contradicted the emerging picture, without however overriding it, due to continuous evidence that shows the opposite. As for the absence of uptake after explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, it was once again found that the teacher's turn was long. Hence, the outcome corresponded to previous students' cases which showed that when this technique was of shorter length it was more successful than when it was long.

6.3.13 Student 13

Student 13 expressed positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback, rating it as a very good CF type. However, s/he evaluated explicit correction as poor, and recast as fair. As Table 6.18 shows, while the positive stance towards metalinguistic feedback was found to coincide with the student's repair move after a relatively long metalinguistic feedback in L1 turn, the same did not happen with the rest of the CF types. To be specific, although Student 13 evaluated recast as fair, s/he responded with high rates of repair (88%). I looked over the episodes that consisted of recast and repair attempting to discover an explanation for this. It emerged that all recasts that resulted in the student's repair shared specific characteristics, namely they were all short in length, and provided one type of change to one linguistic form (Episodes 333, 337, 346, 372, and 373). In

contrast, the episode that involved recast with unmodified output was once more found to share characteristics with previous cases when there was either an absence of uptake or unmodified output (e.g. long turn with multiple changes). Therefore, in this case, it appeared that regardless of student's attitudes towards recast, its features were more influential.

Student 13					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Explicit f. <i>n</i> = 1	-	-	100%	-	Poor
Metalinguistic f. in L1 <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	V. good
Recast <i>n</i> = 7	88%	-	28%	-	Fair
Translation <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	--

Table 6. 18: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 13

As for explicit feedback, negative attitudes expressed by Student 13 coincided with his/her response of unmodified output. I studied the relevant episode (Episode 374) to discover whether the teacher's turn shared characteristics that were found to coincide with absence of uptake. Once again, the characteristic that emerged was length. As previously found with explicit feedback (e.g. Students 5 and 7) and particularly mostly with explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation (e.g. Students 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 12), long explicit teacher turns were not successful in the production of uptake, or in the production of modified output, and this is what appeared to affect the quality of uptake production here as well. Consequently, considering that previous instances of feedback turns that shared this feature, namely of a long explicit feedback utterance, resulted in either an absence of uptake, or in unmodified output, it can be suggested that length could appear influential regardless of students' attitudes towards explicit feedback.

6.3.14 Student 14

A positive stance towards metalinguistic feedback was also expressed by Student 14. As Table 6.19 indicates, s/he rated this technique as excellent. In contrast, elicitation and recast were evaluated as fair. Accordingly, student's uptake production was analogous to his/her attitudes. Particularly, in response to the teacher's short metalinguistic feedback turn which identified the action that was needed, the student produced a repair. On the contrary, the learner produced lower rates of repair in response to elicitation (33%), and recast (37%). Due to the recurrent features of recast in relation to uptake production, I reviewed the recast episodes. Common features of recasts that resulted in repair/modified output were the number and the type of changes. When the teacher changed only one linguistic form using substitution or addition, in most cases the learner repaired his/her errors, or produced modified output (e.g. Episodes 307, 308, 347, and 356). In contrast, when recasts involved more than one linguistic change, using multiple types of alterations, in the majority of cases the learner produced unmodified output, or did not produce uptake (e.g. Episodes 309, 310, 312, and 323).

Student 14					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 3	33%	67%	-	-	Fair
L1 <i>n</i> = 1	-	100	-	-	--
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	Excellent
Recast <i>n</i> = 30	37%	13%	38%	13%	Fair
Translation <i>n</i> = 2	100%	-	-	-	--

Table 6. 19: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 14

6.3.15 Student 15

Table 6.20 indicates that Student 15 shared positive attitudes towards elicitation and recast, evaluating them as good and very good respectively. The student repaired his/her errors after recasts (50%), and produced solely modified output after elicitation. With regards to recast, the learner's positive attitudes did not contradict his/her performance, because half of the total uptake distribution after recasts were repairs. Nonetheless, I

checked the episodes that involved recast to discover whether certain features that were found to be related to the presence or absence of uptake were also relevant here. Once more, the kind of recasts that resulted in repair were short in length, changed one linguistic form, and used one type of change (Episodes 329, 330, 331, 332, and 359). On the contrary, recasts that resulted in modified output of a different error not related to the original linguistic form, unmodified output, or no uptake, were longer in length, and altered multiple linguistic forms, through a combination of changes.

Student 15					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Elicitation <i>n</i> = 1	-	100%	-	-	Good
Explicit <i>n</i> = 3	33%	-	66%	-	Poor
Explicit + metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	--
Recast <i>n</i> = 14	50%	29%	14%	7%	V. good
Repetition <i>n</i> = 1	-	100%	-	-	Fair
Translation <i>n</i> = 3	100%	-	-	-	--

Table 6. 20: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 15

Moreover, the learner expressed a negative stance towards explicit correction, because it was evaluated as poor. This was analogous to his/her uptake production of unmodified output in most cases after the provision of explicit correction. However, the one time that the student received explicit feedback with metalinguistic explanation, s/he produced an incorporation. Reviewing the relevant episode revealed that the feedback turn differed from other turns of the same technique that were found in other students' episodes. This particular turn was of an interrogative mode, hence the student picked up part of the teacher's target language and used it to form a new utterance (Episode 354).

6.3.16 Student 16

Student 16 shared positive attitudes towards both metalinguistic feedback and recast. S/he evaluated them as excellent and as very good techniques respectively. However, it appeared that the student's positive attitudes did not necessarily lead him/her to produce high rates of repair in response to both of these feedback types. In particular, as Table 6.21 shows, the student produced only modified output after metalinguistic feedback, but almost equal rates of repair and unmodified output after recasts. Looking over the episode that consisted of metalinguistic feedback revealed that it was a simple indication that an error occurred, the student noticed the teacher's prompt, and appeared to try to show to the teacher what he intended to say, by producing a different error (Episode 344).

Student 16					
	Repair	Modified output	Unmodified output	No uptake	CF rating
Metalinguistic f. <i>n</i> = 1	-	100%	-	-	Excellent
Recast <i>n</i> = 13	46%	-	54%	-	V. good
Translation <i>n</i> = 1	100%	-	-	-	--

Table 6. 21: Uptake and CF type rating by Student 16

I also examined the episodes that consisted of recasts to discover whether previous patterns that emerged in relation to other students were also evident here. Once again, the length and the number of changes of the feedback turns were related to the success of this feedback type. To be specific, all the repair moves came after short recasts, namely one word or short phrase reformulations, all changed only one linguistic form, and all but one involved one type of change (e.g. substitution) (Episodes: 345, 348, 349, 362, and 363).

On the contrary, the majority of unmodified moves came after longer recasts, namely clause reformulations, which changed more than one linguistic form, and involved multiple types of changes (e.g. both substitution and addition) (Episodes: 317, 321, 322, 334, and 340). Such outcomes were analogous to previous students' performances, and also are also in line with previous studies which showed that shorter recasts appear more 'explicit' and more successful (e.g. Sheen, 2006). The positive attitudes that Student 16

expressed did not contradict the quality of his/her uptake production. However, this does not disregard the fact that certain feedback features appeared once more to be centrally related to the quality of uptake produced by the learner.

6.3.17 Summary

To summarise, approaching the naturalistic classroom data with a focus on the performance of every single student revealed relations between attitudes, characteristics of CF types, and CF success. With regards to attitudes, in the majority of cases, students' positive or negative attitudes towards CF types appeared analogous to the quality of their uptake performances. Specifically, in most instances, when students expressed positive attitudes towards specific CF types, they produced high rates of repair moves in response to all of those feedback techniques (Students 1, 2, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, and 14), or in response to most of those CF types (Students 7, 12, 13, 15, and 16). Moreover, some students produced high rates of modified output after feedback types which they evaluated positively (Students 3, 12, 15, and 16).

In contrast, students who expressed negative attitudes towards CF techniques produced high rates of unmodified output in response to the relevant CF types (Students 4, 13, and 15). Such outcomes appear consistent to previous studies that studied the relationship between learners' attitudes and the effectiveness of CF. Although the success of CF was not previously studied in terms of uptake production, both in the current study and in other studies, a relation between positive attitudes and beneficial CF was found. Specifically, Havranek & Censik (2001) found a relation between beneficial CF and positive attitudes towards error correction, by means of a subsequent test. Similarly, Sheen (2006) found that students' preferences for explicit error correction techniques and for grammatical accuracy were in line with the fact that learners benefited more from metalinguistic feedback rather than recasts.

Nonetheless, they were also instances when students expressed positive attitudes towards feedback types, but they did not perform well, or the opposite, namely they expressed negative attitudes towards techniques, but they performed well after them. Hence, I investigated whether this occurred with certain feedback types, and I found that this

occurred with the following CF types: explicit feedback, metalinguistic feedback, and recast. Therefore, I studied in detail their characteristics and in the next paragraph, the recurrent patterns in relation to uptake performance are summarised.

Regarding *explicit feedback*, there was a generally positive stance from students who received it. However, it emerged that certain features of explicit correction turns, as well as students' affective responses to CF might have influenced the success of the technique. The recurrent patterns concerned both explicit correction, and/or explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. To be specific, the majority of students who expressed positive attitudes towards explicit feedback were found to produce repair moves after short feedback turns of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. On the contrary, they were found not to produce any form of uptake after longer turns. Taking into consideration that most learners did not express agreement with statements of feeling embarrassed or uneasy when receiving CF in the classroom, it could be suggested that it was the length of the feedback turns that affected their uptake production/absence.

Nonetheless, it cannot be ignored that there were instances of students who did not produce uptake after receiving explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, and for them, the reason could be attributed to other factors as well. Specifically, there was a case when a student agreed with statements of feeling uneasy when receiving CF during a lesson, and did not produce an uptake after explicit feedback. Moreover, there was another case when a teacher addressed a student directly by his/her name while giving explicit feedback. This student expressed beliefs that s/he does not make oral errors. Such examples, for dissimilar reasons, suggest that there is a possibility that learners could perceive the directness of explicit feedback as a threat towards their 'positive face' (Goffman, 1955; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Thomas, 1995; Redmond, 2015), and this might have affected their uptake performance.

Finally, it was also found that students who expressed negative attitudes towards CF produced high rates of unmodified output. Nonetheless, once more, length was a common feature, since explicit feedback turns were long. Consequently, it appears that irrespective of students' attitudes towards explicit correction, the length of feedback turns appeared more influential, without however disregarding the possibility of the effect of additional

issues relating to students' affective responses to explicit correction, within classroom environments.

With regard to *metalinguistic feedback*, there was a generally positive stance from students towards this technique. Moreover, not taking into consideration collaborative interaction in the way that I did when discussing long CF episodes (5.6.2 Long CF episodes), thus focusing on characteristics of single metalinguistic feedback turns, revealed specific features that appeared to help the technique to successfully result in learner uptake. Specifically, it emerged that teachers' provision of specific, direct, and explicit metalinguistic feedback and metalinguistic feedback in L1 influenced the production of uptake, repair, and/or modified output. The common elements that were found across CF episodes were the following: a) simple indication of the erroneous form: e.g. 'no', b) commenting on, or identifying the erroneous form: e.g. 'why use future here?', and c) giving clues about what actions are needed for repairing the erroneous form: e.g. 'we need a verb here'. Taking into account Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) implicit to explicit regulatory scale, such characteristics appeared direct and explicit.

As for length, there were both short and long metalinguistic feedback turns (mostly metalinguistic feedback in L1) resulting in repair, or modified output. What appeared important was the provision of specific feedback, which alerted them about the error, and not necessarily if it was a short or a long turn. As Havranek (2002) suggested, the success of CF has been suggested to be facilitated when learners are attentive to an error. Such outcomes appear consistent with theoretical views that support the importance of interaction, noticing, and pushed output in language learning. Specifically, as indicated from the findings, opportunities to notice and to practice linguistic forms appeared to have a significant role on the production of modified or 'pushed' output, which is essentially an interactional process that can result from feedback (Swain, 1985, 1995, 2000, 2005; Long, 1996), and can draw learners' attention to the "gap" between their interlanguage and the target L2 form (Schmidt, 1990, 2001). Nevertheless, students' positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback cannot be overlooked, because the same way that a teacher carries a set of understanding and beliefs into the classroom, learners' attitudes and preferences play their role in the language learning process.

Concerning *recast*, it was one of the feedback types for which students shared both positive and negative evaluations, with the majority of students who received it as part of their teachers' CF expressing positive attitudes. However, while there were students who shared positive attitudes towards recast and performed well after receiving it, there were also cases when students did not perform well despite sharing positive attitudes. Furthermore, there were students who shared negative attitudes and did not perform well after receiving it, but there were also cases when learners shared negative attitudes and performed well. Such diverse uptake performances in relation to positive or negative attitudes led towards a detailed review of recast episodes. As a result, recurrent patterns emerged in relation to the production of repair, modified output, unmodified output, and absence of uptake, and these are summarised in the next paragraphs.

The majority of students who shared positive attitudes towards recast produced repair and modified output after recasts. Nevertheless, learners who expressed negative attitudes toward recast also produced repairs. Studying the CF episodes indicated that recasts that resulted in repair/modified output shared certain features. It emerged that the majority of recasts which ended in repair shared the following characteristics: mode, scope, reduction, length, number of changes, and types of changes. Specifically, recasts were declarative, isolated, reduced, and short, involved a single error change, and mainly used substitution. Such characteristics, were previously associated with efficiency of recasts (Nicholas, et al., 2001; Sheen, 2004; 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Hence, this suggests that irrespective of students' attitudes, certain characteristics of recasts influenced the production of repair/modified output.

In a similar way, both students who expressed positive attitudes and those who shared negative attitudes towards recast produced unmodified output, or no uptake after recasts. Recurrent patterns across students leading to unmodified output or no uptake were once again recast characteristics, namely long, non-reduced, incorporated, of multiple changes, and with a combination of types of alterations. Moreover, the use of praise alongside recasts (discussed in more detail in section 5.6.1 Praise), affected both students with positive and negative attitudes, and led to absences of uptake. Such characteristics were not previously associated with successful recasts, and suggest once more that despite students' attitudes, certain features could affect the success of recast. Finally, absence of

uptake following recasts could also be attributed to conversational constraints, because in some cases (e.g. Student 2), immediate teacher topic continuation after recasts prevented learners to respond to the teachers' reformulations. However, in the same way that other researchers have accounted such instances (Oliver, 1995, 2002; Nabei & Swain, 2002), I believe that it was important to demonstrate how natural interactions can sometimes diminish opportunities for uptake production.

6.4 Summary

The purpose of the present Chapter was to answer Research Question 3 by exploring the naturalistic classroom data from a different perspective compared to Chapter 5, namely taking into consideration students' individual differences along with their uptake performances in response to different CF types. Hence, I approached the data by focusing on two different aspects. Firstly, I concentrated on questionnaire findings from Chapter 4. Specifically, I focused on students' individual differences that were associated to positive attitudes towards CF types, and I examined the relation of these individual differences to the success of CF. Secondly, I focused on the relationship between single students' attitudes and the success of CF types.

I acknowledge that the findings of the present Chapter did not involve statistical significant tests, in the way that the questionnaire and the oral data were analysed in Research Questions 1 and 2. The reason for this was the size of the sample, or more specifically the way that the sample was approached. To clarify, although the naturalistic classroom data was a large sample as whole, due to the divisions that took place here (based on individual differences, and based on each student), the samples were divided in different chunks, thus assumptions for the conduction of statistical significant tests were not fulfilled. I recognise that my findings did not involve tests of significance. Nevertheless, I studied the above described relations because previous studies dealt with attitudes towards CF, but no attention has been given to the relationship between attitudes towards CF, other individual differences, and their relation to the success of CF. My goal was to indicate that there might be a connection between individual differences, attitudes towards CF types, and CF success. At this point, I will summarise the findings of the present Chapter.

With regards to *relations between personality traits, motivation variables, and CF success*, the present Chapter indicated that extroverted students who shared positive attitudes towards elicitation, were found to produce high rates of repair, whereas extroverted students who shared negative attitudes towards elicitation produced only needs-repair moves, and specifically unmodified output compared to modified output. Moreover, most extroverted students were found to produce higher rates of repair, than any other form of uptake. The majority of those students also shared positive attitudes toward recasts, and produced repair rates with a higher difference compared to other needs-repair moves. In contrast, students who expressed negative attitudes towards recasts, produced repair rates which did not differ considerably to other needs-repair uptake types. Consequently, it appeared that extroverted students who shared positive attitudes towards elicitation and recast performed better than extroverted students who expressed a negative stance towards these techniques, in terms of repair.

Furthermore, intrinsically motivated students were found to produce higher rates of repair compared to students with low intrinsic motivation, even though they all rated metalinguistic feedback positively. Moreover, highly intrinsically motivated students were found to produce high repair rates compared to other needs-repair moves, in response to metalinguistic feedback in L1. Such outcomes indicate the possibilities for individual difference concepts and attitudes to shape students' uptake performances in response to CF. Accordingly, one suggestion that could be made is for teachers to give questionnaires to their students in order to gain information about their personality traits, and their attitudes towards different CF types, in order to provide relevant CF techniques.

With regards to *attitudes and CF success*, the current Chapter revealed that in the majority of cases students' attitudes appeared analogous to the quality of their uptake performances. In particular, students' positive or negative attitudes towards CF types, as well as their attitudes towards other error-correction related issues were found to be related to their uptake performances in response to relevant CF types. In short, most students who expressed positive attitudes towards certain CF types produced high rates of repairs as responses to all, or to most of those feedback types, while others produced high rates of modified output in response to relevant CF techniques. In contrast, students who shared negative attitudes towards CF techniques produced high rates of unmodified

output as responses. Such outcomes indicate the possibility for a relationship between learners' attitudes and success of CF. Nevertheless, due to the fact that there were also instances when students' attitudes towards feedback types did not coincide with their uptake performances, an investigation of the relevant episodes took place. As a result, recurrent patterns in relation to the following CF types: explicit feedback, metalinguistic feedback, and recast, emerged.

At this point it seems important to mention that questionnaire findings indicated that the majority of Greek-Cypriot EFL students expressed a familiarity with explicit feedback, and metalinguistic feedback (4.2.2.1 Students' views concerning teachers' provision of CF types). In addition, students' highest rates of positive attitudes were appointed to explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback (4.2.2.4 CF types). Moreover, recast was found to be the most frequent CF type distributed in the naturalistic classroom data (5.2.2 Distribution of CF). Considering these, findings of the present Chapter relating to the success of these CF techniques in relation to students' attitudes could appear helpful for EFL teachers in Cyprus.

With regards to explicit correction, despite students' positive or negative views towards the technique, certain features of teachers' turns appeared to affect students' uptake productions. Additionally, in some cases, students' affective responses to CF appeared relevant. Emerged recurrent patterns concerned both explicit correction, and/or explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. Specifically, the length of explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation feedback turns appeared to affect the absence of uptake production of students who expressed positive evaluations for explicit feedback, since they produced repair moves after short turns, but no uptake after long turns. Moreover, students who expressed negative attitudes towards explicit correction produced high rates of unmodified output as responses, but once again length was relevant, since the explicit feedback turns were long. Based on these outcomes, it could be suggested that teachers could provide short explicit correction feedback turns. Moreover, they could also take into account students' affective responses to CF, which could be gained from student questionnaires. Accordingly, they could be more careful with the provision of explicit feedback to students who might express that they feel uneasy when receiving CF during a lesson, because directness could appear threatening towards students' 'positive face'.

Perhaps teachers could use other feedback techniques such as prompts or recasts, in response to these students' erroneous utterances to avoid making them feel uneasy.

Concerning metalinguistic feedback, students' positive evaluations were generally found to correspond to their uptake productions in repair/modified output. Reviewing the relevant episodes revealed that certain characteristics of metalinguistic feedback turns might have influenced such positive outcomes. Recurrent patterns that emerged indicated teachers' uses of direct and explicit, both short and long metalinguistic feedback turns. Considering students' positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback, which could affect their committed effort in responding to teachers' feedback, it could be suggested that teachers could provide direct metalinguistic feedback. Specifically, when simple indications are not enough for the students to self-correct, then identifying the erroneous forms, or giving clues about required actions could help students to notice the gap in their interlanguage, and to produce repair/modified output, especially when they share positive attitudes towards the technique.

Finally, with regards to recast, students expressed both positive and negative attitudes. Recast was both successful and unsuccessful for students who shared positive attitudes, and for those who shared negative attitudes. Inspection of the relevant episodes indicated recurrent patterns relating to recast features and the production of uptake. In particular, recasts which were declarative, isolated, reduced, and short, involved a single error change, and mainly used substitution, successfully resulted in repair/modified output despite students' evaluations for recast. Such outcomes are in line with other studies who found these characteristics to be associated with efficiency of recasts (e.g. Sheen, 2006; Sheen & Ellis, 2011).

Furthermore, recurrent patterns relating to unmodified output, or absence of uptake after recasts were once again recast characteristics, namely long, non-reduced, incorporated, of multiple changes, with a combination of types of alterations. Adding to these, the use of praise alongside recast was also one of the main reasons for the absence of uptake after recasts. Such outcomes suggest that despite students' attitudes, certain features could affect the success of recast in terms of uptake, therefore teachers could incorporate them in their feedback routines. Moreover, since recasts can appear in various forms with

different characteristics, perhaps asking students' attitudes towards different versions of recasts would provide more beneficial results.

To conclude, it has been previously suggested, but appears not to have been studied in naturalistic classroom settings, that learners' individual differences might influence their engagement in interaction, and as a consequence affect the provision and the impact of CF on their L2 learning progress (Mackey, 2003; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Katayama, 2007; Riazi & Riasti, 2007; Rezaei, Mozaffari, & Hatf, 2011; Azar & Molavi, 2013; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). My goal for the current Chapter was to show that there are indeed possibilities for individual difference concepts and attitudes to have an influential role on the success of interactional CF, in terms of presence/absence of uptake, or more specifically in terms of production of repair, modified or unmodified output. Nonetheless, the characteristics of feedback turns can have a central role in the success of CF. Hence, as the cognitive-interactionist perspective (e.g. Piaget, 1974) indicates, combining the role of internal and external factors could help support optimal L2 learning experiences.

7. Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

In this Chapter, firstly, I summarise the answers to the Research Questions of the present study. Moreover, I provide the implications that arise from the findings. In addition, I acknowledge the limitations of the study. Lastly, I give recommendations for future research.

7.2 Summary of answers to Research Questions

In this section, I summarise the answers to the Research Questions that I have addressed in this study. Firstly, I present the findings in relation to Research Question 1, namely Greek-Cypriot EFL students' perceptions towards error production, and their attitudes towards CF provision. Then, I summarise the outcomes of Research Question 2 which include descriptions of error-treatment interaction patterns that emerged from naturalistic classrooms, as well as qualitative insights about the success of CF. Lastly, I outline the findings of Research Question 3 which focused on the success of CF in relation to students' attitudes towards CF, and other individual differences.

7.2.1 Students' attitudes towards error-related issues

In Chapter 4, I answered Research Question 1: What are the Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes towards error production and CF, and what is the relationship between students' attitudes and other individual differences, namely age, gender, motivation, and personality traits?

Research Question 1 examined students' perceptions towards error production and their attitudes towards CF. Moreover, it tested the relationship between individual differences, namely age, gender, motivation, and personality traits, with students' attitudes. Firstly, findings indicated that the learners recognised that they produce both oral and written errors in English. A higher percentage of students perceived that they produce written errors compared to oral errors, and this was explained through the *bidialectal* setting of

Cyprus. Greek-Cypriot EFL students grow up using different varieties of the same language for different situations, associating Standard Modern Greek (SMG) with writing, and Cypriot Greek (CG) with oral production (Tsiplakou et al., 2006; Tsiplakou, 2009; Arvaniti, 2010; Grohmann, 2011; Rowe & Grohmann, 2013). This suggested that they selected SMG as the most influential factor due to their perceptions of producing more written than oral errors. Such outcomes also suggested that the influence of the standard dialect (SMG) perhaps appears more profound in students' minds compared to the non-standard variety (CG) when learning a standard variety of an L2, precisely because they associate standard L1 knowledge with school learning. Nevertheless, it was indicated that further to students' perceptions of potential L1 negative transfer in the L2, they also acknowledged the potential of L1 positive transfer into the L2, since most students recognised that L1 knowledge could benefit the L2 learning process.

With respect to students' perceptions of teachers' provision of CF, it was found that explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback were the most frequently chosen feedback types. This was explained by the fact that these CF types represent the most explicit types across reformulations and prompts respectively. Moreover, students' perceptions of metalinguistic feedback could be explained by the current EFL context. Students in EFL settings tend to focus on both form and meaning, therefore, students' awareness of metalanguage might have helped them to notice teachers' metalinguistic feedback. Additional findings revealed that the majority of students also favoured explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback.

Furthermore, most students expressed generally positive attitudes towards CF. They agreed with statements expressing positive feelings towards CF (useful, positive, and satisfying), and vice versa disagreed with statements expressing negative attitudes towards CF (embarrassing, irritating, negative, and uneasy). They also expressed a negative stance towards no correction. The students' positive attitudes were attributed to their learning environment, and specifically, to the fact that English language learning is valued in Cyprus, with the majority of students attending EFL lessons both at school during the morning, and at private institutes during the afternoon. What is more, Greek-Cypriot EFL students expressed a willingness to receive constant CF in response to

different types of errors (i.e. grammatical, lexical, inappropriate cultural phrasing, and phonological), without favouring a specific type of error.

As part of Research Question 1, findings also indicated the impact of individual differences: age, gender, motivation, and personality traits, on students' attitudes towards error production and CF. Findings showed that older learners were more likely than younger learners to state that they produce oral errors in English, and that it is difficult to notice their errors. These outcomes suggested that younger students might be more sensitive than older learners towards perceiving CF.

With regard to motivation, highly intrinsically motivated students were found more likely than students with low intrinsic motivation to associate positive feelings (encouraging, satisfying, positive, and useful) with CF, therefore they were less likely to associate negative feelings with CF. Highly intrinsically motivated students were also found more likely than students with low intrinsic motivation to express positive attitudes towards receiving CF as a response to their oral productions, for all different types of errors. Regarding their preferences towards CF types, they were found likely to favour metalinguistic feedback. This was attributed to their genuine interest towards language learning, which might explain why they favoured a prompt, which invites self-correction, and provides metalanguage.

On the contrary, highly extrinsically motivated students were found to be associated not only with positive attitudes (satisfying), but also mostly with negative attitudes towards CF (irritating, negative, do not pay attention, no correction). This was attributed to the fact that CF encompasses a methodological act that aims to help a learner to make an effort to improve, and the motives of extrinsically motivated students with respect to improving as language learners might appear weaker than those of intrinsically motivated students.

With respect to personality traits, findings revealed that high anxiety students were more likely than low anxiety students to associate receiving CF with feeling embarrassed, and uneasy. However, they also acknowledged the importance of CF, since they expressed

that teachers must correct all of students' oral errors. In contrast, highly extroverted students were less likely than students with low extroversion to report that they feel embarrassed or uneasy when receiving CF. Hence, they were more likely to agree that receiving CF is positive, and satisfying, and vice versa they were less likely to associate CF with negative feelings, or to consider it irritating. Learners with high extroversion were also found more likely than students with low extroversion to express positive attitudes towards receiving CF as a response to their oral productions, and to agree that teachers must correct all oral errors.

As for preferences towards CF types, highly extroverted learners were found more likely than students with low extroversion to favour elicitation and clarification request. This was explained by the fact that prompts push learners to identify their errors and self-correct in front of their peers, and students with high extroversion appear less likely to feel threatened by CF, or by prompts, due to their willingness to participate in classroom interactions. Moreover, both highly extroverted and highly introverted students were associated with positive attitudes towards recast. The fact that highly extroverted students also favoured prompts, but highly introverted students only expressed positive attitudes toward recast, suggests that the versatility of recast can make it appear less face-threatening towards students' 'positive face'.

7.2.2 Error-treatment interaction patterns

In Chapter 5, I answered Research Question 2: What are the distributions and the relations between error, CF, and uptake types, and why are certain CF types more successful than others in terms of uptake, in Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms?

Research Question 2 revealed distributions of error, CF, and uptake types, as well as relations between them. With regards to learners' production of error types, grammatical errors were found to be the most frequent. Concerning the distribution of CF, recast was by far the most frequent CF type, and reformulations were more frequent than prompts. As for uptake types, repairs were more frequent than needs-repairs. However, breaking down the different uptake moves revealed that a modified needs-repair type namely different error was the most frequent, followed by a repair type namely incorporation.

Concerning the distribution of CF types, in the present study, eleven different feedback types were identified: clarification request, elicitation, explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback in L1, recast, recast with L1, repetition, translation, and translation in L1. The CF type list was longer compared to previous studies, since newly identified feedback types emerged from the naturalistic Greek-Cypriot EFL data, namely metalinguistic feedback in L1, recast with L1, and translation in L1. The common element in all of these newly identified feedback types was the use of L1.

Relations between error types and CF types indicated that all types of errors were most frequently followed by recast, apart from unsolicited use of L1, which was mostly followed by translation. Moreover, both prompts and reformulations were likely to follow both grammatical and lexical errors. However, reformulations were more likely than prompts to follow phonological errors and unsolicited uses of L1.

With regards to relations between CF and learner uptake, it was revealed that elicitation, clarification request, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback achieved the highest scores of uptake production, since they always resulted in uptake. Moreover, metalinguistic feedback in L1, and translation in L1 almost always resulted in uptake. However, learner uptake attributed to CF types revealed that the highest rates of uptake and no uptake were attributed to recast. Furthermore, both prompts and reformulations were found to be successful in immediate uptake. Nonetheless, uptake attributed to CF revealed that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result both in learner uptake, and in absence of learner uptake.

Within the breakdown of data based on repair, needs-repair, and no uptake, it was indicated that translation accounted for the highest rates in repair, clarification request welcomed the highest rates of needs-repair, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation resulted in the highest rates of no uptake. Furthermore, repair, needs-repair and no uptake attributed to CF revealed that recast accounted for the highest rates of all three types. With respect to prompts and reformulations leading to uptake, they were both found to be successful in immediate uptake. Nevertheless, reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in repair and in no uptake.

Regarding the breakdown of repair, modified output, unmodified output, and absence of uptake, it was indicated that different types of prompts were more successful in repair and modified output. In contrast, different types of reformulations achieved higher rates in unmodified output and no uptake. As for uptake attributed to CF types, it was found that recast accounted for the highest rates of repair, modified, unmodified output, and absence of uptake. Moreover, prompts and reformulations welcomed equal rates of repair. Prompts welcomed higher rates of modified output, whereas reformulations resulted in higher rates of unmodified output and absence of uptake. Nonetheless, uptake attributed to CF indicated that reformulations were more likely than prompts to result in repair, unmodified output, and absence of uptake, whereas prompts were more likely than reformulations to result in modified output. Finally, an investigation of CF in relation to repair and student-generated repair revealed that prompts accounted for all student-generated repairs. The highest student-generated repair scores were attributed to metalinguistic feedback in L1.

With respect to qualitative analysis, the use of praise was found mostly alongside recasts, and its use explained the absence of uptake after recasts when they were provided in combination with praise. The features of recasts that accompanied praise in the present dataset have not been associated with saliency. These characteristics could have added to the unsuccessfulness of the specific teacher turns, because they might have affected the students' perceptions of the corrective purpose of those recast turns.

Additionally, findings revealed three types of long CF episodes, namely episodes comprised of more than the basic three-turn sequence of error, feedback, and uptake. The CF episodes which were identified were: prompt, combination, and reformulation episodes, which consisted of solely prompts, both prompts and reformulations, and only reformulations respectively.

With regards to long prompt episodes, certain frequent feedback patterns emerged. In particular, 'a rule after another rule' pattern emerged out of the provision of several turns of metalinguistic feedback and/or metalinguistic feedback in L1 within single episodes. Moreover, the 'indication before help' pattern was developed from the provision of metalinguistic feedback and/or metalinguistic feedback in L1, in the form of a simple hint

indicating that an error has been produced, followed by assistance through metalinguistic feedback in the form of metalanguage such as rules, or followed by elicitation, representing general to specific feedback. This later pattern also occurred vice versa, with the provision of assistance before the indications, representing specific to general feedback. Overall, long prompt episodes were successful in learner repair.

Long combination episodes were found in different patterns, but the most frequent was the provision of a prompt followed by a reformulation. These long CF episodes offered to the students both positive and negative evidence, due to the provision of both prompt and reformulation techniques. Moreover, they gave the students the opportunity to produce other repair, when they were unable to self-repair after a prompt.

As for long reformulation episodes, feedback provision patterns that emerged within single episodes included recast followed by either explicit correction, or translation, or recast. In all cases, students' uptake turns did not indicate that they noticed the teachers' linguistic focus provided in the initial recasts of each episode, but the majority of reformulation episodes ended in learner repair. These episodes indicated that even though students did not indicate that they perceived the corrective purpose of initial recasts, the provision of additional reformulations, whether explicit or implicit, attracted the students' attention, and as a result, they produced modified output, and repair.

Lastly, peer-repair was found to occur after prompts in all different types of long episodes. Most peer-repairs occurred in non-final positions in long CF episodes and their importance appeared twofold. Firstly, they indicated that CF non-recipients pay attention to form and can benefit from interactional feedback even when feedback is not directed at them. Secondly, they showed that students could use peer-repair as a form of CF.

7.2.3 CF success in relation to students' attitudes and other individual differences

In Chapter 6, I answered Research Question 3: What is the relationship between Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes, other individual differences, and the production of uptake after CF, and why is CF successful or unsuccessful?

With respect to personality traits, findings indicated a relation between extroversion, positive attitudes, and good uptake performance in response to elicitation and recast. Extroverted students who shared positive attitudes towards elicitation, were found to produce high rates of repair, whereas extroverted students who shared negative attitudes towards elicitation produced only needs-repair moves, and mostly unmodified output. Moreover, positive attitudes towards recast expressed by students with high extroversion were related to repair rates with a higher difference compared to other needs-repair moves. In contrast, students who expressed negative attitudes towards recast did not produce such high repair rates. As for motivation, the positive relation between intrinsic motivation and positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback was found to parallel high repair rates.

With regards to attitudes and CF success, findings showed that in most cases students' attitudes paralleled the quality of their uptake performances. The majority of students who expressed positive attitudes towards certain CF types produced high rates of repairs in response to all, or to most of those feedback types, while others produced high rates of modified output in response to the relevant CF techniques. On the contrary, students who expressed negative attitudes towards CF techniques produced high rates of unmodified output as responses.

Additionally, recurrent patterns in relation to the following CF types: explicit feedback, metalinguistic feedback, and recast, explained successful or unsuccessful CF despite students' attitudes. Such patterns were related to characteristics of these CF types, and to students' affective responses to CF. Emerged recurrent patterns concerned both explicit correction, and/or explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, with matters related to the length of the feedback turn, despite students' attitudes towards the techniques. What is more, students' positive attitudes towards metalinguistic feedback paralleled their repair/modified output. Moreover, in depth analysis of the relevant CF episodes indicated that direct and explicit, both short and long metalinguistic feedback turns were associated with such positive outcomes.

Finally, recast was both successful and unsuccessful for students who shared positive attitudes, and for those who shared negative attitudes. Recurrent patterns relating to recast

features and the production of uptake included recasts which were declarative, isolated, reduced, short, involved a single error change, and mainly used substitution. Interestingly, recurrent patterns relating to unmodified output, or absence of uptake after recasts were once again recast characteristics, namely long, non-reduced, incorporated, of multiple changes, with a combination of types of alterations.

7.3 Implications

In this section, I set out implications from the present study. Firstly, I refer to Greek-Cypriot EFL students' attitudes towards error-related issues, and how individual differences could shape students' views. Secondly, I discuss the success of CF, and how specific features of CF types could help students react to CF. Lastly, I talk about students' individual differences, and about specific characteristics of CF types, and how they could influence students' reactions to CF.

7.3.1 Attitudes

The present study filled a gap in the CF literature by investigating Greek-Cypriot EFL students' perceptions towards error production, and their attitudes towards CF. Findings indicated EFL students' awareness with respect to oral and written error production. Moreover, it was indicated that learners believed that the influence of Standard Modern Greek (SMG) was the main reason that they produce errors. Within the *bidialectal* setting of Cyprus, students considered SMG to be more influential than Cypriot Greek (CG). This suggests that they considered the 'High' variety which is associated with literacy learning, to have a stronger impact on the L2 learning process compared to the 'Low' variety which is associated with everyday use. The study showed students' awareness of potential negative L1 transfer. In addition, students believed that L1 can help the L2 learning process. Hence, the study also indicated students' awareness with respect to potential positive L1 transfer.

With respect to CF, the study revealed that most Greek-Cypriot EFL students expressed familiarity with explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback, as part of their teachers' CF provision. As for students' attitudes towards CF, the study showed that students were positive towards receiving constant CF. They expressed their willingness to receive CF

when they produce oral errors, irrespective of the type of error. Moreover, students associated CF with positive feelings, and they were against no correction. In addition, students favoured explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback which are considered to be the most explicit types for reformulations and prompts respectively. This implies a connection between directness, familiarity, and positive attitudes, since as mentioned above those were the CF types that most students chose when asked about their teachers' CF provision. Such outcomes suggest that EFL teachers in Cyprus should consider providing CF in response to their students' erroneous utterances. In addition, considering students' preferences towards more explicit CF types, it would seem beneficial for teachers to ask about their students' preferences.

Moreover, the study offered an insight with respect to the influence of individual differences on students' attitudes towards error-related issues. The study indicated that students' age, gender, motivation, and personality traits explained variances in their views. Consequently, it could be beneficial for EFL teachers to get to know their students with respect to their preferences. Perhaps teachers could distribute questionnaires to learn about their students' attitudes, and their affective responses to CF. Learning about the individuality of their students could help teachers to offer individualised treatment when it comes to CF. For example, it could be useful for a teacher to know that there is a student in the classroom who might be more self-conscious and might feel uneasy when receiving CF. Depending on the situation, the teacher could use this information to tailor CF according to the students' needs. Students' perceptions towards CF types cannot guarantee the success of CF. However, as findings from the current study showed, different learners experience oral CF differently, and teachers' practices could shape how students feel within a classroom environment. Therefore, taking into consideration students' attitudes towards CF could help teachers accommodate their teaching methods to provide students with a better language learning experience.

7.3.2 CF success

This study filled a gap in the CF literature by investigating error-treatment interaction patterns in the *bidialectal* setting of Cyprus which qualifies as a new context. The study identified CF types that emerged from Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms. The emerged CF types involved the use of CG, which was the shared L1 between the students and the

teachers. The study showed that despite the absence of discussions for the use of L1 in English language teaching methodology, the L1 is used in homogeneous EFL classrooms in Cyprus. This paralleled reports for the use of L1 in classrooms from across the world (Benson, 2000; Cook, 2008; Levinson, 2011; Kerr, 2014). The investigation of the use of L1 as part of reactive CF episodes indicated that the use of L1 in CF could help students react to the provision of feedback. The outcomes of this study with respect to immediate uptake suggest that in EFL contexts with a shared L1, teachers could take advantage of the students' L1 proficiency and to use it as a positive resource for CF provision.

Moreover, the study revealed features that could help students react to CF that could be implemented by teachers in both monolingual and multilingual classes. With respect to immediate uptake after recast, the study showed that learners' responses could be affected by certain feedback characteristics. Specifically, the findings suggest to avoid the use of praise alongside recasts, or at least alongside recasts that share characteristics which make them more 'implicit'. For example, recasts that are long, clause, incorporated, non-reduced, have multiple changes, and a combination of changes. If praise is to be used together with recasts, it might be a better practice to use it with recasts which share characteristics that make them more 'explicit', as for example, short, isolated, single form focused, and substitution recasts. In addition, praise could be used alongside explicit correction or prompts, because they differ from recasts in the provision of positive and/or negative evidence, therefore praise is less likely to affect students' perceptions of their corrective purpose.

The study also suggested different CF type combinations within long CF episodes that could help students to produce uptake and to eventually repair their errors. In particular, findings indicated the benefits of long CF episodes that consisted of combinations of several prompts, prompts and reformulations, or several reformulations, in attempts to help students react to CF. The study challenged the notion of scaffolding, since it suggested that not only prompts, but all types of long interactional CF episodes could represent some type of scaffolding learning through CF.

The outcomes of this study suggest that using several turns of metalinguistic feedback in multilingual groups, and/or metalinguistic feedback in L1 in monolingual groups, within

a single CF episode might help students to eventually repair their erroneous forms. From a cognitive-interactionist perspective, long prompt episodes might help draw students' attention to form, and specifically to the "gap" between their interlanguage and the target language (Schmidt, 2001; Mackey, 2007). With respect to monolingual groups, the use of the L1 might help students to understand the teachers' metalanguage better. From a sociocultural perspective, long prompt episodes could help learners when a linguistic problem occurs within their personal Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Teachers' assistance via prompts could help them to progress. In monolingual classes, the use of L1 might enable learners to work with the teacher at a level that would otherwise be beyond their reach.

In case a problem is outside a student's ZPD, then continuous prompting could appear threatening towards the student's 'positive face'. Combination episodes could help learners because they are comprised of both prompts and reformulations. From a cognitive-interactionist perspective this combination seems beneficial, since it involves both positive and negative evidence. When teachers reformulate students' erroneous forms, after students are unable to self-repair, then students might be given the opportunity to produce target modified output in the form of a repetition or an incorporation. From a sociocultural perspective, such a combination could help students when prompts are not successful, because a linguistic problem might be outside of a student's ZPD. Students might benefit from the positive evidence in reformulations. Finally, from a cognitive-interactionist perspective, long reformulation episodes might help learners because they offer repeated exposure to positive evidence, and opportunities to infer negative evidence. From a sociocultural viewpoint, teachers' scaffolding of students' utterances might help them produce target language which goes beyond what they would have produced without the teachers' CF.

This study suggests that all types of long CF episodes could represent supportive dialogues between students and teachers. All CF techniques could offer 'assistance' to the students in order to progress. In oral CF needs analysis occurs in real time. Every situation could be different, depending on the error, the student, and the timing. It takes both interlocutors to turn a basic three-turn CF episode to a long CF episode. Therefore,

when teachers initiate longer CF episodes they might assist their students to increase their efforts in repairing their errors.

Finally, based on the outcomes of this study, it could be suggested that teachers could inform their students about peer-repair, and about the benefits of staying focused when other students interact with the teacher. Firstly, students might learn from teachers' CF even when they are not the recipients. Secondly, they might help their classmates by peer-repair, because it could act as a form of feedback for them.

7.3.3 Individual differences, CF characteristics, and success

The present study revealed a relation between students' positive and negative attitudes, motivation, personality traits, and the production and quality of uptake. Furthermore, the outcomes of the study suggest that issues such as the directness of CF could relate to students' affective responses to CF, and eventually to their reactions to CF. Of course, how a student views certain CF techniques does not necessarily mean that it would be more, or less beneficial for him/her. Students' perceptions and feelings cannot guarantee the success of feedback. However, as the present study showed, how one feels could affect how s/he reacts after CF. Therefore, it seems to be worth considering that teachers could tailor their feedback treatment to accommodate how students might feel in case they receive different CF types within a classroom environment. Teachers could tailor CF treatment by giving questionnaires to their students in order to gain information about their individuality, and their attitudes towards different CF types, in order to provide relevant CF techniques.

Additional suggestions based on the outcomes of the present study involve characteristics of CF types that might help students react to CF, irrespective of attitudes. In particular, length of CF turns might affect students' production of uptake after explicit correction. Therefore, it could be suggested that short explicit correction, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation turns might help students react to CF, and possibly to repair their errors, compared to longer turns. With respect to metalinguistic feedback, based on the outcomes of this study it could be suggested that specific, direct, and explicit turns of metalinguistic feedback and metalinguistic feedback in L1 might help students to produce uptake, repair, and/or modified output. Teachers could indicate, comment, or identify the

erroneous form, and give clues about the required actions for repairing the erroneous form to help students respond to CF. Finally, outcomes in relation to recast suggest that specific characteristics of the technique could affect students' production and quality of uptake. Characteristics of mode, scope, reduction, length, number of changes, and types of changes. Specifically, recasts that are declarative, isolated, reduced, and short, involve a single error change, and use substitution might help students to respond to CF and to produce repair and/or modified output.

7.4 Limitations

In this section, I outline the limitations of the current study. In particular, I acknowledge the weaknesses of some of the scales in the questionnaire. Moreover, I refer to the restrictions of using uptake as a measure of noticing CF. Lastly, I refer to the constraints on generalisability.

7.4.1 Questionnaire

With respect to the questionnaire, time restrictions caused limitations with respect to the design of the questionnaire. Specifically, the items were reduced, therefore it is recognised that the scales measuring some of the individual difference concepts were not ideal. It would have been more proper if the scales measuring some of the individual difference concepts consisted of more items.

7.4.2 Use of uptake

The limitations of the use of uptake in the present study are recognised. Firstly, it is acknowledged that using uptake as an indication of noticing could be problematic, because uptake does not necessarily indicate noticing. Secondly, studying the success of CF in terms of immediate uptake can only result in descriptive findings. Without the analysis of developmental data, the findings cannot indicate the long term effects of CF. Therefore, it is acknowledged that the findings of the present study cannot reveal the long term effects of CF. The findings indicate the success of CF in terms of learners' immediate responses to CF which can suggest how students process the feedback that they receive. Specifically, they can show students' on the spot processing of positive

evidence, or possible awareness of the gap between their interlanguage and the target language (Swain, 1995; Schmidt, 1995; Clarke et al., 2017).

7.4.3 Generalisability

The present mixed methods study involved limitations with respect to the concept of generalisability. In this section, I address the limitations of quantitative findings in terms of generalisability.

Firstly, it appears that not all of the quantitative findings about students' attitudes in Chapter 4 can be generalised, and those findings that can be generalised do not represent the wider population of EFL students in Cyprus. To be specific, not all of the items in the questionnaire were analysed using significance testing. Therefore, only the questions that involved significance testing could be generalised, and it is the majority of the outcomes in Chapter 4. With respect to generalisable findings, the study obtained a large convenience sample of male and female Greek-Cypriot EFL students, between the ages of 12-26 years old. There was diversity among the participants, since they were recruited from different towns across the island, and from a variety of private and public institutions. Therefore, it is not certain that the outcomes of this study truly represent the views of the larger population of Greek-Cypriot EFL students. Nonetheless, the findings could be generalised to the population that the results were drawn from, namely to the context of Greek-Cypriot teenager and young adult EFL students in Cyprus.

As for the quantitative findings of the oral data in Chapter 5, due to access and time limitations, only classrooms of Greek-Cypriot teenager EFL students were observed, from a private EFL school. The institute was broadly typical of private afternoon institutes in Cyprus. Moreover, only two EFL teachers participated in the observations. It is recognised that it would have been more ideal if more classrooms were observed, including young adult EFL classrooms, and if more teachers participated in the study. Therefore, the findings of this Chapter cannot be generalised to the larger population of Greek-Cypriot EFL classrooms. However, the rich dataset and the significance testing suggest that the findings could be generalised to that context, namely to Greek-Cypriot teenager EFL classrooms of private afternoon institutes in Cyprus. Lastly, it is

acknowledged that the quantitative findings of Chapter 6 cannot be generalised, because the analysis did not involve any significance testing.

7.5 Future research

The present study revealed Greek-Cypriot EFL students' positive attitudes towards CF. The area of attitudes towards CF could benefit from additional exploration of EFL teachers' attitudes towards CF. Such an investigation would allow for comparisons between students' and teachers' views with respect to error-related issues. Moreover, considering the identification of CF types that involved the use of CG in the present context, it would be interesting to investigate Greek-Cypriot students' and teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in CF.

Furthermore, in view of the outcomes of this study in relation to characteristics of recast that could affect the students' production of uptake, it would be worth investigating quantitatively how uptake could differ according to the type of recast. Similarly, taking into consideration that certain characteristics of explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback were also related to uptake production, it would be interesting to explore quantitatively the characteristics of those CF types and their potential relation to uptake.

In addition, taking into consideration the limitations of the use of uptake in a descriptive study, it would be worth exploring developmental patterns across the sessions of naturalistic classroom data. Such an investigation would allow for suggestions in relation to the long term benefits of CF.

Furthermore, it would be interesting to investigate the use of the characteristics of feedback that were suggested in this study as part of computer assisted assessment/feedback applications that are used by teachers to offer real-time feedback to students in virtual environments.

Finally, considering the suggestions of this study about the relations between students' affective responses to CF and the production of uptake, it would be interesting to

investigate students' affective responses to CF through devices that can measure in real time how students might feel when they receive CF during a lesson. Such devices are used outside of education to measure customer satisfaction, and they could offer real time data on students' affective responses to CF, which could then be studied in relation to immediate uptake.

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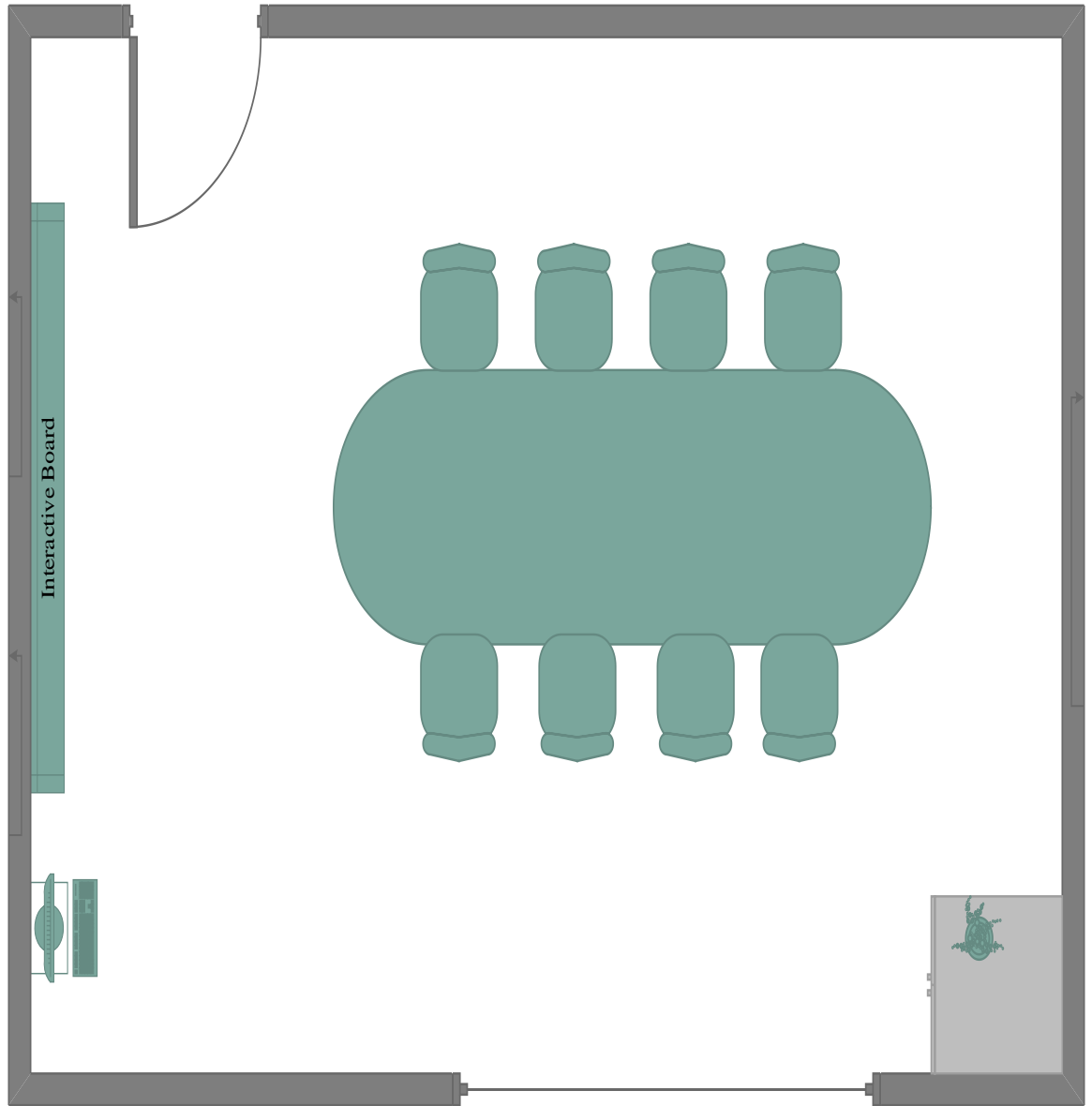
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Appendices

Appendix A – Classroom layout



Appendix B – Student information letter: English version

Panagiota Matsidi (PhD Student)

School of Journalism, Language and Communication

University of Central Lancashire

pmatsidi@uclan.ac.uk

+357 99 763463

Student Information Letter

Dear Student,

My name is Panagiota Matsidi and I am a PhD student at the University of Central Lancashire. My research lies within the area of second language acquisition.

I would like to kindly ask for your agreement, and the consent of your parents/guardians (if applicable), to participate in the current research study. By participating in this research study, you will be given a questionnaire to fill in, and you will be observed during your English language lesson.

All of your personal and academic information will be treated **confidentially**. Your participation will be kept **anonymous**.

Please do not feel any pressure because your participation is entirely voluntary. Moreover, if you agree to participate, and for any reason, at any time you change your mind, you can withdraw by filling in the withdrawal form. Upon receipt of the withdrawal form, your data will be removed from the current study and securely disposed/deleted.

I sincerely hope that you will participate in this research study. If you are willing to participate, please fill in the consent forms (one copy for you, the other should be returned to the PhD student). I am happy to answer any questions that you may have.

Thank you for your help,

Panagiota Matsidi

(BA, MA, MA, PhD Student)

Appendix C – Student consent form: English version

Panagiota Matsidi (PhD Student)

School of Journalism, Language and Communication

University of Central Lancashire

pmatsidi@uclan.ac.uk

+357 99 763463

Student Consent Form

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information letter. I had the opportunity to ask questions which have been answered fully.
2. I understand that my participation in this research study is voluntary. I am free to withdraw my participation any time and for whatever reason by completing the provided withdrawal form.
3. I understand that only the PhD student and the members of the supervisory team of the University of Central Lancashire will have access to my personal data, for purposes related specifically to the current research study.
4. I understand that my participation and all information collected will be treated as confidential. The PhD student will attain anonymity, by using pseudonyms or codes when referring to the data in published results, and she will not use the personal details or full names of the participants.
5. I agree that the PhD student uses my data, which will be collected from the questionnaire and the observations for purposes related to the conduction of the current research study.
6. I agree to participate in this research study.

Name of Student: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

PhD student

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix D – Student withdrawal form: English version

Panagiota Matsidi (PhD Student)
School of Journalism, Language and Communication
University of Central Lancashire
pmatsidi@uclan.ac.uk
+357 99 763463

Student Withdrawal Form

If you wish to withdraw from the current research study, please complete the information below and return this form directly to the PhD student.

Upon receipt of this withdrawal form, your data will be removed from the current study and securely disposed/deleted.

I wish to withdraw from this research study.

Name of Student: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix E – Student information letter: Greek version

Παναγιώτα Ματσίδη (Διδακτορική φοιτήτρια)

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Γράμμα Πληροφόρησης Μαθητών

Αγαπητέ/ή Μαθητή/Μαθήτρια,

Ονομάζομαι Παναγιώτα Ματσίδη και είμαι διδακτορική φοιτήτρια στο University of Central Lancashire. Η έρευνά μου κατατάσσεται στον τομέα της εκμάθησης δεύτερης γλώσσας.

Θα ήθελα να ζητήσω τη συμφωνία σας, και τη συγκατάθεση των γονέων/κηδεμόνων σας (αν ισχύει για σας), για να λάβετε μέρος στην παρούσα ερευνητική εργασία. Λαμβάνοντας μέρος στην εργασία αυτή, θα σας δωθεί ένα ερωτηματολόγιο για να συμπληρώσετε, και θα παρακολουθήσω το μάθημα των Αγγλικών σας στην τάξη.

Σας διαβεβαιώ ότι όλα τα προσωπικά και ακαδημαϊκά σας στοιχεία θα παραμείνουν **εμπιστευτικά**. Η συμμετοχή σας θα κρατηθεί **ανώνυμη**.

Παρακαλώ μη νιώσετε οποιαδήποτε πίεση επειδή η συμμετοχή σας είναι εξ' ολοκλήρου εθελοντική. Επίσης αν συμφωνήσετε να λάβετε μέρος, και για οποιοδήποτε λόγο και οποιαδήποτε ώρα αλλάξετε γνώμη, μπορείτε να αποσύρετε τη συμμετοχή σας συμπληρώνοντας τη φόρμα απόσυρσης. Μόλις παραλάβω τη φόρμα απόσυρσης, τα δεδομένα σας θα αφαιρεθούν από την παρούσα έρευνα και θα καταστραφούν/σβηστούν με ασφαλές τρόπο.

Θα εκτιμούσα ιδιαίτερος την πιθανή συμμετοχή σας στην παρούσα ερευνητική εργασία. Αν επιθυμείτε να συμμετέχετε, παρακαλώ συμπληρώστε τη φόρμα συγκατάθεσης (ένα αντίγραφο για σας, το άλλο επιστρέψτε το στη διδακτορική φοιτήτρια). Θα χαρώ να απαντήσω σε οποιοσδήποτε ερωτήσεις έχετε.

Σας ευχαριστώ για τη βοήθεια σας,

Παναγιώτα Ματσίδη

(BA, MA, MA, Διδακτορική Φοιτήτρια)

Appendix F – Student consent form: Greek version

Παναγιώτα Ματσίδη (Διδακτορική φοιτήτρια)

School of Journalism, Language and Communication

University of Central Lancashire

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Φόρμα Συγκατάθεσης Μαθητή

1. Βεβαιώνω ότι έχω διαβάσει και έχω κατανοήσει το γράμμα πληροφόρησης. Είχα την ευκαιρία να κάνω ερωτήσεις οι οποίες απαντήθηκαν πλήρως.
2. Κατανοώ ότι η συμμετοχή μου σε αυτή την έρευνα είναι εθελοντική. Είμαι ελεύθερος/η να αποσύρω τη συμμετοχή μου οποιαδήποτε στιγμή και για οποιοδήποτε λόγο συμπληρώνοντας τη φόρμα απόσυρσης που προμηθεύτηκε.
3. Κατανοώ ότι μόνο η διδακτορική φοιτήτρια και τα μέλη της ομάδας επιτήρησης από το University of Central Lancashire θα έχουν πρόσβαση στα προσωπικά μου δεδομένα, για σκοπούς σχετικούς με την παρούσα έρευνα.
4. Κατανοώ ότι όλα τα στοιχεία που θα μαζευτούν θα αντιμετωπιστούν ως εμπιστευτικά. Η διδακτορική φοιτήτρια θα χρησιμοποιήσει ψευδώνυμα ή κωδικούς όταν θα αναφέρεται στα δεδομένα για να διατηρηθεί η ανωνυμία των συμμετεχόντων και δεν θα χρησιμοποιήσει προσωπικές λεπτομέρειες ή τα ονοματεπώνυμα των συμμετεχόντων.
5. Συμφωνώ όπως η διδακτορική φοιτήτρια χρησιμοποιήσει τα δεδομένα μου που θα μαζευτούν από το ερωτηματολόγιο και την παρακολούθηση μαθημάτων, για σκοπούς σχετικούς με τη διεξαγωγή της παρούσας έρευνας.
6. Είμαι σύμφωνος/η να λάβω μέρος στην παρούσα ερευνητική μελέτη.

Ονοματεπώνυμο μαθητή: _____

Υπογραφή: _____ Ημερομηνία: _____

Διδακτορική φοιτήτρια

_____ Υπογραφή: _____ Ημερομηνία: _____

Appendix G – Student withdrawal form: Greek version

Παναγιώτα Ματσίδη (PhD Student)
School of Journalism, Language and Communication
University of Central Lancashire
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Φόρμα Απόσυρσης Συμμετοχής Μαθητή

Αν επιθυμείτε να αποσύρετε τη συμμετοχή σας από την παρούσα ερευνητική εργασία, παρακαλώ συμπληρώστε τις ακόλουθες πληροφορίες και επιστρέψτε αυτή τη φόρμα στη διδακτορική φοιτήτρια.

Όταν η διδακτορική φοιτήτρια λάβει αυτή τη φόρμα, όλα τα δεδομένα που σας αφορούν θα αφαιρεθούν από την παρούσα εργασία και θα καταστραφούν/σβηστούν με ασφαλές τρόπο.

Επιθυμώ να αποσύρω τη συμμετοχή μου από την παρούσα εργασία.

Όνοματεπώνυμο: _____

Υπογραφή: _____ Ημερομηνία: _____

Appendix H – Student questionnaire: English version

A. Please provide the following information:

1. Age: _____
2. Gender: Male Female
3. Nationality: _____
4.
 - a. First Language: _____
 - b. Second Language: _____
 - c. Third Language: _____
 - d. Other (please specify): _____
5. Father's occupation: _____
6. Father's education:

a. Primary school	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Gymnasium	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Lyceum	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. College	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. University	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Mother's occupation: _____
8. Mother's education:

a. Primary school	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Gymnasium	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Lyceum	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. College	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. University	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Your type of school: Public Private
10. Your proficiency level in English is: (please circle the appropriate level)

C (1/2) Proficient User	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects.
B (1/2) Independent User	Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue. Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise, while travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes, ambitions and plans.
A (1/2) Basic User	Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment).

11. Your mark/score in English at school and at your private institute:

12. How many years have you been learning English?

13. How many hours of English lessons do you attend per week?

14. Do you have any relatives from English-speaking countries? If yes, how often do you visit them?

15. Do you travel in English-speaking countries? If yes, how often?

B. Please rate the following questions based on your personal opinion:

	1 = strongly agree	2 = agree	3 = neutral	4 = disagree	5 = strongly disagree
1. I am talkative.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am relaxed and I can handle stress easily.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I tend to be quiet.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I worry very often.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sometimes I am shy and I am not sociable.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am outgoing and social.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I have a high self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I learn English because my parents want me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I learn English because it will help me in my future career.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I really enjoy learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I feel proud when accomplishing difficult tasks during an English language lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I like learning about English-speaking countries and their way of life, culture and tradition.	1	2	3	4	5

13. I learn English because it is compulsory in education.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I feel excited when I speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I learn English because I can get a reward from my parents/family.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I feel I am wasting my time while learning English, or when I study English.	1	2	3	4	5

C. The following questions concern English language errors. Please choose the answer you prefer, or write your answer in the space provided.

1. Do you make oral errors in English?

- a. yes
- b. no

2. Do you make written errors in English?

- a. yes
- b. no

3. If yes, why do you believe you make errors? (you can choose more than one option):

- a. influence from Greek
- b. influence from Cypriot Greek
- c. influence from other spoken languages
- d. incomplete knowledge of English language
- e. English language is complex
- f. low motivation to learn English
- g. individual differences of students
- h. other (please specify) _____

4. Do you believe that your first language knowledge helps, does not help or prevents/makes it difficult for you to learn English?

- a. it helps
- b. it does not help
- c. it prevents/makes it difficult

5. English differs from Greek and Cypriot Greek. If you make errors in English due to the influence of the first language, how does your teacher react? My teacher:

(you can choose more than one option)

- a. ignores the error
- b. indicates the error and provides the correct answer
- c. repeats my utterance and emphasizes the error
- d. reformulates my utterance and corrects the error
- e. asks me to repeat my response
- f. gives hint to help me notice the error and waits
for me to correct the mistake
- g. explains why the response is incorrect
- h. uses non-verbal behavior, gestures and facial expressions

6. How do you feel when your teacher corrects your mistake, which is due to the influence from your first language? You think that it is:

(you can choose more than one option)

	1 = strongly agree	2 = agree	3 = neutral	4 = disagree	5 = strongly disagree
1. encouraging	1	2	3	4	5
2. useful	1	2	3	4	5
3. embarrassing	1	2	3	4	5
4. satisfying	1	2	3	4	5
5. irritating	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am indifferent/I do not care/pay attention to it	1	2	3	4	5
7. positive	1	2	3	4	5
8. negative	1	2	3	4	5

7. The following statements describe the correction of oral errors. For each statement, make your choice based on your foreign language learning experience.

	1 = strongly agree	2 = agree	3 = neutral	4 = disagree	5 = strongly disagree
1. I want my teachers to correct my errors while I am speaking in English.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Teachers should correct all oral errors in English.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel embarrassed when my teacher corrects my oral errors during our English lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I find it difficult to notice my own mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I find it useful when my classmates correct my errors during an English lesson.	1	2	3	4	5

8. How often do you want to have your errors corrected?

	1 = always	2 = very often	3 = sometimes	4 = seldom	5 = never
1. grammatical errors	1	2	3	4	5
2. pronunciation, accent and intonation errors	1	2	3	4	5
3. vocabulary errors	1	2	3	4	5
4. inappropriate cultural phrasing errors	1	2	3	4	5

9. Teachers' reactions to students' errors in speaking the target language are various. The following 1-8 are examples of correction techniques. Teachers sometimes use them in combination. However, please rate each technique as an individual method here.

Imagine you make the following error during an English lesson.

Example of *grammatical* error:

Teacher: "Where did your mum go?"

Student: "*Goed* to the supermarket."

Your teacher corrects you with one of the following methods: 1-8.

Please rate each method:

	1 = excellent	2 = very good	3 = good	4 = fair	5 = poor
1. Teacher ignores the student's error.	1	2	3	4	5
2. "Goed" is wrong. You should say "went". (Teacher indicates the error and provides the correct answer.)	1	2	3	4	5
3. "She GOED to the supermarket?" (Teacher repeats the student's utterance and emphasizes the error.)	1	2	3	4	5
4. "oh she went to the supermarket" (Teacher paraphrases the student's utterance correcting the error.)	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sorry again? Where did your mum go? (Teacher asks the student to repeat the answer.)	1	2	3	4	5
6. "Goed...?" (Teacher gives a hint to help the student notice the error and waits for the student to self-correct)	1	2	3	4	5
7. "Goed is the past tense for regular verbs. You need the past tense of irregular verbs here." (Teacher explains why the student's answer is wrong.)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Teacher uses non-verbal behavior, such as gestures and facial expressions.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you ☺

Appendix I – Student questionnaire: Greek version

A. Παρακαλώ συμπλήρωσε τις ακόλουθες πληροφορίες:

1. Ηλικία: _____
2. Φύλο: Αρσενικό Θηλυκό
3. Εθνικότητα: _____
4.
 - a. Μητρική γλώσσα: _____
 - b. Δεύτερη γλώσσα: _____
 - c. Τρίτη γλώσσα: _____
 - d. Άλλη γλώσσα (προσδιόρισε): _____
5. Επάγγελμα πατέρα: _____
6. Εκπαίδευση πατέρα:
 - a. Δημοτικό
 - b. Γυμνάσιο
 - c. Λύκειο
 - d. Κολέγιο
 - e. Πανεπιστήμιο
7. Επάγγελμα μητέρας: _____
8. Εκπαίδευση μητέρας:
 - a. Δημοτικό
 - b. Γυμνάσιο
 - c. Λύκειο
 - d. Κολέγιο
 - e. Πανεπιστήμιο
9. Το σχολείο/πανεπιστήμιο σου είναι: Δημόσιο Ιδιωτικό
10. Η ευφράδεια σου στα Αγγλικά είναι: (κύκλωσε το αντίστοιχο)

C (1/2) Proficient User – Εξειδικευμένος Χρήστης	Μπορεί να κατανοήσει με ευκολία σχεδόν όλα όσα ακούει ή διαβάζει. Μπορεί να εκφράζεται αυθόρμητα, με μεγάλη άνεση και ακρίβεια. Μπορεί να χρησιμοποιεί τη γλώσσα ευέλικτα και αποτελεσματικά για κοινωνικούς, ακαδημαϊκούς και επαγγελματικούς σκοπούς. Μπορεί να παραγάγει σαφή, καλά διαρθρωμένα, λεπτομερή κείμενα για σύνθετα/πολύπλοκα θέματα .
B (1/2) Independent User - Ανεξάρτητος Χρήστης	Μπορεί να παραγάγει σαφές, λεπτομερές κείμενο για ένα ευρύ φάσμα θεμάτων και να εξηγήσει μια άποψη πάνω σε ένα επίκαιρο θέμα. Μπορεί να κατανοήσει τα κύρια σημεία από σαφής ακούσματα που αφορούν οικεία θέματα που συναντώνται τακτικά στη δουλειά, το σχολείο, τον ελεύθερο χρόνο, κ.λ.π. Μπορεί να χειριστεί καταστάσεις που είναι πιθανό να προκύψουν, ενώ ταξιδεύει σε μια περιοχή όπου ομιλείται η γλώσσα. Μπορεί να περιγράψει εμπειρίες και γεγονότα, όνειρα, ελπίδες, φιλοδοξίες και σχέδια.
A (1/2) Basic User – Βασικός Χρήστης	Μπορεί να επικοινωνήσει σε απλές και καθημερινές εργασίες ρουτίνας που απαιτούν απλή και άμεση ανταλλαγή πληροφοριών για οικεία και καθημερινά θέματα. Μπορεί να κατανοήσει προτάσεις και εκφράσεις που χρησιμοποιούνται συχνά και σχετίζονται με περιοχές που είναι άμεσα συναφείς (π.χ. πολύ βασικές προσωπικές και οικογενειακές πληροφορίες, αγορές, τοπική γεωγραφία, εργασία).

11. Ο βαθμός των Αγγλικών σου στο σχολείο και στο φροντιστήριο / πανεπιστήμιο:

12. Πόσα χρόνια κάνεις μαθήματα Αγγλικών;

13. Πόσες ώρες κάνεις μαθήματα Αγγλικών την εβδομάδα;

14. Έχεις συγγενείς από Αγγλόφωνες χώρες; Αν ναι, πόσο συχνά τους επισκέπτεσαι;

15. Ταξιδεύεις σε Αγγλόφωνες χώρες; Αν ναι, πόσο συχνά;

B. Παρακαλώ βαθμολόγησε τα ακόλουθα με βάση την προσωπική σου άποψη:

	1 = συμφωνώ απόλυτα	2 = συμφωνώ	3 = ουδέτερο	4 = διαφωνώ	5 = διαφωνώ απόλυτα
1. Είμαι ομιλητικός/ή.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Είμαι χαλαρός/ή και μπορώ να ελέγξω το άγχος μου εύκολα.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Συνήθως είμαι ήσυχος/η.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Νιώθω ανήσυχος/η πολύ συχνά.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Κάποιες φορές είμαι ντροπαλός/ή και δεν είμαι κοινωνικός/ή.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Είμαι εξωστρεφής και κοινωνικός/ή.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Έχω ψηλή αυτοεκτίμηση.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Μαθαίνω Αγγλικά επειδή οι γονείς μου θέλουν να το κάνω.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Μαθαίνω Αγγλικά επειδή θα με βοηθήσει στη μελλοντική μου καριέρα.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Απολαμβάνω πολύ να μαθαίνω Αγγλικά.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Νιώθω πολύ περήφανος/η όταν λύνω δύσκολες ασκήσεις στο μάθημα Αγγλικών.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Μου αρέσει να μαθαίνω για Αγγλόφωνες χώρες, τον τρόπο ζωής, την κουλτούρα και τις παραδόσεις τους.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Μαθαίνω Αγγλικά επειδή είναι υποχρεωτικό στην εκπαίδευση.	1	2	3	4	5

14. Νιώθω ενθουσιασμένος/η όταν μιλάω Αγγλικά.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Μαθαίνω Αγγλικά επειδή μπορεί να πάρω ανταμοιβή απο τους γονείς/οικογένεια μου.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Νιώθω οτι χάνω το χρόνο μου όταν μαθαίνω ή όταν διαβάζω Αγγλικά.	1	2	3	4	5

C. Οι ακόλουθες ερωτήσεις αφορούν λάθη που κάνουμε στα Αγγλικά. Παρακαλώ επέλεξε την απάντηση που προτιμάς.

1. Κάνεις λάθη στα Αγγλικά στον προφορικό σου λόγο;

a. ναι

b. όχι

2. Κάνεις λάθη στα Αγγλικά στο γραπτό σου λόγο;

a. ναι

b. όχι

3. Αν ναι, γιατί πιστεύεις οτι κάνεις λάθη; (μπορείς να επιλέξεις περισσότερα απο ένα):

a. επιρροή απο τα Νέα Ελληνικά

b. επιρροή απο τα Κυπριακά

c. επιρροή απο άλλες γλώσσες

d. ελλιπής γνώση της Αγγλικής γλώσσας

e. η Αγγλική γλώσσα είναι περίπλοκη

f. χαμηλό κίνητρο για την εκμάθηση Αγγλικών

g. προσωπικές ατομικές διαφορές μαθητών

h. άλλο (προσδιόρησε) _____

4. Πιστεύεις οτι οι γνώσεις απο τη μητρική σου γλώσσα βοηθούν, δεν βοηθούν ή αποτρέπουν/δυσκολεύουν την εκμάθηση των Αγγλικών;

a. βοηθούν

b. δεν βοηθούν

c. αποτρέπουν/δυσκολεύουν

5. Τα Αγγλικά διαφέρουν απο τα Νέα Ελληνικά και τα Κυπριακά. Αν κάνεις λάθη στα Αγγλικά επειδή χρησιμοποιείς τις γνώσεις σου απο τη μητρική σου γλώσσα πώς αντιδρά ο/η καθηγητής/ρια σου; (μπορείς να επιλέξεις περισσότερα απο ένα)

- a. αγνοεί το λάθος
- b. υποδεικνύει το λάθος και δίνει την σωστή απάντηση
- c. επαναλαμβάνει τη πρόταση του μαθητή δίνοντας έμφαση στο λάθος
- d. παραφράζει την πρόταση του μαθητή διορθώνοντας το λάθος
- e. ζητά απο το μαθητή να επαναλάβει την απάντηση
- f. δίνει υπονούμενο για να βοηθήσει τον μαθητή να προσέξει το λάθος του και περιμένει να το διορθώσει απο μόνος του
- g. επεξηγεί γιατί η πρόταση του μαθητή είναι λάθος
- h. χρησιμοποιεί τη γλώσσα του σώματος, κινήσεις και εκφράσεις προσώπου

6. Πώς νιώθεις όταν ο/η καθηγητής/ρια σου διορθώνει το λάθος σου που προέρχεται απο την επιρροή της μητρικής σου γλώσσας; Πιστεύεις οτι είναι (μπορείς να επιλέξεις περισσότερα απο ένα):

	1 = συμφωνώ απόλυτα	2 = συμφωνώ	3 = ουδέτερο	4 = διαφωνώ	5 = διαφωνώ απόλυτα
1. ενθαρρυντικό	1	2	3	4	5
2. χρήσιμο	1	2	3	4	5
3.αμήχανο/ ντροπιαστικό	1	2	3	4	5
4. ικανοποιητικό	1	2	3	4	5
5. ενοχλητικό	1	2	3	4	5
6. είμαι αδιάφορος/ δεν με νοιάζει/δεν δίνω προσοχή	1	2	3	4	5
7. θετικό	1	2	3	4	5
8. αρνητικό	1	2	3	4	5

7. Οι ακόλουθες προτάσεις περιγράφουν τρόπους διόρθωσης λαθών στον προφορικό λόγο. Για κάθε πρόταση, παρακαλώ επέλεξε την άποψη σου με βάση την εμπειρία σου από την εκμάθηση Αγγλικών.

	1 = συμφωνώ απόλυτα	2 = συμφωνώ	3 = ουδέτερο	4 = διαφωνώ	5 = διαφωνώ απόλυτα
1. Θέλω οι καθηγητές μου να διορθώνουν τα λάθη μου όταν μιλάω Αγγλικά.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Οι καθηγητές πρέπει να διορθώνουν όλα τα προφορικά λάθη των μαθητών.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Νιώθω αμήχανα όταν ο καθηγητής μου διορθώνει τα λάθη μου κατά τη διάρκεια του μαθήματος των Αγγλικών.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Δυσκολεύομαι να προσέξω τα λάθη μου.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Το βρίσκω βοηθητικό όταν οι συμμαθητές μου διορθώνουν τα λάθη μου κατά τη διάρκεια του μαθήματος των Αγγλικών.	1	2	3	4	5

8. Πόσο συχνά επιθυμείς να διορθώνει ο καθηγητής σου τα λάθη σου;

	1 = πάντα	2 = πολύ συχνά	3 = κάποτε	4 = σπάνια	5 = ποτέ
1. γραμματικά λάθη	1	2	3	4	5
2. εκφώνηση, προφορά και τονικά λάθη	1	2	3	4	5
3. λάθη στο λεξιλόγιο	1	2	3	4	5
4. ακατάλληλη χρήση φράσεων λόγω διαφορετικής κουλτούρας	1	2	3	4	5

9. Υπάρχουν διάφορες αντιδράσεις απο τους καθηγητές μετά απο προφορικά λάθη μαθητών. Τα ακόλουθα 1-8 είναι παραδείγματα απο τεχνικές διόρθωσης λαθών. Οι καθηγητές τις χρησιμοποιούν και σε συνδιασμό μεταξύ τους. Παρ'όλα αυτά, παρακαλώ βαθμολόγησε την κάθε μέθοδο ως ατομική τεχνική εδώ.

Φαντάσου ότι κάνεις το ακόλουθο λάθος κατα τη διάρκεια μαθήματος Αγγλικών.

Παράδειγμα *γραμματικού* λάθους:

Καθηγητής: “Where did your mum go?”

Μαθητής: “*Goed* to the supermarket.”

Ο καθηγητής σου σε διορθώνει με μια απο τις ακόλουθες μεθόδους 1-8.

Παρακαλώ βαθμολόγησε την κάθε μέθοδο:

	1 = εξαιρετικό	2 = πολύ καλό	3 = καλό	4 = μέτριο	5 = κακό
1. Ο καθηγητής αγνοεί το λάθος του μαθητή.	1	2	3	4	5
2. “Goed” είναι λάθος. Πρέπει να πείς “went”. (Ο καθηγητής υποδεικνύει το λάθος και δίνει τη σωστή απάντηση.)	1	2	3	4	5
3. “She GOED to the supermarket??” (Ο καθηγητής επαναλαμβάνει τη λανθασμένη πρόταση του μαθητή και τονίζει το λάθος.)	1	2	3	4	5
4. “oh she went to the supermarket” (Ο καθηγητής παραφράζει τη λανθασμένη πρόταση του μαθητή διορθώνοντας το λάθος.)	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sorry again? Where did your mum go? (Ο καθηγητής ζητά απο το μαθητή να επαναλάβει την απάντηση.)	1	2	3	4	5
6. “Goed...?” (Ο καθηγητής δίνει στοιχείο για να βοηθήσει το μαθητή να προσέξει το λάθος και περιμένει απο το μαθητή να διορθώσει ο ίδιος το λάθος του.)	1	2	3	4	5
7. “Goed είναι ο αόριστος για τα ομαλά ρήματα. Χρειάζεσαι τον αόριστο για τα ανώμαλα ρήματα εδώ.” (Ο καθηγητής εξηγεί γιατί η απάντηση του μαθητή είναι λάθος.)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Ο καθηγητής χρησιμοποιεί τη γλώσσα του σώματος, όπως κινήσεις και εκφράσεις προσώπου.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you ☺

Appendix J – Sample coding of ATLAS.ti

The screenshot displays the ATLAS.ti software interface with the following components:

- Menu Bar:** File, Home, Search Project, Analyze, Import & Export, Tools & Support, Document, Tools, View.
- Toolbar:** Includes icons for Create Free Quotation, Open, Code In Vivo, List Coding, Quick Coding, Auto Coding, Focus Group Coding, Rename, Delete, Unlink, Flip Link, Relation Link, Comment, Word Cloud, Word List, and Search Document.
- Explore Panel (Left):** A tree view of codes. Visible codes include:
 - D (15-0)
 - E (25-0)
 - elicitation (33-0)
 - explicit (33-0)
 - explicit + metalinguistic (11-0)
 - G (266-0)
 - G2 (40-0)
 - grammatical (240-0)
 - hesitation (7-0)
 - incorporation (93-0)
 - J (65-0)
 - K1 (16-0)
 - K2 (30-0)
 - L1 (19-0)
 - lexical (118-0)
 - M (164-0)
 - M2 (17-0)
 - metalinguistic (34-0)
 - metalinguistic in L1 (64-0)
 - needs repair (197-0)
 - Needs repair > 3 Combinations
 - Needs repair > 3 Reformulations
 - no uptake (84-0)
 - No uptake > 3 Prompts (1-0)
 - No uptake > 3 Combinations
 - No uptake > 3 Reformulations
- Main Document Area:**
 - Episode 23 (57:50-58:24):**

J: ...or 50 ok I won't live but if I do kids my kids will live in that year

T1: what do you mean I do kids?

J: αν κάμω παιδιά εν τα παιδιά μου που θα ζήσουν [if I make children it's my children who will live]

T1: if I have children maybe do kids is a Greek phrase

J: if I have children
 - Episode 24 (59:23-59:46):**

G: run out and go to the ozone hole the earth it will be

T1: the earth will be what?

G: θιαό λεπτά νάβρω τη λέξη που ψάχνω (.) κάμκε [two minutes to find the word I'm looking for (.) burnt]

T1: burnt

G: ναι [yes]
 - Episode 25 (1:00:11-1:00:38):**

G: the pollution that human make like cars or bicycle or
- Annotation Panel (Middle-Right):** Shows a list of codes applied to the text, such as 'Repair > 3 turns Combination', 'clarification request', 'prompt', 'different error', 'needs repair', 'explicit + metalinguistic', 'reformulation', 'acknowledgment', and 'needs repair'.
- Quotations Panel (Right):** A list of 197 quotations with columns for ID and Name. Visible entries include:
 - 1:9 J: produced
 - 1:11 J: με [with] s
 - 1:19 V: eh OK sir
 - 1:26 G: huh?
 - 1:28 G: I had reach the
 - 1:30 G: from Melboun
 - 1:35 G: will won
 - 1:40 J: τρύπα [hole]
 - 1:45 G: harmless?
 - 1:47 G: huh unhar
 - 1:49 G: να εν το άλλο
 - 1:51 G: hamling?
 - 1:56 G: pollution harr
 - 1:59 G: κύριε σουγγύς
 - 1:72 G: that kind of vo
 - 1:74 G: να κύριε τούτ
 - 1:89 G: because we we
 - 1:91 G: τι εννοεί κύρι
 - 1:93 G: να [yes]
 - 1:98 G: the activities fc
 - > 1:106 G: yes
 - 1:109 J: αν κάμω παιδι
 - 1:114 G: θιαό λεπτά νά
 - 1:116 G: να [yes]
 - 1:125 G: you can be vol

Appendix K – CF episodes

SESSION 1 (B1)

Episode 1 (02:47-02:58)

S: /'prɒdʌkt/ το άλλο [the other one] /prɒ'dʌkt/?

T: we say that χαλλούμι [hallumi] is? in Cyprus

S: produce (correct word for the fill-in-the gaps exercise)

T: produced *εδώ θέλουμε όμως το* [nevertheless here we want the] infinitive produce

Episode 2 (02:34-02:42):

S: *το* [the] /prɒ'dʌkt/

T: /'prɒdʌkt/ the stress is on the first part

S: /'prɒdʌkt/

Episode 3 (03:46-03:56):

T: every year the U.S.

S: produce

T: be careful J

S: produced

T: it's

S: *με* [with] s

T: come again

S: produces

Episode 4 (04:42-04:48):

S: container

T: it's 40 grams

S: oh the weight

Episode 5 (15:56-16:27):

S: I walked all the way from Cyprus to England

T: that's not possible

S: eh OK sir

T: maybe you can use a different word

S: *πώς λένε?* [how do they say?]

S: flew by plane

T: yes you can use that or travel by plane

S: travel by plane all the way from Cyprus to England

Episode 6 (16:35-17:01):

S: I reach all the way

T: excuse me?

S: huh?

T: excuse me? I reached?

S: I had reach the way *πώς να το πώ;* [how should I say this?] *έχω κάμει τη διαδρομή* [I have made the route]

T: continue

S: from Melbourne to Sydney

T: can you repeat your sentence?

S: I had reached the way

Episode 7 (18:30-18:50):

S: there's no way Cyprus national team won the

T: will win

S: will won

T: (student's name) *όταν έχουμε* [when we have] will *θέλουμε ρήμα απλό* [we want a simple verb] will win

S: will win the Euro world cup 2018

Episode 8 (20:58-21:08):

S: he's talking about the /hɒl/ in the

T: the /həʊl/

S: *τρύπα* [hole]

T: /həʊl/ OK J.? *həʊl* in the ozone

T topic continuation you know what the ozone is...

Episode 9 (25:18-26:04):

S1: the only problem is that pastic is unharmed to the environment

T: plastic is something we need an adjective here ok?

S1: harmless?

T: we say that smoking is *αυτή η λέξη* [this word] to your health

S2: *τζίνο που είπες το αντίθετο* [the opposite of what you said]

T1: *δηλαδή προκαλεί ζημιά* [namely it causes damage]

S1: *ε ναι κύριε* [eh yes sir] harmless *έννεν τζίνο που προκαλεί ζημιά;* [isn't the one that causes damage?]

T: harmless *είναι τζίνο που δεν προκαλεί ζημιά* [is the one that doesn't cause damage]

S1: huh unharmed

T: harmless *είναι τζίνο που δεν προκαλεί ζημιά* (.) *τζίνο που προκαλεί;* [is the one that doesn't cause damage (.) what's the one that causes damage?]

S1: *ναι έν το άλλο που θέλουμε* [yes it's the other one that we want]

T: Harmless?

S1: harmful?

T: (name of S2) *ξέρεις;* [do you know?]

S2: harmful

Episode 10 (26:17-26:22):

S: Nowadays people are more aware how much

T: of how much

S: pollution harms the environment

Episode 11 (29:53-29:59):

S: on the April

T: in April

S: *κύριε εσυγχύστηκα* [sir I got confused]

T: *ντάξει* [OK] in April

S: in April

Episode 12 (48:16-48:26):

S: ... garbage and she puts it to a recycle bag

T: to a recycling

S: recycling

T: bag

S: bag *ναι* [yes]

Episode 13 (49:22-49:45):

S: the both pictures are outdoors

T: umm what do you mean? Both pictures you mean that they show people who?

S: who are outdoors umm they may be volunteers

Episode 14 (51:55-52:24):

S: in both pictures you can see volunteers this kind of volunteers it's humans

T: sorry G can you repeat the 2nd sentence?

S: that kind of volunteers it's humans that we want to protect the planet and the next generations

T: that want to protect

S: *ναι κύριε τούτο είπα* [yes sir that's what I said]

T: you said we yes ok

Episode 15 (51:30-51:42):

S: umm the environment *γύρω τους* [around them]

T: around them

S: around them is a very clean environment with clean air

Episode 16 (52:26-52:40):

S: in the 1st picture you can see a woman that we protect the beach

T: that protects

S: that protects the beach

Episode 17 (52:42-52:53):

S: and if you protect the beach you protect too the fish *ε πώς να το πώ προστατεύεις τα ψάρια;* [eh how do I say that you protect the fish?]

T: you protect the fish as well

S: you protect the fish as well and it's very important for the planet

Episode 18 (52:54-53:12):

S: in the 2nd picture you can see maybe a mother with his son

T: with her son

S: with her son that are planting trees together

Episode 19 (53:13-53:37):

S1: ...because we want the planet *ε προσπαθώ νάβρω τζίντη λέξη (.) πώς λέμε το διοξείδιο του άνθρακα;?* [I'm trying to find that word (.) how do we call the carbon dioxide?]

S2: carbon dioxide

T: that's a different word carbon dioxide

S1: because we want to (pause)

T: reduce

S3: *πέ* [say] *CO2 τζαι κανεί* [and it's fine]

S1: *τι εννοείς κύριε* [what do you mean sir?] reduce

T: *να μειώσουμε* [to reduce]

S1: *ναι* [yes]

T: CO2

S1: reduce the CO2

Episode 20 (53:56-54:20):

S: is important because

T: *είναι πολλές* [they are many] the activities

S: the activities for these people

T: the activities the people do

S: the activities the people do it's important for them

Episode 21 (54:16-54:28):

S: the activities the people do it's important for them

T: *έν πολλές* [they are many] the activities are *ή* [or] is?

S: are very important for them

Episode 22 (54:29-54:41):

S: because we know that if we planting trees we save the planet

T: yes you're right if we keep on planting them we're gonna save the planet

S: yes

Episode 23 (57:50-58:24):

S: ...or 50 ok I won't live but if I do kids my kids will live in that year

T: what do you mean I do kids?

S: *αν κάμω παιδιά εν τα παιδιά μου που θα ζήσουν* [if I make children it's my children who will live]

T: if I have children maybe do kids is a Greek phrase

S: if I have children

Episode 24 (59:23-59:46):

S: run out and go to the ozone hole the earth it will be

T: the earth will be what?

S: *θκίο λεπτά νάβρω τη λέξη που ψάχνω (.) κάηκε* [two minutes to find the word I'm looking for (.) burnt]

T: burnt

S: *ναι* [yes]

Episode 25 (1:00:11-1:00:38):

S: the pollution that human make like cars or bicycle or anything that's technique it's from people

T: OK it'a man made pollution yeah pollution coming from cars overuse of cars etc.

S: *ναι κύριε το* [yes sir] man made *μπορεί νάν τζαι γυναίκα* [can also be a woman]

Episode 26 (1:00:56-1:01:15):

S: I think one day the earth is going to be ... *ένα σκουπίδι* [a garbage]

T: yes it will turn out into a landfilled into a wasteland you're right

T topic continuation - yes we do see a lot of garbage in the streets...

Episode 27 (1:02:34-1:02:43):

S: you can be volunteers like these people

T: can you repeat that?

S: you can be volunteers like these people

T: yes yes you can become a volunteer

T topic continuation - ok question three how important is the natural...

Episode 28 (1:05:44-1:05:59):

S: the factories that *μολύνουν* [pollute]

T: pollute

S: pollute the planet

Episode 29 (1:05:44-1:05:59)

S1: with our *χημικά απόβλητα* [chemical waste]

T: *χημικά; Εμάθαμε το* [chemical? we learned this]

J2: chemical

T: waste

S1: chemical waste and the cars because the...

Episode 30 (01:07:32-01:07:46):

S: the ozone hole *γίνεται* [it becomes] it makes

T: it's growing?

S: it's growing and one day if we stay

Episode 31 (01:07:44-01:07:55):

S: it's growing and one day if we stay

T: keep on

S: keep on these cars pollution the planet and the Cyprus it will be

Episode 32 (01:07:50-01:08:05):

S: keep on these cars pollution the planet and the Cyprus it will be

T: OK *όταν λέμε* [when we say] Cyprus *λέμε* [we say] Cyprus *σκέττο* [plain]

T topic continuation – *λοιπόν για να ακούσουμε τι λέει...* [so let's listen to what it says...]

SESSION 2 (B1)

Episode 33 (00:26-00:30):

S: /'grɛfiti/

T: actually it's not /'grɛfiti/ it's called?

S: /grɛ'fi:ti/

Episode 34 (00:52-1:05):

S: there are some litter in some places but it's generally clean

T: yes there is yes some litter and OK

T topic continuation - where can we find these kinds of graffiti?

Episode 35 (01:23-01:27):

S: *σε απομονωμένες περιοχές* [in isolated areas]

T: in isolated areas

S: yes

Episode 36 (06:45-06:54):

S: there is a lot we can do

T: we can do

S: there is a lot we can do to change

Episode 37 (22:20-22:56):

S: all people afraid to throw litter on the beach because of the police

T: so why are they going to be afraid of polluting the beach?

S: επειδή υπάρχει νόμος [because there is the law]

T: because the camera will

S: because the camera

T: catch them while they are doing it?

T topic continuation - so in the end will they be taken to court στο δικαστήριο [to the court] what? *Εν ωραία η σκέψη σου απλά ανάλυσμου το λλίο* [your though is nice but analyse it a little bit]

Episode 38 (24:02-24:25):

S: As a result the people they will be stop throwing litter on the beach

T: OK *πολλά ωραίο* [very nice] as a result *έν θέλει το* [doesn't need the] the *γιατί έν μιλάς συγκεκριμένα για κάποιους* [because you don't talk about specific people] as a result people OK? *και* [and] will stop *μετά το* [after] will *απλό ρήμα* [simple verb]

T topic continuation - T addressing other student

Episode 39 (24:38-24:53):

S: I suggest taking security on the beach

T: placing maybe

S: placing security on the beach

Episode 40 (28:05-28:10):

S: if you do this peoples

T: people people

S: *ναι* [yes] people *ήθελα να πώ* [I wanted to say]

Episode 41 (28:12-28:33):

S: people may be stop throw litter on the beach because

T: so they will stop throwing litter on the beach yes?

S: because people are afraid the police

T: are afraid of the law *φοβούνται το νόμο* [are afraid of the law]

T topic continuation – *άτε γράψε το Γ. μου (.) γράψετε τις ιδέες σας* [come on write it G. write your ideas]

Episode 42 (45:15-45:33):

S: I get a headache when I'm afraid like today when I *πώς λέμε το σηκωστήκαν?* [how do we say they got up]

T: got up

S: got up and I saw your father to make a scary movie and I'm like huh

Episode 43 (45:33-46:01):

S: got up and I saw your father to make a scary movie and I'm like huh

T: OK bravo when I saw your? I didn't quite get that

S: when I saw his father YouTube videos

T: making a YouTube video? when I saw?

S: when I saw scary movies

Episode 44 (46:05-46:35):

S1: when does your head /hΛrt/

T: /h3:t/

S1: /hert/ /hΛrt/

T: /h3:t/

S2: /h3:t/

S1: /hert/ /hʌrt/
T: G mou your head /hɜ:t/
S1: head /hɜ:t/when does your head /hɜ:t/?

Episode 45 (51:41-51:54):
S: you should reduce the amount /selt/ you eat
T: the amount of /sɒlt/ αλατιού [salt]
S: you should reduce the amount of the /sɒlt/ you eat every day to one teaspoon

Episode 46 (55:24-55:36):
S: I think you must eat the φλούδα [skin] of fruit
T: the skin of fruit
T topic continuation – πού κολλά τώρα πόσα φρούτα τρώεις? Δαμέ λέει να αυξήσεις την ποσότητα [where does it fit now how many fruits do you eat? Here it says to increase the amount...]

SESSION 3 (B1)

Episode 47 (05:57-06:00):
S: to practice deep ['breθɪŋ]
T: ['bri:ðɪŋ]
S: ['bri:ðɪŋ]

Episode 48 (06:01-06:08):
S: /'kɒmfɔrtʌbli/
T: /'kʌmfɔtəbli/
S: /'kʌmfɔtəbli/ breathing through your nose

Episode 49 (08:00-08:05):
S: /'ekspɜrts/ say
T: /'ekspɜ:rts/
S: /'ekspɜ:rts/ say that /'lɔtɜr/

Episode 50 (08:05-08:15):
S: /'ekspɜ:rts/ say that /'lɔtɜr/
T: /'lɑ:f.tə/ το γέλιο [the laughter]
S: /'lɑ:f.tə/ also produces chemicals that help you to stay healthy so the next time...

Episode 51 (08:44-08:49):
S: ...with fresh fruit and /'veɪtəbɔlz/
T: /'vedʒtəblz/
S: /'vedʒtəblz/

Episode 52 (08:50-09:00):
S: low fat milk /'jʌɡʌrt/
T: /'jɒɡɜrt/
S: and /hɒl/
T: /həʊl/ wheat bread ψωμί ολικής αλέσεως [whole wheat bread]
T topic continuation - so in order to reduce stress...

Episode 53 (39:44-39:49):
S: πώς λέμε την υπηρεσία? [how do we call the service?]
T: service

S: service

Episode 54 (39:52-40:38):

S: my dad be service at the *στρατό* [army]

T: *α λοιπόν ξεκινάς με το* [ahh so you start with the] -ing my dad

S: having my playstation with loads of junk food to eat for all night long

T: *αλλά ήβρα σου το παράδειγμα* [but I found you the example] my father being on duty

T topic continuation - what can keep you awake?

Episode 55 (43:50-43:53):

S: /briθ/

T: /bri:ð/ *όχι* [no] /briθ/ /bri:ð/

T topic continuation - T continues the exercise, laugh you know what this means...

Episode 56 (44:00-44:10):

S1: /'lɔtɚ/

T: /'lɑ:ftə/ be careful

S1: /'lɑ:ftə/

S2: /'lɑ:ftə/

Episode 57 (44:56-45:18):

S: about his advice

T: *ενδιαφέρεται για τη συμβουλή του?* [he cares about his advice?]

S: *έν το ξέρω έν μου έρκεται* [I don't know it I can't remember it]

T: George chooses to buy trendy clothes because he cares about the way he looks

S: ahh his appearance

Episode 58 (47:57-48:02):

S: fresh /'vegetəbɔlz/

T: /'vedʒtəblz/ be careful George

S: /'vedʒtəblz/

Episode 59 (57:15-57:32):

T: this is our body's *είναι του σώματος μας* [is our body's] the control centre

S: /brɪn/

T: /breɪn/

T topic continuation - *και* [and] throat (.) close your books

SESSION 4 (B1)

Episode 60 (18:15-18:21):

S: on thousand seven

T: one thousand

S: one thousand seven hundred tons of /stɪl/

Episode 61 (18:17-18:31):

S: one thousand seven hundred tons of /stɪl/

T: /sti:l/ *μέταλλο* [steel]

S: had been *έν αθυμούμαι κύριε* [I don't remember sir]

T: had *είμαστε στο* [we are at the] passive voice *του* [of] past perfect

S: used

Episode 62 (22:20-22:38):

S: it's said to be one of the

T: *εν όπως το* [It is like] *suppose* you were supposed to help me *λέγεται ότι τούτα τα ρήματα θέλουν ρήμα απλό μετά* [it is said that these verbs want a simple verb after them]

T topic continuation - moving on to the next...

SESSION 5 (B1)

Episode 63 (06:22-07:20):

S: Beth found him at animal rescue centre he had been treated eh

T: *του έχουν συμπεριφερθεί είναι* [he had been treated is] passive voice

S: he had been treated eh

T: *πώς; Δαμέ απαντάς την ερώτηση πώς του έχουν συμπεριφερθεί* [how? Here you answer the question of how he had been treated]

S: worse

T: *χειρότερα απο ποιόν; Λέει απο ποιόν άλλο;* [worse than who? Does it say from who else?] *Για να βάλουμε* [to use] worse *πρέπει να συγκρίνει με κάποιον άλλο* [it needs to compare with someone else]

S: *ναι με το πρώτο του* [yes with his first] owner

T: *θέλουμε επίρρημα* [we want an adverb]

S: badly

Episode 64 (16:46-17:24):

S: Our new furniture is going to deliver deliver delivering

T: *θα παραδωθούν* [they will be delivered] OK? *Αυτός θα κάμει κάτι τούτο θα γίνει* (.) *άρα εγώ θέλω τα έπιπλα μας να παραδωθούν* [he will do something this will happen (.) so I want our furniture to be delivered] our furniture? *Πώς θα γίνει στο* [how will this be in the] passive voice?

S: Our furniture is going to be delivered tomorrow

Episode 65 (19:16-19:25):

S: It will be /'rɪlaɪzd/

T: /rɪ'li:st/ *θα βγεί σε κυκλοφορία* [it will be released]

T topic continuation- This is known *μετά που τούτες τις λεξούλες τι βάζουμε;* [after these words what do we use?]

Episode 66 (21:18-21:45):

S: according to the notice the tennis tournament is going not to be held until the end of June

T: no no

S: is going to be held?

T: *πώς θα γίνει άρνηση δαμέ; Απλά είναι θέμα μορφής δαμέ έν χρειάζεται να σκεφτείς κάτι* [how will this become a negative here? It is simply a matter of form you don't need to think of anything]

S: isn't going to be held

Episode 67 (36:13-36:20):

S: I'm gonna say to you

T: I'm going to

S: I'm going to say to you so I can get your advice

Episode 68 (36:23-36:36):

S: at 1st of April

T: on

S: on 1st of April the FLL competition is is? Πώς ένι? Ασπούμεν έννα γίνει [how is it? Let's say it will happen]

Episode 69 (36:28-36:53):

S: on 1st of April the FLL competition is is? Πώς ένι? Ασπούμεν έννα γίνει [how is it? Let's say it will happen]

T: will be held

S: will be held but on the other hand my team Ολυμπιακός Πειραιώς [Olympiacos Piraeus] will go to Αγία Νάπα [Ayia Napa] for the παγκύπριο [pancyprian]

Episode 70 (36:41-37:01):

S: will be held but on the other hand my team Ολυμπιακός Πειραιώς [Olympiacos Piraeus] will go to Αγία Νάπα [Ayia Napa] for the παγκύπριο [pancyprian]

T: pancyprian

S: pancyprian tournament of football...

Episode 71 (39:21-39:44):

S: on the other hand you may must be go

T: ε ή [eh either] may ή [or] must πρέπει να βάλεις [you must use]

S: you may ε τι να πώ για το [eh what should I say about] may you may go?

T: you may decide to go

S: you may decide to go in the FLL because it's your first year and I think you're important for your team

Episode 72 (40:18-40:26):

S: ...and if you... πώς λέμε το επιλέξεις; [how do we say you choose?]

T: choose

S: if you choose to play football please just don't be the goalkeeper

Episode 73 (40:28-40:40):

S: if you want to say to you what you must do

T: το σωστό είναι [the right one is] If I were you I would

S: α ναι [ahh yes] If I were you ναι [yes]

SESSION 6 (B1)

Episode 74 (02:52-03:08):

S: (for Lionel Messi) sport is football nationality is Argentina

T: Argentinian

S: huh?

T: Argentinian the country is Argentina Jacob ok?

T topic continuation - addresses other student to continue

Episode 75 (03:12-03:27):

S1: the USA (for nationality)

S2: American

T: American

S1: American?

Episode 76 (05:24-05:38):

S: who had a positive /Λ'ti:ted/

T: /'æti:tju:d/

S: towards the problem

Episode 77 (05:38-05:46):

T: what does positive attitude mean?

S: I don't know sure

T: for sure

T topic continuation - yes so if you're pessimistic

Episode 78 (10:46-10:50):

S: and what about his /heit/?

T: /hait/ *έν το ύψος* [it's the height]

S: /hait/

Episode 79 (10:52-11:01):

S: where the /'Λverai/ *κύριε τι είναι το* [sir what's the] /'Λverai/ ?

T: /'ævərɪdʒ/ *το μέσο* [the average]

S: eh height of European professional football

Episode 80 (11:02-11:12):

S: one eighteen

T: one point

S: one point eighteen one meters and one point sixty nine meters

Episode 81 (12:31-12:50):

S: if Messi go to Barcelona eh he will get a many money

T: yes he would get a lot of money if he went to Barcelona you're right

T topic continuation - but I have a question why did they agree?

Episode 82 (17:45-17:50):

S: I've always admired /mɪhə'ɪl/ Phelps

T: Michael Phelps

S: Michael Phelps and when I heard about...

Episode 83 (34:12-34:48):

S: I love school if my friends don't be there I will die

T: I didn't hear you if your friends are not at school you would?

S: I would die

Episode 84 (36:26-36:32):

S: I like more the football because eh

T: you like football more you said?

S: yes

Episode 85 (39:05-39:16):

S: ... and he have

T: he has yes?

S: and he has the most powerful foot on football history

Episode 86 (47:57-48:09):

T: you want to complain (.) *να διαμαρτηρηθείς* [to complain] to make a?

S: /kɒmp'leɪʃn/

T: /kəm'pleɪnt/ *παράπονο* [complaint]

S: huh?

Episode 87 (47:57-48:09):

S: at the London 2012 Olympics athletes compete

T: competed

S: competed

SESSION 7 (B1)

Episode 88 (09:47-10:04):

T: Messi (fill the gap) FC Barcelona?

S: bit

T: *ενίκησε την Barcelona μόνος του? Ο Messi ενίκησε την?* [did he bit Barcelona alone?

Messi bit it?]

S: joined

Episode 89 (11:35-12:33):

T: Brazil (fill the gap) the Olympics

S: set

T: set a record *σημαίνει κάμνουν καινούργιο* [means they make a new] record

S: set in

T: *τζίνο για ταινίες* [that one is for films] the film was set in London *δαμέ λέει σου όταν κάμνεις ένα διαγωνισμό* [here it tells you when you hold a contest] or if you (.) missing word an event (.) it starts with an h

S: catch?

T: *ποιό?* [what?]

S: hold

T: Brazil held the Olympics

Episode 90 (13:34-13:38):

S: /bɔns/

T: to /baɔns/ the ball? Right

T topic continuation - talks to another student about a word

Episode 91 (16:03-16:11):

S: I can learn new vocabulary at in? English

T: in English

S: at no time at all

Episode 92 (17:20-17:40):

S: at the end of 18 lots of teenagers in Cyprus waste time for to be soldiers

T: bravo G. excellent example *αλλά εκεί μετά το* [just there after the] waste time being soldiers

Other student topic continuation - asks student to explain what he said

Episode 93 (40:48-40:55):

M: we will use the indoor pool if the weather don't

T1: uh uh

M: doesn't improve

Episode 94 (41:35-43:47):

S: If I will came

T: *Παναγία μου* [Virgin Mary] will came

S: If I will come

T: *ένας κανόνας μετά το* [one rule after] will *θέλει ρήμα απλό ο πρώτος* [it needs a simple verb the first] conditional *λέει* [it says] if plus simple present *εάν πάω* [if I go]

S: If I will come

T: *άτε πάλε με το θα* [come on again with will] if plus simple present *και απ'την άλλη μεριά* [and on the other side] will

S: If I don't didn't

T: *γιατί να βάλεις* [why put] didn't *σκέφτου με το πάω αργοπορημένος* (.) *ο προπονητής* [think with going late (.) the coach]

S: If I don't

T: *έν χρειάζεται το* [you don't need] don't *αν πάω* [if I go]

S: If I come late for practice the coach will not let me play

SESSION 8 (B1):

Episode 95 (09:02-09:16):

S: I will help you in the test

T: with the test

S: with the test as long as you give me some big toys

Episode 96 (09:28-09:45):

S: I will be the delivery guy for you as long as give to me 10 euros

T: excellent as long as you give me *μετά από το* [after the] as long as *τούτες τις προτάσεις εδώ* (.) *ξεκινά καινούργια πρόταση* [these sentences here (.) it starts a new sentence] as long as you

T topic continuation – *λοιπόν είμαστε εντάξει με τους* [so are we OK with the] temporals?

Episode 97 (13:06-13:22):

S: If I won the lottery *είπαμε* [we said] past simple *και μετά;* [and then?] after

T: if past simple *το αποτέλεσμα του να κερδίσεις* [the result of winning] would *ή* [or] could *ή* [or] might *που είναι το ίδιο πράγμα και ρήμα απλό* [which is the same thing and simple verb]

S: If I won the lottery I would go on a trip

Episode 98 (13:31-14:19):

S: If I won the lottery I would make my own pirol show

T: wait G what do you mean?

S: *έχει στην Αυστραλία ένα πράγμα που πληρώνεις και πηγαίνεις ένα τόπο και σύρνουν πυροτεχνήματα* [there's a thing in Australia where you pay and you go to a place and they throw fireworks]

T: *άρα* [so] I would go to that show

S: *όϊ να πήαινα* (.) *να έκαμνα δικό μου να γίνω διαχειριστής* [not to go there (.) I would create my own (.) to become the administrator]

T: OK you hold an event *διοργανώνεις* [hold] you hold a show *ή* [or] you organise a show *ντάξει?* [OK?]

T topic continuation - T addresses other student to continue with the exercise

Episode 99 (14:34-14:49):

S: if I won the match I will cheer

T: I would

S: I would cheer

Episode 100 (17:02-17:11):

S: If I hadn't eaten that junk food I would I would not be

T: *ζαναπέτο* [say it again]

S: I wouldn't have been so fat

Episode 101 (17:29-18:06):

S: if I had won the lottery

T: *οἱ ἐν κολλά τούτο (.) γιατί ο τρίτος (υποθετικός) μιλάς για κάτι που είχες την ευκαιρία να κάμεις και ἐν το ἐκάμες και τωρά μετανιώνεις το* [no this isn't right (.) because the third (conditional) talks about something that you had the chance to do and you didn't do it and now you regret it]

S: if I had played the lotto I would have win

T: I could have won bravo *θα μπορούσα να κερδίσω* [I could have won]

T topic continuation - T addresses other student

Episode 102 (18:07-18:23):

S: If I had kicked the ball in my neighbour house *ε ἐν μου ἐρκεται* [eh I can't remember it]

T: you would have broken the window maybe

S: *ναι* [yes]

Episode 103 (20:57-21:03):

S: when the Icarus make the wings

T: made

S: made the wings

Episode 104 (21:12-21:18):

S: and if I die I don't want to die too

T: I don't want you to die with me

S: *ναι* [yes]

Episode 105 (21:35-21:42):

S: Icarus go

T: *οἱ* [no] go *δεύτερη στήλη είπαμε* [second column we said]

S: went near to the sun

Episode 106 (21:42-21:46):

S: went near to the sun

T: yes close to the sun

S: close to the sun

Episode 107 (21:48-22:10):

S: and then Icarus *στον ἀέρα* [to the air]

T: *τι ἐκάμε;* [what did he do?] His wings?

S: his wings made in flames

T: got burnt

S: got burnt from the sun and the Icarus fell over I think

Episode 108 (22:05-22:21):

S: got burnt from the sun and the Icarus fell over I think

T: he did what? He?

S: fell over

T: fell
S: fell in the sea

Episode 109 (27:33-27:56):

S: once

T: *όϊ* [no]

S: *όταν* [when]

T: the moment that the job interview finishes *τη στιγμή που θα τελειώσει* [the moment that it finishes]

T topic continuation - T explains the rules

Episode 110 (30:09-30:18):

T: after *ή* [or] by the time you add the flour and sugar mix all the ingredients together?

S: after

T: wait *το* [the] after *σημαίνει μετά που θα το κάμεις τούτο πρέπει να κάμεις τούτο* [means after you do this you have to do this]

S: oh by the time

Episode 111 (31:27-31:37):

T: until *ή* [or] by the time the match ends the players will be tired?

S: until

T: *δηλαδή ούλλη τζίνη την ώρα εννάνε κουρασμένοι μέχρι να τελιώσει;* [that is all the time they'll be tired until it finishes?]

S: *όϊ όταν τελιώνει* [no when it finishes]

T: *η στιγμή* [by the time] by the time

T topic continuation - T allows the students to have a water break

Episode 112 (35:23-35:36):

S: I could have /m'stru:/

T: I could have /ɪntrə'dju:st/ you

S: /ɪntrə'dju:st/ you to my boyfriend if you had arrived a bit earlier

Episode 113 (36:35-37:22):

S: didn't

T: present simple present simple if we boil the water at 100 degrees plants don't grow if they don't get...

T topic continuation - T continues with the exercise

Episode 114 (38:13-38:27):

S: a lot of ads came *που τζίντο πράμα* [from that thing]

T: in front of the screen in front of the glass

S: *ναι* [yes] and he accidentally hit a man

Episode 115 (40:30-40:41):

S: in fact mustn't go out

T: oh oh

S: don't go out

Episode 116 (41:10-42:08):

S: when you will go to the school

T: *όχι όχι χρονικός σύνδεσμος (.) μετά τι θέλει;* [no no time conjunction (.) what does it need next?]

S: when you will go to school or work how your day spends

T: no no

S: *γιατί κύριε;* [why sir?]

T: *είπαμε οι* [we said the] temporals *που ξεκινούν με το* [that start with] when *το* [the] as soon as *το* [the] as long as *στο ένα κομμάτι έχουν* [at one part they have] present simple *και στην κύρια πρόταση* [and in the main sentence] will *όπως στον πρώτο* [like the first] conditional + T translates the initial sentence

T topic continuation - T addresses other student

Episode 117 (43:55-44:02):

T: if I have asked her *αν την ρωτούσα θα ερχόταν στο* [if I have asked her she would have come to the] cinema

S: would come?

T: *Γ. εν ο τρίτος υποθετικός για κάτι που δεν έγινε και θα γινόταν* (.) [G. it's the third conditional for something that didn't happen and it would have happened] would have come

T topic continuation - T continues with grammatical rules related to the error

Episode 118 (44:25-45:02):

T: if I were older?

S: eh I will came

T: *είπες* [did you say] I will? *Όχι Μ. μου τούτος είναι ο δεύτερος* [no M. this is the second] if past simple (.) if I were you *αν ήμουν εγώ* [if I were you] I would go (.) *δίνω συμβουλές* [I give advice] advice

S: *κύριε εν λάθος το will?* [sir is will wrong?]

T: *Ναι γιατί το* [yes because] will *μπαίνει στον πρώτο υποθετικό για κάτι που θα γίνει* [goes in the first conditional for something that will happen] if it rains I will stay home (.) *δαμέ μιλά για κάτι που μπορεί να γίνει* [here it talks about something that might happen]

T topic continuation - T continues the exercise

Episode 119 (45:54-46:45):

S: if the coach choose

T: *λοιπόν τούτο για κάτι που θα γινόταν θα κερδίζαμε* (.) *με ποιά μοιάζει τούτο;* [so this one is for something that would have happened we would have won (.) which one is similar to this?] Lisa would have come to the city if I have asked (.) we would have won if the coach?

S: would? Had?

T: had

S: if the coach has *τρίτη στήλη* [third column]

T: had

S: had

Episode 120 (47:15-47:22):

T: I missing word a tattoo if mum agreed to let me (.) *δαμέ έχω* [here I have] if past simple *άρα το άλλο μέρος το αποτέλεσμα* (.) *θα έκαμνα* [so the other part is the result (.) I would get]

S: I would have gotten

T: *όχι* [no]

S: I would got eh get

Episode 121 (49:33-49:47):

T: if Lucy wants present simple a good tablet *θα της κοστίσει στο μέλλον* [it will cost her in the future]

S1: it would cost her

T: wants if present simple *μιλάμε για το μέλλον* [we talk about the future]

S2: it will cost her?

Episode 122 (52:46-53:21):

S: if Lucy hadn't bought a tablet

T: *δαμέ μιλά για το μέλλον παρελθόν ή το τωρά;* [here does it talk about the future the past or the present?]

S: *το παρελθόν* [the past]

T: *και τι λέει; Αν δεν; Αν δεν αγόραζε το* [and what does it say? If not? If she didn't buy the] tablet *τι θα γινόταν; Αν δεν το αγόραζε έννα πλήρωνε πολλά* [what would have happened? If she didn't buy it she would have paid a lot]

S: she would have paid a lot

Episode 123 (55:33-55:46):

S: if I had more free time I wouldn't have given up

T: *όχι έκαμες λάθος τωρά* [no you have made a mistake now]

S: I wouldn't give up on my dreams and I would keep sleeping

SESSION 9 (B1)

Episode 124 (04:35-04:50):

S1: we need to be at the airport by midday tomorrow if we take off

T: *να απογειωθούμε;* [to set off?]

S2: set off

Episode 125 (05:56-06:02):

T: I am in?

S: hurry

T: I am in a hurry

T topic continuation - T continues with the exercise

Episode 126 (22:10-22:28):

S: I know this sport is growing in popularity in some people but I was a bit *τι σημαίνει* [what does it mean] generosity *κύριε* [sir]?

T: I was I am *θέλει επίθετο* [it needs an adjective]

S: anxious about sailing with strangers

Episode 127 (22:35-23:23):

S: there were similars between us

T: *υπήρχαν (.) θέλουμε πράγμα ουσιαστικό (.) υπήρχαν τι; Όι επίθετο* [there were (.) we need a thing a noun (.) there were what? Not an adjective]

S: a general?

T: *μεταξύ μας (.) υπήρχαν τι;* [between us (.) there were what?]

S: similar

T: similar? *Γ. γιατί να βάλεις επίθετο; Θα πεις ότι κάτι είναι* [G. why use an adjective?

you will say that something is] similar (.) this book is similar to the last one we had (.)

θέλει [it wants] am is are *ή* [or] was were (.) *δαμέ λέει για κάτι υπήρχε κάτι (.) θέλει* [here it says that there was something (.) it wants] noun

S: *ένιξερω κύριε πως γίνεται τζίνη η λέξη* [I don't know how this word changes sir]

T: similarities

T topic continuation – *υπάρχουν ομοιότητες μεταξύ μας (.)* [there are similarities between us] despite the fact that we are different...

Episode 128 (27:47-27:54):

S: and sometimes we do gymnastic things like *κάμψεις* [push ups]

T: push ups

S: push ups

Episode 129 (29:13-29:41):

S: my class play team games

T: you play team games you mean

S: *κύριε πώς λέμε τον γυμναστή;* [sir how do we call the gym teacher?]

T: gym teacher

S: my class plays team games but my gym teacher I tell him that I want to do gymnastics on my own

SESSION 10 (B1)

Episode 130 (02:34-02:49):

S: because we must play *ε πώς να το πώ; Τάχα μπροστά πίσω θέσεις* [eh how do I say this? Supposedly front back positions]

T: there are some rules that you need to follow? OK

T topic continuation - T continues with the exercise

Episode 131 (04:17-04:40):

S: you must wear a *μποξέράκι* [boxer] and glasses

T: by boxer do you mean a bathing suit? *Μαγιό;* [bathing suit?]

S: *ναι* [yes]

Episode 132 (05:56-06:05):

S: If you run again and again

T: again and again?

S: if you're running all the time

Episode 133 (08:59-09:13):

S: wall climbing because it has an equipment

T: yes you have to buy expensive equipment

S: and cycling...

Episode 134 (09:18-09:31):

S: because you must have a good *κράνος* [helmet]

T: helmet

S: helmet and the helmet is very expensive

Episode 135 (12:49-13:02):

S: if you sit very good

T: if you?

S: if you sit good

T: if you tie up yourself properly

T topic continuation - T continues

Episode 136 (13:03-13:13):

S: the woman has equipment that if he

T: if she falls

S: if she falls eh the equipment it will save him

Episode 137 (13:10-13:20):

S: if she falls eh the equipment it will save him

T: yes the equipment will save her

S: I think tennis because...

Episode 138 (14:03-14:23):

S: if the ball hit you in your eyes you will the eyes will fall down

T: if somebody throws the ball with strength maybe that will hurt you

S: yes

Episode 139 (20:15-20:54):

S: tennis is very difficult because you need a professional coach to learn you

T: to learn you?

S: *ναι* [yes]

T: are you sure?

S: yes

T: I am a teacher but I learn you? I teach you

S: must learn it with a professional coach

T: yes but the coach teaches that sport to you

S: ah you need a professional coach to learn tennis a professional coach to teach you

Episode 140 (28:11-28:38):

S: I think tennis is a good idea because it's difficult but it's very fun *κύριε πώς λέμε τα μόνα πράγματα που κρατάς*; [sir how do I say the only things that you hold?]

T: the only things you have to carry with you

S: the only things you have to carry with you is the ball and the racket

Episode 141 (24:40-28:52):

S: and you /het/ the ball

T: you /hit/

S: you /hit/

Episode 142 (30:24-30:36):

T: cycling can keep you fit or keep in form?

S: keep in form

T: keep fit *να μείνεις σε φόρμα* [keep fit] *ντάξει στα Ελληνικά* [OK in Greek] we would say this but...

T topic continuation

Episode 143 (45:59-46:15):

S1: he will stole the home

T: you don't steal a house there's another phrase for it

S2: break a house

SESSION 11 (B1)

Episode 144 (03:21-03:52):

S: the last exercise on the Maths test was the harder

T: OK doing the last exercise on the maths test was the hardest part *ή μπορείς να πείς* [or you can say] the hardest part on the maths...

T topic continuation - moving on to the second one...

Episode 145 (10:12-10:56):

S: if George go to the

T: goes? flies by plane?

S: *ναι τάχα να μπει μέσα στο αεροπλάνο* [yes supposedly to get in the aeroplane]

T: flies by plane

S: flies by plane

Episode 146 (13:17-13:46):

S: I open my eyes and I see my dad *να βαστά ψεύτικο μαχαίρι* [to hold a fake knife]

T: he frightens you by holding a knife in front of you

S: It's seven and thirty and *το κουδούνι* [the ring bell]

T: the bell the ring bell

S: rings at half past thirty

Episode 147 (18:51-19:21):

S: that is wrong because the people who is

T: who are what? Guilty?

S: *τζίνοι που σηκώνονται πάνω* [those who stand up]

T: ah suspects *ύποπτοι* [suspects]

S: who are suspect

T: suspects

S: will pay the people

Episode 148 (19:21-19:38):

S: they will bribe them to say advantages to there

T: I understand what you're saying to lie to the judge excellent

T topic continuation - let's read the next one...

Episode 149 (21:26-21:35):

S: /te/ /de'tektik/

T: /dr'tektiv/ can you say it out loud?

S: /di'tektiv/

Episode 150 (26:40-26:53):

T: why should we try on clothes before we buy them?

S: because we must see if it fits us

T: great if they fit us or if they look good on us

T topic continuation – *πώς το λέμε αυτό το* [how do we say that] look good on us (.) it starts with an s

SESSION 12 (B1)

Episode 151 (05:28-05:35):

S: all the /'braidezmedz/

T: /'braidzmeidz/

S: ah /'braidzmeidz/ will have theirs photos taken by a professional photographer

Episode 152 (06:26-06:47):

S: there is lots of bad things like broken things or blood on the windows and lots of other things

T: so yes you're right there are lots of things that are broken

T topic continuation - so that lady there...

Episode 153 (08:38-08:51):

S: hasn't have

T: no

S: hasn't had a new coffee machine

Episode 154 (09:22-09:52):

S: Harry getting the walls painted by a professional painter

T: umm

S: was getting

T: *όι* [no]

S: Harry is getting the walls painted by.....

Episode 155 (09:58-10:51):

S: should have gotten

T: *γιατί* [why] should have gotten *μιλούμε για το παρελθόν*; [are we talking about the past?] *το* [the] should have *τρίτη στήλη έν για κάτι που μετανιώνω για το παρελθόν* [third column is for something that I regret about the past]

S: *θα πρέπει να τα έχει καθαρισμένα πριν να ανοίξει* [he will have to have them cleaned before he opens]

T: *άρα μιλά για το μέλλον (.) ποιό μιλά για το μέλλον*; [so it talks about the future (.) which one talks about the future?]

S: will

T1: *ναι* [yes]

S: will get the windows cleaned

Episode 156 (14:52-15:42):

S: my computer isn't working properly if I were you I would have had it fixed

T: have someone *ρήμα απλό* [simple verb] *ή* [or] get someone *ρήμα απλό* [simple verb]

S: If I were you I would had a technician looking

T: are you sure is looking? Have somebody *ρήμα απλό* [simple verb]

S: look

Episode 157 (17:47-17:52):

S: some students have great /'grafiti/

T: /grə'fi:ti/

S: /grə'fi:ti/

Episode 158 (18:11-19:51):

S1: the head teacher should will have washed the walls?

T: *το ρήμα απλό εν το* [simple verb is] will *δαμέ*; [here?] *το* [the] have *στην απλή του μορφή*; [in its simple form?]

S1: should had?

T: should had *είπες μου*; [you told me?] *το* [the] have *πώς θα αλλάξει δίπλα που το* [how will it change next to] should?

S1: has

T: *το* [the] has *έν ρήμα απλό για να μπει μετά το* [is (has) a simple verb to be placed after] should?

S1: *ε ποιό έν το ρήμα απλό;* [eh which one is the simple verb?]

S2: have

Episode 159 (22:55-23:05):

S: should go to the sales person wrap

T: are you sure this is how it is formed?

S: to wrap

Episode 160 (26:04-26:59):

S1: we are have we are got

T: present continuous am is are plus -ing *άρα το* [so the] have (.) *πώς θα αλλάξει;* [how will it (have) change?] we are?

S1: getting

T: *ναι το* [yes the] is building *έν το ρήμα* [is the verb]

S1: we are building by a

T: we are having

S2: a new kitchen

S: made

Episode 161 (34:44-34:52):

S1: I will get Tom looked the dog while we are away

T: *έτσι λέει ο κανόνας;* [is that what the rule says?]

S2: to look

S1: to look

SESSION 13 (B1)

Episode 162 (01:46-01:50):

S: our /'sti:lists/

T: /'stairlists/

S: /'stairlists/ cut style and colour hair

Episode 163 (03:31-03:40):

S: *πώς λέμε το νύχι κύριε;* [how do we say the nail sir?]

T: nail

S: the nail which has colour?

Episode 164 (04:04-04:17):

S: you can have them to

T: *όχι* [no] be careful

S: you can have them cut your hair

Episode 165 (15:37-15:43):

S: I'll get a *πώς έν ο σολομός στα Αγγλικά κύριε;* [how is the salmon in English sir?]

T: salmon

S: salmon salad

Episode 166 (24:02-24:06):

S: something *κινείται* [is moving] in the ground

T: something is moving

S: something is moving

Episode 167 (38:47-38:52):

S: /'fʌrnlɪʃʌrs/

T: /'fɜːnɪtʃər/ *δεν μπορείς να πείς πληθυντικό* [you can't say this in plural]

T topic continuation - T continues

Episode 168 (57:00-57:19):

S: my uncle has a *μπυραρία* [pub]

T: brewery or a pub

S: yes and he has a big console

Episode 169 (57:27-57:32):

S: are Friday

T: on Fridays?

S: Fridays and Saturdays

Episode 170 (57:49-57:57):

S: now he works at a *πεντάστερο ξενοδοχείο* [five star hotel]

T: at a five star hotel

S: yes

Episode 171 (58:09-58:26):

S: ... and he give me the console

T: oh he gave it to you as a present

S: because I have a big *μεγάφωνο* [speakers]

T: speakers

S: *ντάξει βασικά* [OK basically] speakers *εννοώ τα μικρά* [I mean the small ones]

SESSION 14 (B1)

Episode 172 (01:19-01:28):

S: she seems *έν της αρέσκουν* [she doesn't like them]

T: I think she seems shocked

S: *ναι* [yes]

Episode 173 (06:28-07:05):

S: I bought a jean

T: I bought a pair of jeans *ναι*; [yes?]

S: *εξέχασα το φορώ* [I forgot wear]

T: wear

S: I bought a pair of jeans and when I wear them for the first time they got torned

Episode 174 (07:00-07:12):

S: I bought a pair of jeans and when I wear them for the first time they got torned

T: so when you tried to wear it for the first time it got torn so you had to take it back

T topic continuation - so stop and return which of the above...

Episode 175 (18:23-18:42):

S: she gave me a second chance and let me work in a kitchen in

T: *έχει ένα άτομο μετά άρα*; [it has a person afterwards so?]

S: control?

T: *στη θέση τζίνου του ατόμου* [in place of that person]

S: ahh in place of the person who had left

Episode 176 (29:35-29:49):

S: do you know my little brother eat a small *κουνούπι* [mosquito]

T: he ate what?

S: small *κουνούπι* [mosquito]

T: mosquito?

T topic continuation - your brother is a bit crazy...

Episode 177 (47:34-47:54):

S: at Linopetra I find a

T: you found?

S: an old *σκούπα* [broom]

T: broom

T topic continuation - OK *άλλη λέξη που χρησιμοποιείται...* [another word that is used...]

Episode 178 (56:42-56:50):

S: for /vns/

T: for /wʌns/ *έστω για μια φορά* [at least for once]

T topic continuation - *βλέπετε ρήμα λέω τι ...* [you see (with) the verb I'm saying what...]

Episode 179 (59:59-1:00:13):

S: *κύριε πως έννα πούμε (.) αμαν είσαι συλλέκτης;* [sir how do we say (.) when you are a collector?]

T: collector

T topic continuation - *η συλλογή* [the collection] I have a big collection of...

Episode 180 (1:04:26-1:04:30):

S: you have to call from

T: to make a reservation

S: to make a reservation

Episode 181 (1:04:37-1:04:44):

S: /'reserveɪt/

T: /rɪ'zɜ:v/ a table

T topic continuation - *αν θέλετε γράψετε το* [if you want write it]

SESSION 15 (B1)

Episode 182 (04:08-04:16):

S: I want to give some support in my friend J

T: to my friend J

S: to my friend J with his lessons

Episode 183 (10:30-10:37):

S: it was like break times

T: it was like?

S: break times break time

Episode 184 (13:57-14:07):

S: kirie /'ʌʃɔretli/ *έν η ακρίβεια;* [is accuracy?]

T: *άκου πως το λέουν* [listen how they say this] /'ækjərətli/

T topic continuation – *καταρχήν προσέξτε το* [firstly be careful with] accurately (.)
είναι επίρρημα... [it is an adverb...]

Episode 185 (32:55-33:11):

S: because he see the London with the helicopter

T: I cannot hear you he saw what?

S: the London

T: ah he saw London yes?

S: eh with helicopter at fifty minutes and he drew it

Episode 186 (33:20-33:30):

S: /'lɒkʊ'rɪtli/

T: *Παναγία μου* [Virgin Mary] /'ækjərətli/

T topic continuation – *ε ντάξει ένταλωσ κάμνεις έτσι έννεν;* [eh OK how do you react like that isn't it?]

Episode 187 (34:06-34:14):

S: a man with /'ekstrə'ɔrdɪnəri/

T: /'ɪk'strɔ:dnri/

S: /'ɪk'strɔ:dnri/ talent and a photographic memory

Episode 188 (35:36-35:47):

S: /'ɒtɪstɪk/

T: /ɔ:'tɪstɪk/

T topic continuation - autistic people are the people who...

Episode 189 (38:16-38:21):

S: /'enkʊraɪf/

T: /ɪn'kɑrɪdʒ/

S: /ɪn'kɑrɪdʒ/ Steven to develop his artistic talent

Episode 190 (38:46-38:51):

S: /'lɒkʊrɪt/

T: /'ækjərət/

S: /'ækjərət/ sketch begun attracting attention

Episode 191 (40:20-40:42):

S1: one thousand nine eight

T: *όπα πως είπαμε ότι χωρίζουμε τις ημερομηνίες;* [opa how did we say that we split the dates?]

S1: one thousand

T: *όϊ σε δύο μέρη* [no in two parts]

S2: nineteen eighty seven

S1: nineteen eighty seven when he has just turned...

Episode 192 (43:58-44:01):

S: /bref/ flight

T: /bri:f/ flight *σύντομη πτήση* [brief flight]

S: ahh

Episode 193 (47:20-47:25):

S: because he was /ɔ:'trʌst/

T: /ɔ: 'tɪstɪk/

S: /ɔ: 'tɪstɪk/

Episode 194 (1:04-29-1:04:50):

S: I think I'm very good at football and I don't like that *ακόμη* [anymore]

T: you don't like that anymore

T topic continuation - because you already know and you don't want to...

SESSION 16 (B1)

Episode 195 (02:06--2:16):

S: I think the more intelligent man in the world

T: the most

S: the most intelligent man in the world is Steven Howkins

Episode 196 (03:01-03:25):

S: I have a difficulty with history because my teacher *πώς έν το έκοψε μου τόσες μονάδες*; [how is it (in English) he cut me points?]

T: he took away points

S: he took away 0.75 for just one letter

Episode 197 (03:01-03:25):

S: I have difficulty with keep safe my brother while my mother

T: with keeping my brother safe bravo excellent

T topic continuation - *λοιπόν* [so] creativity...

Episode 198 (16:52-17:02):

S: when we see an argument

T: when we have an argument

S: when we have an argument everyone attract the attention

Episode 199 (17:02-17:11):

S: when we have an argument everyone attract the attention

T: we attract the attention of other

T topic continuation - *με το* [with] make an impression *κάμετε μια πρόταση* [make an utterance]

Episode 200 (17:47-18:13):

S: they made an impression on other people and maybe other people who are not great maybe punch him for feel good I don't know

T: for feeling good

S: *ναι* [yes]

Episode 201 (28:17-28:20):

T: Jane is usually very?

S: careless

T: Jane is usually very careful

T topic continuation - but this time because she made a few mistakes ...

Episode 202 (40:05-40:27):

T: I really enjoy studying English this year *κάτι που μπαίνει στην αρχή*; [something that goes at the beginning?]

S1: once and for all

T: *όχι* [no]

S2: all in all

T topic continuation - T1: all in all *σε γενικές γραμμές* [all in all] *το* [the] once and for all *δεν μπαίνει στην αρχή...* [is not placed at the beginning...]

SESSION 17 (B1)

Episode 203 (00:19-01:02):

S: if only there wouldn't be so many buildings in the neighbourhood

T: when we wish something was different *εύχομαι να μην;* [I wish there wasn't?] I wish there? *Όταν εύχεστε μια κατάσταση νάταν διαφορετική στο παρόν* [when you wish that a situation was different in the present] I wish there? *Χρησιμοποιείς;* [you use?]

S: hadn't been

T: *Όχι τζίνο έν για το παρελθόν* [no that's for the past] I wish there weren't

S: *Έν το κατάλαβα με τίποτε* [no way I understood this]

Episode 204 (01:14-01:20):

S: I wish to be a millionaire

T: I wish I was

S: I wish I was a millionaire

Episode 205 (05:10-05:31):

S: if only my Math teacher didn't be?

T: we cannot use such form *δεν μπορούμε να χρησιμοποιήσουμε τέτοιο πράμα στα Αγγλικά* (.) *έν υπάρχει* [we cannot use such a thing in English (.) it doesn't exist]

S: wouldn't be?

T: didn't give us

S: ah

Episode 206 (10:27-11:12):

S: I wish I wouldn't couldn't

T: *Εύχεσαι κάτι να μην έκαμνες στο παρελθόν ή να το έκαμνες χρησιμοποιώντας το* [you wish you didn't do something in the past or that you did it by using] wish plus?

S: could

T: past perfect *όπως το παράδειγμα* [like the example]

S: I wish I hadn't turned off the TV

Episode 207 (11:11-11:23):

S: if only the film hadn't be so scary

T: *η τρίτη στήλη του* [the third column of] be?

S: was

T: no

S: been

Episode 208 (12:33-12:49):

S: I wish I had woke up a bit

T: *σωστό το* [correct the] had *λάθος το* [wrong the] woke (.) had plus *τρίτη στήλη* [third column]

S: woken?

Episode 209 (15:24-16:05):

S: if only the waves be lower?

T: I'd like you to imagine yourself being at the beach you see that the waves are high I wish the waves? *Να μην ήταν;* [weren't?]

S: wouldn't be

T: *δεν μπορούν να σε ενοχλούν (.) εύχεται μια κατάσταση να ήταν διαφορετική (.) πώς θα πούμε εύχομαι να είχα λεφτά;* [they can't bother you (.) you wish that a situation was different (.) how will we say I wish I had money?]

S: I wish I had

T: *τι έν το* [what is] had? past simple *ποιο έν το* [which is the] past simple *του* [of] are? *Ποιο έν το παρελθόν του* [which is the past simple of] are? I wish the waves are?

S: had

T: no I wish the waves weren't *το παρελθόν του* [the past of] are *έν το* [is] were

T topic continuation – *μια χαρά τα είπες απλά να θυμάσαι...* [you did well just remember...]

Episode 210 (16:25-16:37):

S: I wish I could swim

T: no it's not swim

S: ah surf

Episode 211 (17:06-17:31):

S: if only my parents would bought for me

T: *οπα μετά που το οπα* after] can could may should must?

S: bare infinitive If only my parents would buy for me a new cell phone

Episode 212 (22:49-23:08):

S: actually I would rather went?

T: ahh

S: go

T: *α άκου με θα προτιμούσα να φάμε σουβλάκι πόψε* [ahh listen to me I would rather we eat skewer tonight] we'd rather eat *σουβλάκι* [skewer] tonight, teacher shows the correct answer on the board

T topic continuation - T continues with the exercise

Episode 213 (25:13-25:27):

S: he always makes me laughing

T: *α μετά που τούτα θέλουμε ρήμα απλό* [ahh after these we need a simple verb] laugh

S: *ρήμα απλό* [simple verb]

Episode 214 (26:04-26:24):

S: I'd rather you stop complaining?

T: *οί ένεν το* [no it's not] you (.) *που κάμνεις πρόβλημα για τα* [when you complain about the] mock tests *και λέω σου θα προτιμούσα να μεν έκαμνες τόσο πρόβλημα* [and I say that I'd rather you didn't complain so much] I'd rather you? Didn't *παιδιά* [guys]

S: *ήξερα το* [I knew it]

Episode 215 (26:59-27:08):

S: yes but he lets me to take it for a walk

T: *ρήμα απλό* [simple verb]

S: take it

Episode 216 (39:13-39:21):

S: I wish I was Puerto /'rɪkiæn/

T: Puerto/' rɪkən/

S: Puerto/' rɪkən/

Episode 217 (41:53-42:00):

S: I wish J could stop complaining about everything

T: *έχει ενόχληση (.) εγώ είμαι ενοχλημένος με τον Ιωάννη* [it has annoyance (.) I am annoyed with John]

S: would stop

Episode 218 (43:28-43:39):

S: mum didn't let me her motorcycle

T: didn't let me? *Τι να κάμω;* [what to do?]

S: borrow her motorcycle

Episode 219 (44:02-44:13):

S: Stella wishes to come to the wedding

T: no I'm sorry when we talk about the future something we would like to do?

S: would

T: could

S: could

Episode 220 (44:26-45:03):

S: You'd better to take

T: *οπα οπα τι θέλω;* [opa opa what do I want?]

S: bare infinitive you had better to

T: *ρήμα απλό* [simple verb]

S: you have?

T: you'd better take I'd better not forget...

T topic continuation - *το* [the] not forget *εδώ είναι ρήμα απλό* [here is a simple verb]

Episode 221 (46:08-46:53):

S: I wish I could answer about the questions for the Corealist great world theories the biggest galaxy in our dimension

T: could you please repeat that?

S: I wish I could answer about the questions for the Corealist great world theories the biggest galaxy in our dimension

T: OK it's really good effort but I wish I could have all the answers *μακάρι να είχα όλες τις απαντήσεις* [I wish I had all the answers]

T topic continuation – *πάμε στο επόμενο* [let's go to the next one]

Episode 222 (48:42-49:19):

S: I wish my parents wouldn't stop to give me money for visa

T: *έλα ξανά* [come again]

S: I wish my parents wouldn't stop to give me money for visa

T: *το* [the] wouldn't *μαζί με κάποιο άλλο πρόσωπο το χρησιμοποιούμε για να δείξουμε μια ενόχληση* [together with another person we use it to show annoyance]

S: *έν ενόχληση* [it's annoyance]

T: I wish my parents wouldn't stop giving me

T topic continuation - T addresses other student

Episode 223 (50:40-50:57):

S: I wish I hadn't given that exam

T: I wish I hadn't taken that exam yesterday

T topic continuation - T addresses other student

Episode 224 (54:37-55:06):

S: I wish I would have my parents with me

T: *είπαμε το* [we said that] *would έν για ενόχληση έν μπορείς να πεις* [is for annoyance you cannot say] I would *να σε ενοχλεί κάτι εσένα* [to annoy you something]

S: I wish I could have my parents with me

SESSION 18 (B1)

Episode 225 (01:45-01:56):

T: is he having fun?

S: I think yes because of the face

T: because of the?

S: face

T: because he is smiling

S: yes

Episode 226 (04:35-04:44):

T: he's holding a?

S: light

T: torch

S: torch *έννευ ο αναπτήρας*; [isn't the lighter?]

T: no *το φανάρι* [the torch] torch

T topic continuation - other student comments on the word

Episode 227 (09:33-09:42):

S: I've always been kind of /*Λnkʊ'mfɔrtvbɔl*/

T: /*Λn'kΛmftɔbl*/

S: /*Λn'kΛmftɔbl*/ in high places but I didn't want to say anything

Episode 228 (10:37-10:51):

S: I think he afraid of

T: he was afraid of?

S: uncomfortable

T: he was afraid of high places

T topic continuation - which type of field trip does Jason say...

Episode 229 (11:28-11:36):

S: in a small /*Λr'eΛ*/

T: /*'eəriə*/

S: with...keeps reading

Episode 230 (11:49-11:56):

S: the instructor uses hand /*'saɪlɪns*/

T: hand /*'signɔls*/ *σήματα με το χέρι* [hand signals]

S: hand /*'signɔls*/ to tell you what to do

Episode 231 (12:47-12:59):

G: some meters from the ground

T1: above the ground

T1 topic continuation - T addresses other student

Episode 232 (13:28-13:33):

S: even /θəυ/

T: even /ðəυ/

S: even /ðəυ/ (keeps reading)

Episode 233 (35:30-35:55):

T: I can't get over that?

S: that you cheated me

T: *δεν μπορώ να πιστέψω να* [I can't believe it yes] I can't get over that you cheated on me I can't get over that

S: G goes to America

T: went to America

S: went on USA and America and Africa without me

Episode 234 (39:05-39:10):

S: irresponsible

T: irresponsible

S: irresponsible

Episode 235 (39:15-39:23):

S: uncomplete

T: complete *ολοκληρωμένος* [complete] incomplete

T topic continuation - honest *ειλικρινής* [honest]...

Episode 236 (49:13-49:28):

S: but my parents didn't accept to me because we haven't got enough time

T: so they didn't let you why didn't they let you?

S: because of the time

Episode 237 (50:02-50:11):

S: this adrenaline I have near my body

T: you feel this adrenaline

S: yes everyday

Episode 238 (56:36-56:39):

T: where do you usually spend time with your friends?

S: at my neighbour

T: in my neighbourhood

S: yes

Episode 239 (56:40-56:46):

T: where do you usually hang out with your friends?

S: in the mall

T: at the mall

T topic continuation - ask out *το επόμενο σημαίνει* [the next one means]

Episode 240 (57:41-57:49):

S: in the past I asked out you

T: *οἷ το πρόσωπο θα μπει ανάμεσα στο* [no the person will be placed between] *ask και* [and] out

S: asked you out if you want to escape together

Episode 241 (1:04:06-1:04:55):

S1: thanks for ask out me

T: asking me over

S2: *έννεν* [isn't it] ask me out?

T: *όχι γιατί καλείς τον συγκεκριμένα σπíti σου είπαμε ότι το* [no because you invite him specifically we said that (with)] out *καλώ γενικά* [I invite generally]

S1: but my cousin from New York is in London and she is (pause)

T: until tomorrow *άρα έν μπορείς να πάεις μαζί του γιατί η ζάδερφη σου απο την Νέα Υόρκη;* [so you can't go with him because your cousin from New York?]

S1: stay over until tomorrow

T: she is staying over she is staying over

T topic continuation - other student continues

Episode 242 (1:05:06-1:05:13):

S: she come along

T: she can come along

S: she can come along if she wants to

Episode 243 (01:05:23-1:05:32):

S: I think my cousin would rather go out than stay over

T: stay in

S: stay in

Episode 244 (1:10:15-1:10:32):

S: the second time again?

T: around

S: I realised I couldn't stay on my fit so I didn't even try

SESSION 1 (B1+)

Episode 245 (08:31-08:45):

S: he's the /'feɪv/ /'feɪvθ/ *πως να το πώ;* [how do I say this?]

T: he's the /'feɪvərɪt/

S: he's the /'feɪvərɪt/ to win this match

Episode 246 (08:57-09:06):

S: the game which /rɪ'leɪtvɪli/ easy

T: /'relətɪvli/ easy *σχετικά* [relatively]

S: /'relətɪvli/ easy to pick up

Episode 247 (35:23-35:50):

S: consent

T: they want it really bad

S: desperately

Episode 248 (53:56-54:06):

S: virtual

T: something else
S: another word
T: it's not difficult and it's not complicated
S: or complex

Episode 249 (54:42-54:56):
S: mutual
T: we need a verb
S: going strong?
T: run to run to run businesses
T topic continuation - plant vegetables and ship goods...

Episode 250 (1:01:40-1:02:10):
S: he has a way
T: he gets what he wants? We have three left think about it
S: goes out
T: it's not that one
S: his own way

SESSION 2 (B1+)
Episode 251 (00:22-00:34):
S: pet seeker
T: pet seeker ok it's actually called dog walking walking the dog
T topic continuation - would you like to try this job?

SESSION 3 (B1+)
Episode 252 (04:10-05:23):
S: he could have he hadn't have to rush
T: σκέφτου λίγο τι έχουμε στην κύρια πρόταση στο ρήμα [think for a bit what we have in the main sentence at the verb]
S: would could ή [or] might?
T: έχει και άλλο μετά [there is more after that]
S: to had plus had plus past participle
T: yes
S: he had had
T: he wouldn't
S: he wouldn't had to rush
T: had
S: had had to rush

Episode 253 (07:34-08:00):
S: you would
T: έν άρνηση όμως [it's negative though]
S: you wouldn't have enjoy
T: enjoyed και τρίτη στήλη [and the third column?] If you?
A: were
T: αφού μετά το [but after] if θέλουμε τρίτη στήλη [we want the third column]
S: had been there

Episode 254 (09:02-10:13):

S: if Easter holidays are

T: σκέφτου την πρόταση τούτη (.) αν οι διακοπές του Πάσχα ήταν πιο πολλές ήταν να πήγαινα εξωτερικό (.) μιλά σου για κάτι γενικό τωρά ή το παρελθόν; [think about this sentence (.) if the Easter holidays were longer I would go abroad (.) does it talk about something general now or in the past?]

S: παρελθόν [the past]

T: άρα ποιός είναι δέ τη μορφή του [So which one is it? look at its form]

S: if the Easter holidays (long pause)

T: δέ το δεύτερο τι έχει μετά το [look at the second one what it has with] if

S: were

T: if the Easter holidays were longer?

S: I would go abroad

Episode 255 (13:41-13:46):

S: I would

T: no

S: I wish

Episode 256 (13:51-14:35):

S: I wish I weren't

T: σκέψου σωστά την άρνηση γενικά σε τζίνο το χρόνο τούτη εν η άρνηση του [think correctly about the general negative in that tense (.) this is the negative of] be η άρνηση η γενική σε τζίνο το χρόνο; [the general negative in that tense?]

S: didn't

T: I wish I didn't?

S: had

Episode 257 (18:00-18:34):

S: past simple

T: I wish I didn't?

S: have not

T: I didn't have a? Toothache

Topic continuation - other student asks a question

Episode 258 (19:14-20:05):

S: I wish I didn't (long pause)

T: ετσακώθηκα άρα; Μιλούμε για παρελθόν (.) τι ακολουθεί; [I got in a fight so? We talk about the past (.) what does it follow?]

S: past

T: past perfect άμαν εύχεσαι κάτι για το παρελθόν [for when you wish something about the past]

S: I wish I hadn't argued

Episode 259 (24:05-24:15):

S: I wish I could have more money

T: I wish I could have more money? Εύχομαι να μπορούσα να είχα; Εύχομαι να είχα; [I wish I could have? I wish I had?]

S: I had

Episode 260 (25:13-25:28):

S: speaking

T: *κάμει το ρήμα σου* [make your verb] past simple

S: spoke

Episode 261 (28:22-28:50):

S: I wish we hadn't bought

T: *άμαν εν δυσαρέσκεια για κάτι τωρά ή το μέλλον* [when it's a dissatisfaction about something present or in the future] present simple (.) *αν έν δυσαρέσκεια για κάτι που έγινε στο παρελθόν* [if it's a dissatisfaction about something that happened in the past] present perfect

S: I wish we didn't have a maths test tomorrow

Episode 262 (31:17-31:56):

S: they wouldn't have came

T: come came come

S: come unless

Episode 263 (32:03-32:40):

S: if I had more time

T: *όμως θέλω να προσέξεις τι να βάλεις με το* [but I want you to be careful what you will put with] if *έν ο τρίτος υποθετικός* [it's the third conditional]

S: if I had more

T: if I had had *επειδή θέλω* [because I want] had *σύν ρήμα στην τρίτη στήλη* [plus verb in the third column] If I had had more time

T topic continuation

SESSION 4 (B1+)

Episode 264 (01:38-02:08):

S: it would be a good idea if there were little bins in the parks in the road at the road

T: in the road

S: in the road so people wouldn't throw litter in the street

Episode 265 (02:43-03:11):

S: I think we could put some litter bins and recycle bins *το να ενθαρρύνω τους ανθρώπους*; [to encourage people?]

T: encourage

S: to encourage people to recycle

Episode 266 (03:17-03:26):

S: *το γυαλί* [the glass]

T: glass

S: glass plastic paper

Episode 267 (03:36-03:51):

S: we can put recycle bins like glass

T: for glass for plastic

S: for glass for plastic for paper

Episode 268 (04:42-04:54):

S: *πώς λέω περνά την ώρα μου*; [how do I say I spend my time?]

T: to spend your time

S: to spend your time and one extra advantage is that there are a lot of...

Episode 269 (05:00-05:17):

S: so if you have something eh (pause)

T: in case of an em?

S: emergency you can go there fast

Episode 270 (05:55-05:22):

S: advantages there are cinemas and museums

T: ok one advantage is that there are?

S: one advantages

T: one advantage

S: one advantage

T: come on one advantage is that

S: one advantage is that there are cinemas and museums at the area and we can visit...

Episode 271 (08:23-08:38):

S: here I live it's most great weather all year

T: there is *υπάρχει* [there is]

S: there is a great weather all year around

Episode 272 (08:38-08:58):

S: there is no criminal lots of criminal

T: so there is low crime rate *χαμηλό ποσοστό* [low rate]

S: and there are beautiful beaches

Episode 273 (10:24-10:30):

S: if you want to go to the mall you have to go with a car

T: by car

S: by car

Episode 274 (10:32-10:44):

S: and *φούρνοι*; [bakeries?]

T: bakeries

S: bakeries are close and in walking distance

Episode 275 (11:12-11:32):

S: the people in my age they have *πηγαίνεις* [go]

T: go

S: eh go to

Episode 276 (11:51-12:09):

S: people of my age go to the cinema where they can watch whatever film they want

T: whichever

S: whichever film they want or to Marina

Episode 277 (12:06-12:15):

S: or to Marina for eating and drinks

T: for food and drinks

T topic continuation - very good...

SESSION 5 (B1+)

Episode 278 (01:27-01:33):

S: *στην αρχή* [at the beginning]

T: so at the?

S: beginning

Episode 279 (12:11-12:30):

T: what happened to her younger brother?

S: he lost in the park

T: he got lost yes

T topic continuation - he was hit by a car *ε ντάξει αν θέλετε...* [eh OK if you want...]

Episode 280 (13:05-13:10):

T: she immediately went there to see what?

S: happened

T: had happened *τι είχε γίνει* [what had happened]

T topic continuation – *οπα στην πρώτη παράγραφο...* [opa in the first paragraph..]

Episode 281 (13:37-14:00):

S: she find her younger brother

T: she found her younger brother who was? Screaming dead who was crying at the top of...

S: *γίνεται να πούμε* [can we say] bitten?

SESSION 6 (B1+)

Episode 282 (12:42-12:55):

S: they are trying to run on the roadway

T: the treadmill

S: tread

T: treadmill

S: treadmill and become fit because they want to eh have more stamina eh

Episode 283 (13:48-13:56):

S: I'd prefer relax on the field and do something alone than go to the gym and get tired and sweat

T: get tired and sweaty? OK great great

T topic continuation – OK next pairing...

Episode 284 (16:28-16:33):

S: ... and do something for themselves

T: for themselves

S: for themselves

Episode 285 (16:42-17:01):

S: he choose to be there because he wanted to be alone

T: he chose to go there because he wanted to be alone

S: and spend time with hisself himself

SESSION 7 (B1+)

Episode 286 (02:52-03:00):

S: I think is the both important

T: both are equally important you think?

S: yes

Episode 287 (16:38-16:53):

S: *τζίνη η ταπελούα για να πάεις (.) πως το λένε* [that little sign for going (.) how is it called?]

T: flyer *διαφημιστικό φυλλάδιο* [flyer]

S: it's a flyer for both martial arts and chess foundation

Episode 288 (18:58-19:08):

S: 6 pm /'su:per/

T: /'sʌpə/ dinner

S: /'sʌpə/ 7pm putting on skits...

Episode 289 (21:28-21:35):

S: I particularly like playing /ʌ'fents/

T: /ə'genst/

S: /ə'genst/ an electronic device

Episode 290 (25:16-25:23):

S: as he /'kɒleɪ/

T: /'kɒli:g/

S: /'kɒli:g/

Episode 291 (42:56-43:03):

S: *το δέχομαι επίθεση πως είναι;* [how is I was attacked (in English)?]

T: if I was attacked

S: if I was attacked

Episode 292 (43:22-43:28):

S: because you can self defence

S: so you can defend yourself

S: yes

Episode 293 (44:45-44:51):

S: playing chess for some people is not something to get bored

T: they don't get bored by doing it

S: *ναι* [yes] and for them it might be something interesting

Episode 294 (44:58-45:06):

S: I will be more smartest

T: smarter cleverer

T topic continuation - you will increase your?

Episode 295 (45:38-45:50):

S: because they want to stand up *όζα* [or] by?

T: what do you mean defend themselves?

S: because they want to defend themselves

Episode 296 (45:50-45:57):

S: and they don't want to *εξαρτώνται* [to depend]

T: they want to be independent?

S: *ναι* [yes]

Episode 297 (49:44-50:01):

S: found

T: past? Past? *Αόριστος* [past simple] past regular

S: ed

SESSION 7 (B1+):

Episode 298 (00:19-00:35):

S: the same go for

T: *ναι αλλά επειδή έν* [yes but because it's] singular the same goes for (.) which means the same is true for

T topic continuation - *δηλαδή* [namely] let's say that *λέει του η μάμμα του John* [John's mum tells him]

Episode 299 (01:36-01:51):

S: be alone

T: actually it's becoming along which means developing

T topic continuation - *δηλαδή* [namely] let's say that you're doing a project for school...

Episode 301 (06:36-06:48):

S: by tap

T: no actually with an -ing by tapping at the window *χτυπούμε ελαφρά* [we tap lightly] this movement you can see in the picture

T topic continuation - let's see the 3rd one...

Episode 302 (07:05-07:11):

S: drag

T: *άρπαζα την* [grasp it]

S: they grasp

T: grasped bravo

Episode 303 (07:29-07:37):

S: stir

T: bravo stir *ανακατεύω* [stir] but *βάρτο στο σωστό χρόνο* [put it in the right] tense? is?

S: stirring

Episode 304 (07:57-08:06):

S: pat

T: it's the other one

S: drag

T: he had to be dragged because it's passive voice

T topic continuation

Episode 305 (08:19-08:24):

S: pat

T: *βάρμου το* [put it in] passive voice doesn't like to be?

S: patted

SESSION 1 (B2)

Episode 306 (12:56-13:14):

S: which uses 5 per cent more sugar

T: *που περιέχει*; [which contains?]
S: include
T: con?
S: contains 5 per cent more sugar

Episode 307 (25:31-25:40):
S: in the future I want to be doctor
T: a doctor
S: a doctor or a teacher or a pilot

Episode 308 (25:49-25:55):
S: as doctor
T: as a doctor
S: as a doctor I want to help people

Episode 309 (25:57-26:04):
S: as teacher to learn the students
T: to teach them
S: yes

Episode 310 (26:21-26:33):
S: because I want to learn the others
T: to teach others OK
T topic continuation - and what qualifications do you think...

Episode 311 (27:52-28:07):
S: are good salary
T: a good salary OK
S: *ε κανεί κυρία (.) έν σε κάλυψα*; [eh enough Mrs (.) didn't I cover you?]

Episode 312 (28:18-28:40):
S: I suited to me
T: you think you're suited for this job
S: yes
T: so I'm suited for this job
S: I'm suited for this job because I like to teach others

Episode 313 (29:42-29:56):
S: ...and learn how eh teenagers *σκέφτεται*; [think]
T: think
S: think and one disadvantage is that you have to correct a lot of tests

Episode 314 (30:38-30:50):
S: *το θεραπεύω* [heal?]
T: heal
S: heal them and make them happy

Episode 315 (31:24-31:53):
S: the disadvantages us are is is
T: OK so one disadvantage is that
S: is that help the children
T: this is an advantage so one advantage is that

S: is that (pause)

Episode 316 (33:30-33:49):

S: *τάχα φταίουν σε εσένα* [supposedly they blame you]

T: blame the doctor

S: blame yes

Episode 317 (34:35-34:44):

S: I'm interested to be a pilot

T: OK you're interested in being a pilot

S: pilot

Episode 318 (35:20-35:25):

S: *εκπαίδευση* [training]

T: training

S: training

Episode 319 (37:19-36:36):

S: because they choose the *λάθος*; [wrong] correct?

T: the wrong career you mean

S: wrong career

Episode 320 (59:44-53:54):

S: abbreviation

T: do not *θέλουμε ρήμα δαμέ επειδή λέει* [we need a verb here because it says] do not *άρνηση θέλουμε ρήμα δαμέ* [negative we need a verb here]

S: correspond

SESSION 2 (B2)

Episode 321 (00:40-00:57):

S: when he has exams he's smoking it helps him

T: so when he has exams he smokes because it releases the stress?

S: yes

Episode 322 (01:57-02:09):

S: and they suggest me never to try it

T: so they advice you not to take up smoking

S: yes

Episode 323 (02:18-02:28):

S: smoking has bad effect in health

T: it has a negative effect

S: yes

Episode 324 (02:30-02:55):

S: for example smoking damage the lungs

T: damages the lungs

S: and it hurts all the heart

T: so it causes heart disease

S: it causes heart disease and it's a bad habit

Episode 325 (02:58-03:27):

S: people who smoking from early age

T: people who smoke from an early age

S: died first earlier than people who doesn't smoke

T: die earlier than people who don't smoke

S: yes

Episode 326 (03:41-03:51):

S: I have an uncle who's anti-smoking

T: an anti-smoker

S: yes

Episode 327 (04:55-05:10):

S: I had a friend who's smoking a lot and now have health problems

T: and now he has health problems

T topic continuation - do you know any other illnesses caused...

Episode 328 (05:55-06:03):

S: ... of young people for increase their salaries

T: to increase their salaries OK? To get more money yes?

T topic continuation - magazines and newspapers...

Episode 329 (06:25-06:35):

S: magazines and newspapers must be stopped advertise

T: must ban

S: must ban because they cause very serious in our life

Episode 330 (06:25-06:35):

S: must ban because they cause very serious in our life

T: serious health?

S: health problems in our lives

Episode 331 (07:27-07:36):

S: in Cyprus no because everyone you go

T: everywhere you go

S: everywhere you go there are people who smoking

Episode 332 (07:36-07:44):

S: everywhere you go there are people who smoking

T: who are smoking

S: who are smoking

Episode 333 (08:30-08:37):

S: and also they believe that they will be more socializing with people

T2: they'll be more more sociable

S: sociable with people when smoking

Episode 334 (09:21-09:36):

S: their friends who smoke made them to start smoking too

T: ok they wanted to imitate their friends too

S: yes

Episode 335 (10:25-10:41):

S: if the factory close they have lost their works

T: they will lose their job?

S: yes

Episode 336 (11:42-12:05):

S: they can't stop them if only cause in their life

T: ok so if it happens to them

S: yes could be stopped the

T: they would stop smoking

S: yes

Episode 337 (12:22-12:34):

S: in my opinion people who smoking

T: who smoke

S: who smoke don't stop it because they are addicted to it

Episode 338 (12:38-12:50):

S: everything they doing is not effective

T: everything that could be done would not be effective

S: yes

Episode 339 (13:43-13:50):

K: the bad things that smoking cause

T2: causes

K: yes

Episode 340 (13:53-13:59):

S: but many of them smokes

T: continue smoking

S: yes

Episode 341 (14:53-15:05):

S: they will can't smoke

T: they won't be able

S: to smoke in public places

Episode 342 (17:50-18:17):

S: these two developments of mobile phones I believe is more useful to

T: they are useful for

S: for the users and the phones will be more attractive

Episode 343 (18:36-18:47):

S: it is not must to travel with charges or spare batteries

T: OK it's not a must

S: because they are phones have more battery life

T: great they'll be activated longer

T topic continuation - and K what about the second development?

Episode 344 (19:29-19:42):

S: anyone has the same finger with you

T: no they don't

S: *κανένας* [nobody]

T: ah nobody

S: nobody

Episode 345 (19:42-19:48):

T: nobody has the same?

S: finger

T: fingerprint

S: fingerprint so only you can unlock your phone

Episode 346 (23:15-23:26):

S: yes firstly they will be very cheap eh very

T: expensive?

S: expensive and also will be very crush I think because when you...

Episode 347 (24:39-24:59):

S: and others is

T: are

S: the others are not *σημαντικά* [important]

T: necessary important vital

S: vital in people's lives

Episode 348

S: I would need?

T: I would like

S: I would like to have a double face screen

Episode 349 (27:36-27:47):

S: in one

T: on the one side

S: on the one side I can play games on the other I will send an email

SESSION 4 (B2)

Episode 350 (05:06-05:40):

S: according to the text roses were used *ευρέως* [widely]

T: were widely used

S: yes yes

Episode 351 (05:58-06:08):

S1: past

T: fo?

S2: foreigner

T: *το* [the] previous?

S2: former

Episode 352 (07:52-08:00):

S: Egyptians used roses for burial ceremony

T: ok during during?

S: *κατά τη διάρκεια* [during]

Episode 353 (09:50-10:00)

S: famous

T: no κάποιος που τον εσέβουνταν; [somebody who was respected] re?

S: respectful

T: respected

T topic continuation - when someone respected?

Episode 354 (12:57-13:25):

S: roses were a major export product which transferred

T: which was transferred passive voice by the?

S: by the Egyptians to the Romans

Episode 355 (14:58-15:19):

S: the people of Rome decorate the floors with rose petals

T: decorated?

S: floors with petals of rose

Episode 356 (20:30-20:34):

S: also Chinese

T: the Chinese

S: the Chinese believed that...

Episode 357 (21:36-21:48):

S: medicine from roses

T: made

S: made by roses

Episode 358 (21:45-21:48):

S: made by roses

T: made from

S: made from roses

Episode 359 (26:05-26:18):

S: the /θɔ:rds/

T: the /θɔ:rns/

S: the /θɔ:rns/

Episode 360 (26:18-26:26):

S: and the τα φύλλα [the leaves]

T: τα πέταλλα εννοείς [the petals you mean] its petals

S: its petals symbolise the opposite of our lives

Episode 361 (26:52-27:12):

S: the opposite of our lives

T: of our lives?

S: εσυγχύστηκα [I'm confused]

T: in our life

T topic continuation - who wants to count the words quickly?

Episode 362 (38:00-38:10):

S: climate change created

T: is created

S: is created by global warming

Episode 363 (38:50-38:57):

S: which is when CO2 released

T: is released

S: is released in the atmosphere

Episode 364 (41:05-41:11):

S: because it is no rain

T: there is no rain or very little rain

S: yes

Episode 365 (41:40-41:52):

S: Cyprus have desertification

T: so we observe the phenomenon of?

S: the phenomenon of desertification

Episode 366 (41:55-42:05):

S: ... which is Cyprus becoming a /dɪ'sert/

T: which is becoming like a /'desert/

S: because of shortage of water

Episode 367 (42:43-42:52):

S: in Cyprus we have some steps

T: we have taken

S: we have taken some steps

Episode 368 (42:52-43:31):

S: for example factories have a limit

T: so they have put a limit to what?

S: to how much release oxygen

T: no CO2 carbon dioxide

S: yes

Episode 369 (43:37-43:59):

T: they can?

S: released

T: they can release

S: and when someone increase *να το ξεπεράσει* [to exceed]

T: the factories not someone exceed

S: exceed this limit he paid

Episode 370 (43:56-44:04):

S: exceed this limit he paid

T: they

S: they paid

Episode 371 (44:06-44:19):

S: they paid

T: generally always they?

S: they had to pay some money

T: so they have to pay some money a penalty a fine

S: yes

Episode 372 (45:46-45:52):

S: also must be

T: we must

S: we must have a limit to the factory of the release of CO2

Episode 373 (58:04-58:15):

S: I believe I have a healthy diet because I eating

T: eat

S: I eat homemade food

Episode 374 (58:15-58:31):

S: I believe I consist all the eh a plethora of food

T: so you eat all types and kinds of food you mean

S: yes

Episode 375 (59:51-1:00:03):

S: I eat all of food types

T: all of the food types

T topic continuation - and how does your daily diet...

Episode 376 (1:08:40-1:08:47):

S: yet we rarely give a second /tʌf/

T: /θɔ:t/

S: /θɔ:t/ to how and where is produced

Episode 377 (1:09:11-1:09:14):

S: annual /kɒnsu:/

T: /kən'sʌmpjən/

S: /kən'sʌmpjən/ is expanding each year